

Implicit and Explicit Motives at Work: Incremental Validity Beyond Big Five Traits and Negative Effects of Their Incongruence

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Ji bo dayika min

(to my mother)

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List of Abbreviations

IO	=	Industrial and organizational
PSE	=	Picture Story Exercise
OMT	=	Operant Motive Test
MMG	=	Multi-Motive Grid
MSCT	=	Motive Self-Categorization Test
MTurk	=	Mechanical Turk
MSC	=	Motive Self-Categorization
UMS	=	Unified Motive Scale
CFA	=	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
AVE	=	Average Explained Variance
CFI	=	Comparative Fit Index
TLI	=	Tucker Lewis Index
RMSEA	=	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SRMR	=	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
IRT	=	Item Response Theory
OSF	=	Open Science Framework
PRF	=	Personality Research Form
CWB	=	Counterproductive Work Behaviors
IED	=	Implicit/Explicit Motive Discrepancies
RSA	=	Response Surface Analysis
MAWS	=	Motivation at Work Scale
BMS	=	Burnout Measure Short
e.g.	=	Exempli gratia
et al.	=	Et alii
i.e.	=	Id est
vs.	=	Versus

Abstract

Industrial and organizational psychologists have mostly favored the Big Five traits over motivational perspectives to personality (i.e., motives) when examining individual differences of work-related outcomes. This is surprising since motives explain the “why” and the Big Five explain the “how” of behaviors, and researchers have suggested that personality science would benefit from the integration of the two research perspectives. Thus, an integration of the two is also beneficial in advancing our understanding of how and why individuals differ in terms of work-related outcomes, such as negotiation initiation.

In this dissertation, I 1) investigate if explicit motives explain extra variance in negotiation initiation beyond implicit motives and the Big Five traits, while measuring negotiation initiation with a typical measure of respondent behavior; 2) explore the incremental value of implicit motives in predicting negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and the Big Five traits, and if implicit and explicit motives predict respondent and operant measures of negotiation performance respectively; and 3) test the assumption that implicit and explicit motive discrepancy results in negative outcomes by replicating and extending previous research while employing a more robust methodology for testing the (in)congruence hypothesis.

In the first article of this dissertation, I aimed to conceptually differentiate between explicit motives and the Big Five traits as researchers have sometimes used the two interchangeably. Thus, I examined if explicit motives explain extra variance in negotiation initiation beyond implicit motives and the Big Five traits. In the two studies included in the article ($N = 101$ and $N = 359$), I measured negotiation initiation with a self-report measure and the choice of behavioral alternatives for different scenarios, which reflect respondent behaviors. The results showed that explicit motives have incremental value in predicting negotiation initiation beyond implicit motives and

the Big Five traits. Among the Big Three of motives (i.e., achievement, affiliation and power motives), the explicit power motive was found to be a significant predictor of negotiation initiation, indicating that individuals who are high on the explicit power motive go to the negotiation table.

In the second article, I intended to advance the findings of the first article and examined if implicit motives have incremental validity in explaining negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and the Big Five Traits. To test this, I conducted three studies in this article: Study 1 ($N = 241$) included a self-report measure of negotiation performance, and Studies 2 and 3 ($N = 104$, $N = 179$) included a typical laboratory negotiation task to measure objective negotiation performance. The measures of negotiation performance could be classified as respondent (Study 1) and operant behaviors (Studies 2 and 3). In Study 1, the results showed that explicit motives have incremental validity beyond implicit motives and the Big Five. In Studies 2 and 3, the findings were such that implicit motives had incremental value beyond explicit motives and the Big Five traits. In addition to these, explicit and implicit achievement motives were found to be significant correlates of negotiation performance in Studies 1, 2 and 3, and Studies 2 and 3, respectively. These results strengthen the idea that implicit and explicit motives predict operant and respondent behaviors, respectively.

After differentiating explicit motives from the Big Five traits and demonstrating that explicit and implicit motives predict different outcomes, in the third article ($N = 136$) I tested the stipulation that the incongruence between implicit and explicit motives results in negative outcomes. Specifically, with a replication and extension study, I intended to examine if the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is associated with work-related outcomes such as job burnout and job satisfaction and if intrinsic motivation plays a mediational role in these relationships. Moreover, I also aimed to examine if volition mitigates these negative effects. The finding that

implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is positively associated with job burnout and intrinsic work motivation plays a mediating role in this relationship was replicated. Results also showed a negative effect of implicit-explicit motive discrepancy on job satisfaction through intrinsic work motivation. Finally, volition mitigated these negative effects.

In sum, this dissertation contributes to research and practice by showing that: motives are an important motivational personality taxonomy and should be given more place in industrial and organizational research; explicit motives should not be used interchangeably with the Big Five traits; implicit and explicit motives predict operant and respondent behaviors respectively; and implicit and explicit motive incongruence seems to be associated with negative consequences, but volition could be a potential variable to shield off the negative effects of motive incongruence. I also discuss the limitations of the studies included in this dissertation and provide directions for future research.

Keywords: Implicit motives, explicit motives, Big Five traits, negotiation initiation, negotiation performance, motive incongruence

1 General Introduction

Personality traits have been one of the most consistently studied topics in work settings since 1917 (Kozlowski et al., 2017). This is evident from the large number of meta-analyses examining the personality correlates of a wide range of work-related outcomes. To illustrate, Chiaburu and colleagues (2011) summarized the evidence on personality and organizational citizenship behavior; Bono and Judge (2004) examined the relationship between personality and transformational and transactional leadership; and Fang and colleagues (2015) investigated the relationships between personality and network position in social networks. Similarly, He et al. (2019) conducted a second-order meta-analysis to document the relationship between personality and job performance, in which they identified 101 possible meta-analyses for their study. Taken together, these show the breadth of studies that have been conducted on the relationships between personality and diverse work-related outcomes.

Regardless of the work-related outcomes studied, one of the most prevalent personality taxonomies studied has been the Big Five traits (henceforth, the Big Five) of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience proposed by McCrae and colleagues (McCrae, 1982; McCrae & Costa, 1987; McCrae & John, 1992). In fact, all of the identified meta-analyses by He and colleagues (2019) employed the Big Five as their personality variables. Researchers suggest that the reasons of the vast adoption of the Big Five as the personality taxonomy in the majority of research lie in the taxonomy's ability to capture a wide array of individuals' personality traits and its parsimonious nature (Barrick et al., 2001). The Big Five taxonomy was derived by personality psychologists from nomological networks between various related adjectives found in natural-language dictionaries (Costa & McCrae, 1997). The Big Five, in general, represent individuals' relatively stable ways of thinking, feeling and acting

(Costa & McCrae, 1997). Individuals high in extraversion are characterized by high sociability, dominance, ambition, positive emotionality and excitement seeking. Agreeable individuals are cooperative, trustful, compliant and affable. Individuals with high levels of conscientiousness are characterized by being dependable, striving for achievement and planful. Neuroticism is characterized by high levels of anxiety, hostility, depression and personal insecurity. Finally, individuals with high levels of openness to experience are imaginative, curious, insightful and artistic.

Meta-analyses conducted on the relationship between the Big Five and work-related outcomes have shown that conscientiousness is the personality characteristic that shows the most stable positive relationship with work performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001), and has been found to be associated with a variety of other work-related variables such as, among others, commitment, perseverance, and motivation for goal-directed performance (Wilmot & Ones, 2019). Next to conscientiousness, agreeableness and neuroticism have also been documented as important personality variables with positive and negative associations with positive work-related outcomes, and negative and positive associations with negative work-related outcomes, respectively (Young et al., 2018). However, meta-analyses have mostly failed to find consistent relationships between extraversion and openness to experience with work-related outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 1991; He et al., 2019).

Contrary to this vast literature on the Big Five personality taxonomy, research on other personality taxonomies like motives (including achievement, affiliation and power motives) has been mostly scant. This is especially curious because the Big Five and motives were first introduced at about the same time (the 1930s) and at the same place (Harvard University), by two founding fathers of contemporary personality research, namely Gordon Allport and Henry Murray

(McAdams, 1997). Furthermore, although Allport and Murray developed different taxonomies and approaches to personality, the two implicitly acknowledged that a personality science would benefit from an integrative approach composed of traits and motives (Winter et al., 1998). Recently, researchers have repeatedly articulated the benefits of an integrative approach (Lang et al., 2012; Runge et al., 2020). In general, this dissertation aims to concomitantly investigate motives and traits as important predictors of various work-related outcomes.

One reason underlying why researchers have not devoted much attention to motives in their research could be that implicit motives have mostly failed to produce desirable psychometric properties, such as low Cronbach's alpha (Entwisle, 1972; Lang, 2014). However, Lang (2014) demonstrated that when modelled appropriately, implicit motive measures have similar reliabilities as self-report measures. Specifically, as implicit motives are considered as needs, their expression in consequent behaviors is unlikely when they are satisfied (Atkinson et al., 1977). For example, when an individual's achievement motive is satisfied, it is less likely for the individual to engage in achievement motive related behaviors than affiliation or power related behaviors in subsequent situations. Based on this theoretical consideration, Lang (2014) employed a dynamic Thurstonian item response theory of motive expression and demonstrated that motives have indeed "good" psychometric properties.

Notably, motives have been regarded as a second major source of individual differences in addition to the Big Five or traits perspectives in psychology (Winter et al., 1998; Wolff et al., 2018). While the Big Five describe behaviors' "how", motives describe the "why". More concretely, the Big Five capture how individuals habitually and in a general manner think, feel and act. Motives capture why individuals behave in certain ways. As already documented, an

integrated approach that is composed of how individuals think, feel and act and why they act particular ways is beneficial in understanding work-related correlates of personality.

2 Theoretical Background

Motives refer to the individuals' stable differences in terms of wishes, desires and goals, and they energize, direct and select behavior (McClelland, 1987). Similar to other domains of psychology (Briñol et al., 2006; Graf & Schacter, 1985; Kahneman, 2011; Light & Singh, 1987), motive researchers have divided motives into two motive systems: an implicit motive system that operates unconsciously, and an explicit motive system that operates consciously (Brunstein & Maier, 2005; McClelland, 1985; McClelland et al., 1989; Spangler, 1992; Winter et al., 1998). In the motive tradition, for both implicit and explicit motive systems, the Big Three classes of motives, namely achievement, affiliation and power motives, have been the focus of research. These motives in the implicit motive system are commonly referred to as implicit motives and as explicit motives in the explicit motive system (Baumann et al., 2005; Brunstein & Maier, 2005). This dissertation uses these terminologies, too.

Implicit motives are defined as “motivational dispositions that operate outside of a person's conscious awareness and are aimed at the attainment of specific classes of incentives and the avoidance of disincentives” (Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2010, p. 603). Explicit motives, on the other hand, are defined as conscious evaluations of a person's self-concept (McClelland et al., 1989; Schüler et al., 2008). These definitions warrant a number of differences between implicit and explicit motives. The first difference is related to their developmental trajectories. Implicit motives are said to develop in the pre-verbal stages of childhood when the language acquisition has not taken place (McClelland & Pilon, 1983). On the other hand, explicit motives develop after

language acquisition has taken place. Based on this, implicit motives reflect emotional experiences that children experience during this stage of childhood. On the other hand, explicit motives reflect cultural norms, expectations, rewards and punishments from others. Consequently, implicit motives are said to respond to activity incentives (i.e., carrying out the activity at hand is the incentive itself), and explicit motives are said to respond to social incentives including norms and external expectations.

The second difference is that implicit motives operate outside of consciousness and explicit motives are cognitive self-representations. This unconscious and conscious nature of the two motive systems makes it necessary to measure the two with different measures. While explicit motives are and can be measured by self-report measures, implicit motives are measured by projective or semi-projective tests. Among the projective tests, Picture Story Exercise (PSE; Schultheiss & Pang, 2007) and Operant Motive Test (OMT; Scheffer et al., 2003) are the most commonly used measures. Apart from these, as a semi-projective test, the Multi-Motive Grid (MMG; Sokolowski et al., 2000) has also been widely used. Recently, researchers developed other psychometrically valid tests such as the Motive Self-Categorization Test (MSCT; Runge & Lang, 2019) to measure implicit motives.

Finally and most importantly for this dissertation, implicit and explicit motives predict different classes of behaviors (Brunstein & Maier, 2005; McClelland et al., 1989; Runge et al., 2020). Implicit motives typically predict operant behaviors whereas explicit motives predict respondent behaviors. The distinction between operant and respondent behaviors can be traced back to Skinner (1938). In his seminal work, Skinner differentiated behaviors into those that are elicited by an apparent stimulus in the environment (i.e., respondent) and those that are elicited automatically and spontaneously without any apparent stimuli in the environment (i.e., operant).

The strength of operant behaviors is calculated based on the probability of the response occurring over time. Respondent behaviors are calculated based on amplitude, latency and/or persistence. Examples of operant outcomes include income trajectories, publications and job level attained in an organization (Spangler, 1992). Respondent behaviors or outcomes include opinion surveys, results from personality measures, and school grades.

2.1 Implicit and Explicit Motives at Work

Since the 2000s, increasing attention has been directed toward motives (especially implicit motives) from both personality and motivational psychologists. Results from these studies have increased our knowledge of implicit and explicit motives, the mechanisms with which they have effects on behavior and their antecedents. For example, it is now well-established that implicit motives have biological bases (Schultheiss, 2008; Wirth & Schultheiss, 2006; Wirth et al., 2006); motives show cross-cultural similarities (Hofer et al., 2006; Hofer & Chasiotis, 2022); and they accommodate to the life circumstances (Denzinger & Brandstätter, 2018). Compared to this vast literature, to the best of my knowledge, there are only a handful of researchers working on motives in work settings.

Work researchers have demonstrated that motives predict product involvement or interest (Schmidt & Frieze, 1997), internationalization decision of small and medium-sized enterprises (Handrito et al., 2020), networking behaviors (Wolff et al., 2018), public service motivation (Slabbinck & Van Witteloostuijn, 2020), entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Slabbinck et al., 2018), utilitarian choices in moral dilemmas (Suessenbach & Moore, 2015), leadership styles (Delbecq et al., 2013), firms' competitive responses to external threats like short seller activism (Shi & DesJardine, 2022), income growth trajectories (Apers et al., 2019), success in business (Winter, 2010), counterproductive work behaviors (Runge et al., 2020), task and contextual performance at

work (Lang et al., 2012), and entrepreneurship behaviors (Collins et al., 2004). In these studies, the majority of the researchers have adopted implicit motives as their focal variables while mostly ignoring explicit motives. One reason for this could be that implicit motives are “sexy” as they are nonconscious and when used to predict behaviors, they are considered as more scientifically “novel” than the corresponding explicit motives. Another reason might be that as explicit motives are assessed with trait-like measures, they are considered as “just another trait approach to personality” and thus, were mostly ignored.

There are, indeed, some studies that employed both implicit and explicit motives in predicting individuals’ behaviors (e.g., Hermans et al., 2017). However, these studies are rare and in the cases where both implicit and explicit motives are used to predict individual behaviors, researchers were mostly interested in (in)congruence between implicit and explicit motives. As McClelland et al. (1989) noted: “whatever the reasons for discordance between implicit and explicit motives, it can certainly lead to trouble” (p. 700). This claim has been supported by researchers from many different psychological backgrounds. The overall conclusion from these studies is that the incongruence between implicit and explicit motives has mostly negative effects on individuals’ well-being (Baumann et al., 2005; Kehr, 2004), intrinsic motivation (Rawolle et al., 2016) and burnout (Brandstätter et al., 2016; Rawolle et al., 2016).

In spite of the fact that these studies advance our understanding of motives at the workplace and, in general, in psychology related variables, more research is needed to fully investigate the additive effects of implicit and explicit motives on certain work related outcomes. Moreover, research is needed to establish the optimal methodological approaches to investigate how the discrepancy between these motives is associated with such work-related outcomes. This dissertation tackles these necessities. That is, this dissertation employs both the Big Five and

motives in its investigations. However, not only implicit motives but also explicit motives were employed and concomitantly investigated in terms of their additive effects. In this process, this dissertation employs the Big Three of both implicit and explicit motives, namely achievement, affiliation and power motives. The achievement motive refers to the need to advance one's excellence standards, and to strive for excellence in specific tasks; the affiliation motive refers to the need to have warm, close and harmonious relationships with others; and the power motive refers to the need to have a higher status and control over other individuals.

As previously stated, implicit motives are measured with projective tests such as PSE and OMT. In these measures, participants are presented with a set of ambiguous pictures and asked to come up with a story about the scenes depicted in the pictures. After the stories are collected, the trained coders code these stories in terms of their achievement, affiliation and power content. However, this procedure of coding is time consuming and could reach up to 41 hours of coding per coder for studies with 100 participants (Pang & Ring, 2020). Because of this, several researchers suggested automatized coding of the PSE (Pang & Ring, 2020; Schultheiss, 2013). However, the performance of automatic ways of content coding is not as good as that of human coders (yet). Consequently, in this dissertation, a new measure of implicit motive, the MSCT (Runge & Lang, 2019) was used. The choice of this scale was due to two reasons. Firstly, similar to PSE and OMT, participants are presented with a set of ambiguous pictures and are asked to produce stories about the given pictures. Compared to the other two, the MSCT also includes a second part where participants are presented with each picture, the stories participants wrote for each of these pictures, and five to seven empirically derived items for each picture. These items include statements about achievement, affiliation and power motives, as well as statements that do not tap into any of these motives. Here, participants are asked to indicate which item fits their story

the best. This makes the MSCT more economical when compared to the other two. Additionally, the MSCT was chosen as a measure of implicit motives because participants have more insights into their story contents than coders have, and so, can more easily identify their motives.

To sum up, IO researchers have favored the Big Five when investigating individual differences in terms of work-related outcomes, even though motives are also proposed as a second big classification of individual differences. Indeed, there are IO researchers who studied the motives as antecedents of work-related outcomes. However, when doing so, they mostly focused on implicit motives and ignored explicit motives. Explicit motives were mostly examined in the studies on the effects of motive (in)congruence. This dissertation employs the Big Five, the Big Three of implicit and explicit motives, and investigates if implicit and explicit motives have incremental effects beyond the Big Five in negotiation initiation and negotiation performance. Also, the relationships between motive (in)congruence and intrinsic work motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction were investigated with a more powerful modelling technique, namely polynomial regression with response surface analysis (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Parry, 1993). This technique was chosen as the typically used difference scores fall short in capturing the true (in)congruence effects. Below, the aims and contributions of each of the articles included in this dissertation are presented.

2.2 Article 1: Getting to the Bargaining Table: the Role of Explicit Motives and Traits in Negotiation Initiaton

In this article, the main aim was to investigate the incremental validity of explicit motives beyond the Big Five, and implicit motives in negotiation initiation. As negotiation initiation affects the subsequent behaviors of individuals on the subsequent negotiation scenarios (Reif & Brodbeck, 2017), it has gained particular attention from IO researchers. For example, in a recent meta-

analysis, Kugler and colleagues (2018) found that women, in general, are less likely to initiate negotiation than men are. Several researchers demonstrated that the reason why women do not go to the negotiation table in the first place might be due to the backlash they experience in negotiation scenarios (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Dannals et al., 2021).

Negotiation initiation refers to individuals' intentional and on their own actions of starting negotiations (Reif & Brodbeck, 2014). IO researchers have investigated negotiation initiation in a wide array of settings and situations. To illustrate, results from a field study and two experimental studies demonstrated that the discrepancy between what individuals expect in terms of salary and what they have is significantly associated with their likelihood to initiate negotiations (Reif & Brodbeck, 2017). Other researchers, employing both qualitative and quantitative data, found that the gender differences in negotiation initiation depend on the context in which the negotiation takes place. More specifically, in social contexts like mutual living, women are more likely to initiate negotiations compared to men. Comparatively, men tend to start negotiation more than women in contexts such as contracts, compensation and work. In addition to these, there are also studies connecting the personality of individuals to negotiation initiation. For example, Machiavellianism, assertiveness as a sub-facet of extraversion, and agreeableness were found to be significant predictors of the propensity to initiate negotiations (Volkema & Fleck, 2009; Reyes et al., 2021; Kong et al., 2011). As already claimed in the main introduction, the Big Five has been the most widely used personality taxonomy in negotiation initiation research. There is, to my knowledge, no previous research that established relationships between the Big Three motives of achievement, affiliation and power motives and negotiation initiation. This first article closes this research gap and investigates if negotiation initiation is associated with motives. Specifically, by focusing on explicit motives, this research investigates if explicit motives explain extra variance

beyond the Big Five and implicit motives, and if explicit power and achievement motives are positively and affiliation motive is negatively associated with the propensity to initiate negotiations. The focus of this article is on explicit motives because the previous motive literature has favored implicit motives and because sometimes, researchers use explicit motives and trait measures of personality interchangeably (e.g., Lang et al., 2012). This research aims to be a basis to motivate IO researchers to investigate explicit motives as antecedents of work-related outcomes, and to make the conceptual differences between explicit motives and the Big Five traits clear.

As previously claimed, explicit motives predict respondent behaviors that are associated with known stimuli and immediate choices (McClelland et al., 1989). In this research, the typical respondent behaviors were selected as outcome variables such as responses on a questionnaire (i.e., self-report measure of negotiation initiation) and choices on behavioral alternatives to some negotiation initiation scenarios (i.e., vignette-based negotiation initiation measure). Because of this, we expected explicit motives but not implicit motives to be significantly associated with negotiation initiation in the two studies included in this article. Furthermore, this article builds on the cognitive-motivational process model of negotiation initiation (Reif & Brodbeck, 2014), and searches for the answers to the questions of why individuals initiate or refrain from initiating negotiations. The general premise of the model is that individuals produce negative affective responses to situations when they perceive that what they want (be it salary, status or relationship level) is not in line with what they have. This negative response, in turn, motivates individuals to start a negotiation. Based on this, we expect that individuals with high explicit motives will be more motivated to initiate negotiations if they have an imbalance between what they want and have. Furthermore, the negotiation initiation situations could offer incentives for individuals high on respective explicit motives and thus, they may start negotiations. However, such environments

might not offer similar incentives for individuals with a dominant affiliation motive but with dominant achievement or power motives. This is because individuals with high affiliation motive strive for establishing and maintaining close and warm social relationships with others and negotiation initiation scenarios might signal the availability of interpersonal conflict, which is a disincentive for these individuals. However, for individuals with a high power and achievement motive, the negotiation initiation scenarios might offer pleasurable experiences in the forms of providing situations where people can have control over other individuals and situations and also increase their current state of excellence. For example, if an individual's perceived achievement level is not as high as the person wants, this might create a negative affect, which in turn motivates the individual to start negotiating. More so, the individual with a high achievement motive might genuinely find the scenarios to initiate negotiations pleasant and might consequently start them.

With the above mentioned in mind, this article contributes to research and practice in several ways. Firstly, literature on the outcomes of negotiation is abundant while research on negotiation initiation is lacking, even though negotiation initiation (or not) affects the subsequent individual outcomes such as salary and status (Reif & Brodbeck, 2017). By investigating the antecedents of negotiation initiation, this research advances the literature by gaining more insights into the motivational determinants of negotiation initiation. Secondly, research on individual differences in negotiation initiation has mostly focused on the Big Five traits. Although this is an important endeavor, other possible personality characteristics should be taken into consideration when theorizing about the antecedents of negotiation initiation. Finally, this research contributes to practice as well. As employees who refrain from initiating negotiations might find it easier to quit their job and start fresh with higher salary expectations at other jobs, it becomes important for companies to know which and why individuals start negotiating or refrain from starting

negotiations. Understanding this, companies could develop strategies to provide the people who do not start negotiating with the necessary compensations so that they do not lose talented employees.

2.3 Article 2: Revisiting Individual Differences in Negotiation Performance: The Role of Implicit Motives and Explicit Motives

Compared to Article 1, this article tackled implicit and explicit motives in negotiation performance situations. That is, the main aim was to extend the findings of Article 1 by integrating respondent and operant negotiation performance behaviors and examining if implicit and explicit motives predict the respondent and operant negotiation behaviors, respectively, and if implicit motives predict extra variance beyond the Big Five traits. In the following, I provide a general introduction to the topic.

IO researchers have long held the idea that personality is limited in explaining the negotiation performance of individuals (Bazerman et al., 2000; Rubin & Brown, 1975; Thompson, 1990). By criticizing this conclusion and naming it as an irrelevance consensus, Sharma et al. (2013) claim that this irrelevance is contrary to the findings about personality in the fields closely associated with IO psychology, such as management, and is contrary to common sense. They go even further and call for the revival of individual differences research in negotiation research. In fact, in their meta-analysis, they demonstrated that negotiation performance is indeed related to personality traits such as neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience.

Since the call to give personality another chance in negotiation research, there has been a revival and a number of papers have been published on this issue. For example, Caputo (2016) found that extraversion and agreeableness are significantly associated with reaching integrative agreements in a study of experienced managers. Additionally, deriving from the similarity-

attraction theory in a dyad study, Wilson et al. (2016) showed that the dyads with similar extraversion and agreeableness personality traits (both high-high and low-low) reach agreements faster and report less relationship conflict. Finally, Amistad et al. (2018) employed the actor-partner-interaction model and showed that partners' openness to experience and extraversion personality characteristics were positively associated with subjective economic value of the negotiation.

This research extends these recent findings by focusing on motives and the Big Five. Specifically, this research investigates if explicit motives and the Big Five explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation performance, and if implicit motives explain extra variance in negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and the Big Five. The basic idea behind these expectations was that negotiation scenarios offer incentives for individuals with a high implicit motive. However, these incentives might not be pronounced for every motive. This is based on the following theoretical considerations: individuals with a high achievement motive seek to challenge themselves, increase their excellence standards and enjoy mid-difficulty tasks; individuals with a high affiliation motive seek to establish and maintain warm and close relationships with others; and individuals with high power motive seek to establish control over other individuals and environments. We argue that implicit achievement and power motives will be positively and implicit affiliation motive will be negatively associated with negotiation performance. To put these speculations to a test, the first study in this article measures negotiation performance on a typical self-report measure, and the last two studies measure negotiation performance by typical operant behaviors of negotiation (i.e., points conceded throughout the six negotiation rounds; De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995; Van Kleef et al., 2004; Van Kleef et al., 2006).

With this research, this dissertation advances the literature in several ways and contributes to practice. From a research perspective, this research acknowledges the calls for giving the individual differences in negotiation research another chance and adds to the current research. Not only by focusing on the Big Five traits, which have been the dominant individual difference taxonomy in personality but also by integrating motives, this research provides a holistic approach to personality variables in explaining negotiation performance. Furthermore, it goes one step further and shows that implicit motives explain extra variance beyond the Big Five traits in negotiation performance, which signifies why researchers interested in individual differences in personality should also consider implicit motives among the promising predictors for their research. Furthermore, this research adds to the first article by employing two different measures of negotiation performance: namely respondent and operant behaviors. By specifically employing these two different measures of negotiation performance and investigating if implicit and explicit motives are differently associated with these two outcome variables, it extends the findings from the first article where the outcome variable was a respondent outcome. In addition, this article also explicates why the three implicit motives have differential effects on negotiation performance. This research has practical implications too. Managers and companies at large should consider individuals' implicit motives when allocating a negotiation job to an employee. For example, they should consider sending an employee with achievement motives to a negotiation table when the negotiation has both integrative and distributive characteristics. Of course, this means that managers and companies should also know about the implicit motives of specific employees. One possibility to know this could be administering the new implicit motives measure of the MSCT, which is relatively more economic compared to other measures of implicit motives such as OMT and PSE. Another possibility to know this could be to observe if the individual employee is

energized in performance situations, where the task is about improving one's standards of excellence.

2.4 Article 3: Perceived Intrinsic Motivation Mediates the Effect of Motive Incongruence on Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction

After establishing the incremental effects of explicit motives beyond the Big Five and implicit motives with respondent behaviors of outcome variables and incremental effects of implicit motives over the Big Five and explicit motives with operant behavior measures of outcome variables. Based on these, this article set to examine if and how specific combinations of implicit and explicit motives are associated with certain outcome variables. To that end, the speculation that “whatever the reasons for discordance between implicit and explicit motives, it can certainly lead to trouble” (McClelland et al., 1989, p. 700) was put to a test in this article. In fact, there is already research showing that the incongruence between implicit and explicit motives is associated with certain outcome variables. For example, Baumann and colleagues (2005) demonstrated that the discrepancy between implicit and explicit motives is negatively associated with subjective well-being. Hagemeyer et al. (2013) documented that the incongruence between implicit and explicit motives is positively associated with an increased risk of a relationship breakup for couples. Finally, Kehr (2004a) showed that the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is positively associated with volitional depletion among managers.

These and much of the related research were conducted to test if and how the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is associated with well-being or well-being related constructs. However, more research is needed to disentangle how this discrepancy is associated with important work-related outcomes such as intrinsic motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction. Notably, there is already some evidence showing that the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is positively

associated with job burnout through intrinsic work motivation (Rawolle et al., 2016). However, the methodologies employed in this research and similar research, which focuses on the absolute difference between implicit and explicit motives as a measure of motive incongruence, have been criticized by several researchers (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993; Shanock et al., 2010). One of the main criticisms of the use of difference scores as a measure of incongruence is about the assumptions that go into regression equations when building the difference scores. That is, the difference score of the two predictors used for measuring incongruence implies that both of the predictors have equal regression weights in predicting the outcome variable (for further information, see Edwards, 1994). Unless tested explicitly, this assumption is often violated and results in erroneous conclusions. To tackle these shortcomings of difference scores, Edwards and Parry (1993) proposed the use of polynomial regression with response surface analysis, which does not place assumptions about the equality of the regression weights for the two predictors (see also, Edwards, 1994). One advantage of polynomial regression with response surface analysis lies in its ability to answer specific questions regarding the different combinations of the predictors (e.g., high-high, low-low, high-low or low-high), and how these different combinations are associated with an outcome variable (Humberg et al., 2020).

As job burnout is an important organizational outcome and has a big share in healthcare expenditures (Garton, 2017), more robust findings on antecedents of job burnout are needed so that researchers and practitioners could find solutions to tackle this health problem. Furthermore, in the light of the now-well-acknowledged replication crisis in psychology (Aarts et al., 2015), this dissertation puts extra importance on replicating the previous literature that has methodological shortcomings and instead uses more recently developed robust methods. To that end, the previous literature showing that the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is positively associated with job

burnout, and that this relationship is mediated by intrinsic job motivation (Rawolle et al., 2016) was replicated. This article not only replicates the findings of Rawolle and colleagues (2016) with a more robust modeling of motive incongruence, but also extends them by integrating job satisfaction as a further outcome variable and volition as a moderator in the relationship between implicit-explicit motive discrepancy and intrinsic motivation. This derives from previous literature that shows the discrepancy between implicit and explicit motives is negatively associated with job satisfaction (Thielgen et al., 2015), and previous theoretical considerations suggesting that the discrepancy between implicit and explicit motives leads to psychological conflict and that volition is needed to resolve this conflict (Kehr, 2004b). Specifically, similar to Rawolle and colleagues (2016), we expected that the negative relationship of the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy and job burnout is mediated by intrinsic job motivation. In addition to these, we expected a negative relationship between implicit-explicit motive discrepancy and job satisfaction, and that this relationship is mediated by intrinsic motivation. Finally, as volition is theorized to compensate for the negative effects of the implicit-explicit motive discrepancy on intrinsic motivation (Kehr, 2004b), we expected that the relationship between implicit-explicit motive discrepancy and intrinsic motivation to be moderated so that this relationship is not significant for either high or low levels of volition.

This research advances the literature and contributes to practice in several ways. Firstly, by replicating the finding that implicit-explicit motive incongruence is positively associated with job burnout with a robust method and pre-registered study, this study strengthens the claims and conclusions that implicit-explicit motive discrepancy seems to be indeed harmful for individuals in terms of lowering their intrinsic motivation at work and job satisfaction, and increasing job burnout levels. However, this study does not stop at identifying one of the reasons of job burnout

but also offers treatment in the form of volition. That is, this research showed that volition could play a role in diminishing the negative effects of implicit-explicit motive discrepancy on job burnout and satisfaction. Thus, companies, managers and researchers could gather their resources and develop interventions to improve individual employee's volition to prevent job burnout.

2.5 Summary of the General Introduction

IO researchers have mostly employed the Big Five when investigating the individual differences of work-related outcomes. This is clear from the number of meta-analyses showing the Big Five as significant correlates of work-related outcomes such as leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004), job performance (Barrick et al., 2003; Barrick et al., 2001; He et al., 2019), organizational citizenship behavior (Chiaburu et al., 2011) and workplace safety (Beus et al., 2015). Although motivational perspectives to personality in terms of motives were developed around the same time as the Big Five, IO researchers have mostly neglected it. However, some recent studies showed that motives are important antecedents of work-related outcomes (Apers et al., 2019; Lang et al., 2012; Runge et al., 2020). As motives explain why individuals behave the ways they do and traits explain how individuals think, behave and feel, an integrative approach to research including both motives and the Big Five would be beneficial in increasing our knowledge of the antecedents of important work-related outcomes. At large, this dissertation advances the literature by concomitantly employing motives and the Big Five to predict work-related outcomes. In Article 1, I conducted two studies to test the incremental value of explicit motives beyond implicit motives and the Big Five in predicting negotiation initiation. The employed negotiation initiation measures were typical respondent outcomes and thus, I expected that explicit achievement and power motives are positively and affiliation motive is negatively associated with negotiation initiation but implicit motives were not related. In Article 2, I extended the findings of Article 1 by adopting

both respondent and operant measures of negotiation performance. Here the focus was on implicit motives and I expected that implicit motives would predict negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and the Big Five. Additionally, I tested if implicit achievement and power motives are positively and affiliation motive is negatively associated with negotiation performance. Finally, in Article 3, I tested the idea of the negative effects of implicit and explicit motive discrepancy on intrinsic work motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction by replicating and extending the findings of Rawolle et al. (2016). Specifically, I expected the positive and negative relationships between the implicit-explicit motive congruence and job burnout and job satisfaction, respectively, to be mediated by intrinsic motivation. Based on the compensatory model of work motivation and volition (Kehr, 2004b), I expected volition to mitigate the negative effects of implicit-explicit motive discrepancy on intrinsic job motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction. These expectations were largely supported. Specifically, this dissertation extends the literature by showing that explicit motives should not be used interchangeably with the Big Five as they explain extra variance beyond implicit motives and the Big Five (Article 1); that motivational perspectives of personality in terms of implicit and explicit motives should be taken into consideration when the aim is to predict operant and respondent behaviors of negotiation performance (Article 2); and that implicit-explicit motive discrepancy indeed leads to negative outcomes and volition could be a candidate variable to mitigate these negative outcomes (Article 3).

Below I present each article in its order and place, review the findings from these three articles in a broader setting in the general discussion section, and provide a short conclusion.

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3 Article 1

Getting to the Bargaining Table: The Role of Explicit Motives and Traits in Negotiation Initiation


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Cafer Bakaç and Hugo M. Kehr contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by Cafer Bakaç. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Cafer Bakaç, and Hugo M. Kehr commented on previous versions of the manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Getting to the bargaining table: The role of explicit motives and traits in negotiation initiation

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ABSTRACT

Motives have been considered as a second source of individual differences next to trait measures. In negotiation initiation research, there is accumulating evidence that personality is related to propensity to initiate negotiations. To our knowledge, no previous study investigated if explicit motives are associated with the propensity to initiate negotiations. With this research, we close this research gap and add on to the literature by concurrently investigating if trait measures of personality as well as motivational measures of personality are associated with negotiation initiation. To that end, we conducted two studies ($N = 101$, and $N = 359$) with self-report (Study 1) and vignettes (Study 2) to measure negotiation initiation. In general, we found support for our hypotheses. We add to the literature by demonstrating that explicit motives and traits should not be used interchangeably and that traits and explicit motives might have complementary effects on negotiation initiation. We also report practical implications of our study.

1. Introduction

A “negotiation begins, unfolds, and concludes” (Holmes, 1992, p. 83). Over a couple of decades, the processes (i.e., the unfolding) and outcomes (i.e., conclusions) of negotiation have gained wide attention from researchers (e.g., for three meta-analyses, Hüffmeier, Freund, Zerres, Backhaus, & Hertel, 2014; Mazei et al., 2015; Sharma, Bottom, & Elfenbein, 2013) but not much negotiation initiation (i.e., beginning; Kugler, Reif, Kaschner, & Brodbeck, 2018; Small, Gelfand, Babcock, & Gettman, 2007). Although studies investigating negotiation initiation do exist, they are rare compared to studies investigating processes and outcomes of negotiation. Among these scarce studies, some show convincing evidence that gender, recognition of negotiable opportunities, situational framing, and culture, in general, are significant antecedents of negotiation initiation (Kugler et al., 2018; Small et al., 2007; Volkema & Fleck, 2009; Volkema, Kapoutsis, & Nikolopoulos, 2013). However, more research is needed to investigate the antecedents of the negotiation initiation.

As negotiation initiation can affect subsequent negotiation behaviors and outcomes (e.g., Reif & Brodbeck, 2014; Rubin, 1989; Zartman, 2000), some scholars have recently called for research on psychological antecedents of the negotiation initiation (e.g., Reif & Brodbeck, 2014). With this research, we seek to advance the literature on the correlates of

negotiation initiation. While doing so, we focus on the personality and motivational characteristics of individuals because these characteristics might influence which negotiation situations individuals choose and find most rewarding (Elfenbein, 2020). Specifically, we focus on motives as correlates of negotiation initiation. Motives have been regarded as the second source of individual differences in personality, besides trait measures of personality like the Big-Five (Runge, Lang, Zettler, & Lievens, 2020; Wolff, Weikamp, & Batinic, 2018). Researchers have traditionally studied the *Big Three* classes of motives: achievement, affiliation, and power (Kehr, 2004; Lang, Zettler, Ewen, & Hülsheger, 2012). While trait personality measures refer to *how* individuals habitually act, think and feel (Costa & McCrae, 1997), motives refer to *why* individuals engage in specific behaviors (Wolff et al., 2018). Motive researchers have differentiated between implicit (i.e., unconscious) and explicit (i.e., conscious) motives (McClelland, Koestner, & Weinberger, 1989) and have favored implicit motives in their studies while mostly ignoring their corresponding explicit motives. Previous research found that individuals with a high implicit power motive reject concessions offered by others and that those with high affiliation motive make concessions (Langner & Winter, 2001). We, in this research, go beyond implicit motives and focus on explicit motives and traits personality variables as possible correlates of negotiation initiation; and examine if explicit motives are significantly associated with negotiation initiation.

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By doing so, we contribute to research by unraveling the personality and motivational characteristics of individuals that are associated with negotiation initiation, which researchers could utilize in their own research. This could also help practitioners to develop interventions to motivate individuals who refrain from initiating negotiations to start negotiating.

1.1. Negotiation initiation

Common definitions of negotiation consider it as communication between at least two parties with differing interests, the aim of which is to reach an agreement on scarce resources (e.g., Pruitt, 1998). Reif and Brodbeck (2014) consider negotiations to be initiated when individuals intentionally and on their own accord start negotiating. Organizational psychology researchers have studied negotiation initiation in various ways, in various contexts, and employing various samples. For example, Small et al. (2007) conducted an experimental study with university students to investigate the likelihood of starting negotiations in specific situations. Meister (2014) measured negotiation initiation as a general behavioral tendency by measuring the likelihood of an individual to engage in negotiations when they buy a product or service. Yet others investigated negotiation initiation by the behavioral alternatives individuals would choose upon reading scenarios on diverse negotiation arising issues (e.g., Kapoutsis, Volkema, & Lampaki, 2017; Kapoutsis, Volkema, & Nikolopoulos, 2013).

With this research, we aim to extend the literature on determinants of negotiation initiation and focus, specifically, on the intra-individual psychological variables. In doing so, we draw from Reif and Brodbeck's (2014) cognitive-motivational model of negotiation initiation, which focuses on the psychological mechanisms underlying individuals' decisions to initiate negotiations or refrain from initiating negotiations. Specifically, building on Vroom's (1964) Expectancy \times Valence approach, their model establishes five core elements as determinants of negotiation initiation, namely: discrepancy, affective response, valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. According to their model, the discrepancy resulting from the incongruence between individuals' current state (what they receive) and desired state (what they expect) plays a key role in individuals' decision to initiate or refrain from initiating a negotiation. This discrepancy, at the same time, is associated with negative affect. Negative affect, in turn, is also related to negotiation initiation. In their model, both discrepancy and affect are conceptualized as the driving mechanisms that motivate individuals to initiate or refrain from initiating a negotiation. Furthermore, they claim that the relationships between discrepancy, negative affect, and negotiation initiation are moderated by: valence (when the outcome of the negotiation is desired); instrumentality (when the economic, relational and self-related benefits outweigh the costs); and expectancy (when the individuals believe that they can successfully start negotiating with a counterpart). Thus, we would also expect that when individuals have a) a desire for the outcome of a negotiation; b) perceive themselves as capable of initiating a negotiation; c) and/or weigh the benefits heavier than costs of starting a negotiation; they are likely to start negotiating.

1.2. Implicit and explicit motives

Motives have been considered as the second source of individual differences (Wolff et al., 2018). They are thought to energize, select, and direct behaviors (McClelland, 1987). McClelland et al. (1989) differentiated between two motive systems as is typically done in other areas of psychology (e.g., Brin'ol, Petty, & Wheeler, 2006; Kahneman, 2011). While the implicit motive system refers to "motivational dispositions that operate outside of a person's conscious awareness and [they] are aimed at the attainment of specific classes of incentives and the avoidance of specific classes of disincentives" (Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2010, p. 603); the explicit motive system refers to individuals' intentions and strivings they are consciously aware of (e.g., Sheldon, Ryan, Deci, &

Kasser, 2004). The two are typically measured differently (i.e., implicit motives by nonreactive procedures; Schultheiss, Liening, & Schad, 2008, and explicit motives by self-report measures), are thought to develop at different stages of childhood (McClelland & Pilon, 1983), and are not correlated (e.g., Ko'lnner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992). The most important difference between the two motive systems for our research is that the two predict different kinds of behaviors. Implicit motives predict operant behaviors while explicit motives predict respondent behaviors (McClelland, 1980). Operant behaviors are spontaneous behaviors which are generally elicited by task incentives. Respondent behaviors are conscious behaviors related to specific stimuli in the environment, and are elicited by external social cues (Biernat, 1989; Runge et al., 2020). For example, individuals with a high implicit achievement motive might enjoy a mid-difficulty task as the task itself is rewarding. An example for the explicit achievement motive could be goals set on a task by an experimenter.

Over the past few decades, especially implicit motives enjoyed wide attention from researchers compared to explicit motives. One immediate reason could be that explicit motives might be considered as "just another traits framework" as some researchers have used explicit motives and trait measures of personality like the Big Five interchangeably (e.g., Lang et al., 2012). Although we acknowledge that conceptualization and the measures used for explicit motives show similarities to those of trait measures of personality, we hold the idea that the two should be studied separately. Drawing on the motive literature, we maintain the idea that explicit motives have different functions than traits (Wolff et al., 2018) and effects on behavior. With this research, we put this speculation in a test.

1.3. Big Five traits and negotiation initiation

Similar to other research streams in organizational psychology, Big Five traits have been a "favorite" source of individual differences in terms of negotiation initiation. Researchers have found that assertiveness as a sub-facet of extraversion and extraversion in general are positively related to negotiation initiation while neuroticism is negatively related (Harris & Mowen, 2001; Reyes, Dinh, & Salas, 2021; Xiu, Kang, & Roline, 2015). Furthermore, researchers did not find any significant relationship between initial salary demands and agreeableness (e.g., Neville & Fisk, 2019) as agreeable people are considerate, altruistic, trusting and kind in their interpersonal relationships.

Reif and Brodbeck's (2014) cognitive-motivational model of negotiation initiation may explain the relationship between traits and negotiation initiation. As previously described, the subjective perceptions of incongruence between what individuals want and receive might lead to negative affect, which, in turn, leads to negotiation initiation. Personality may exert its influence on negotiation initiation through the link between incongruence and negative valence. For example, people differ in terms of their receptiveness of negative valence (Matsumoto et al., 2000) and thus could start (or not start) negotiations differently based on the perceived negative valence. As it is not the main focus of our study, we do not expound this further but suggest:

Hypothesis 1. Big Five personality traits explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation initiation.

1.4. Explicit motives and negotiation initiation

By relying on Reif and Brodbeck's (2014) cognitive-motivational model of negotiation initiation, we expect that individuals with different motives initiate (or not) negotiations differently as the psychological mechanisms underlying each motive for initiating negotiations might be different. In this research, we measured negotiation initiation using a self-report measure (Study 1) and vignettes (Study 2). Our measures of negotiation initiation in this research denote typical measures that elicit respondent behavior. In the following, we explain

the relationship between each explicit motive and negotiation initiation in details.

Individuals with a high explicit achievement motive are concerned with increasing their performance and standard of excellence (McClelland et al., 1989). These individuals respond to social stimuli and immediate choices associated with achievement settings (McClelland, 1985). Researchers have shown that the explicit achievement motive is positively related to setting high levels of aspiration (Heckhausen & Halisch, 1986) and the choice of difficult tasks (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). These correlates of explicit achievement motive reflect deliberate and conscious processes. Based on these and motive theorizing, we expect individuals with a high explicit achievement motive to evaluate if initiating negotiations have positive incentives for them. As we measure negotiation initiation by a self-report measure and vignettes, which reflect respondent behaviors, we expect individuals with high explicit achievement motive to have positive incentives and valence for initiating negotiations. Thus, we expect:

Hypothesis 2. Explicit achievement motive is positively associated with negotiation initiation.

Individuals with high explicit affiliation motive are concerned with building, maintaining, and restoring friendly and warm relationships with others (Atkinson, Heyns, & Veroff, 1954; Boyatzis, 1973). These individuals display verbal social behaviors in sport competitions (Wegner, Bohnacker, Mempel, Teubel, & Schüller, 2014), are warm and gregarious (Engeser & Langens, 2010). In addition, Slabbinck and Van Witteloostuijn (2020) have recently investigated implicit and explicit motives as determinants of public service motivation. They found evidence that explicit affiliation motive is positively associated with non-selfish but altruistic motivations characterized in public service settings. Furthermore, affiliation oriented individuals avoid confrontation and conflict (Cable & Judge, 2003; Schneer & Chanin, 1987), and accommodate to the other negotiating party and concede fast (Langner & Winter, 2001). Based on these, we expect that individuals with a high explicit affiliation motive do not start negotiations, as starting negotiations could lead to conflict and disruption of warm and friendly relationships, which are disincentives for these individuals. Thus, we expect:

Hypothesis 3. Explicit affiliation motive is negatively associated with negotiation initiation.

Individuals with a high explicit power motive are characterized with wishes to have control over other individuals and situations by persuasion, influence, and helping (McClelland, 1975). They have a higher probability of making an utilitarian choice in moral dilemmas when their life is at stake than when only others' life was concerned (Suessenbach & Moore, 2015). The same authors concluded that "individuals with a higher explicit power motive have a tendency to shift their moral perception in a way so that those solutions which are beneficial for themselves also appear to be more morally acceptable" (p. 301). This conclusion is in line with Quirin, Beckenkamp, and Kuhl (2009), who found that explicit power motive was related to selfish behavior in a money allocation game. By initiating negotiations, individuals with a high explicit power motive might feel that they have control over the situations and that they are superior to others (Quirin et al., 2009; Veroff, 1957), which signals a high valence and positive incentive for these individuals. Thus, we expect:

Hypothesis 4. Explicit power motive is positively associated with negotiation initiation.

2. Study 1

2.1. Methods

2.1.1. Participants

Below we report how we determined our sample size, all data exclusions (if any), all manipulations, and all measures in the studies. Following recommendations by Aguinis, Villamor, and Ramani (2021), we collected data from 101 MTurk workers in exchange for payment. The age of the participants (38 females) ranged from 24 to 71 ($M_{age} = 38.62$; $SD_{age} = 11.86$), and the majority of the participants (~70 %) were from English-speaking countries, where English is the official language. The majority reported to have less than five years of work experience (64 %) followed by 10 to 15 years of work experience (17 %). Furthermore, the majority of the participants had full time employment or were self-employed (85 %).

2.1.2. Materials

2.1.2.1. Implicit motives. We included implicit motives as control variables in our analyses. To measure implicit achievement, affiliation and power motives, we used a recently developed and validated test, namely the Motive Self-Categorization test (MSC; Runge & Lang, 2019). The MSC is applied in two parts. The first part is analogous to typical implicit motive measurements and includes the operant response format. Participants, in this part, are presented with 15 ambiguous drawings and for each drawing, are asked to envision a story and select a character depicted in the drawings as their story's main character. They are, later, asked to answer the three questions (i.e., (a) "What is important for the person in this situation and what is the person doing?" (b) "How does the person feel?" and (c) "Why does the person feel this way?") based on their story. The second part is unique to the MSC and consists of self-categorization. Here, participants are shown the 15 drawings with picture specific, empirically derived items. Participants also have the choice of seeing their answers to the questions about their imaginative stories. Each drawing comes with five to seven items, with one item indicating none of the items fit the stories, and participants are asked to choose the item best fitting to their stories. Compared to expert coding measurement of implicit motives, researchers found the MSC to be equally reliable (Runge & Lang, 2019). We selected the MSC to measure implicit motives because it is more economical than traditional story coding approaches (like in Picture Story Exercise; Schultheiss & Pang, 2007), and because individuals have better insight into their story characters' motives than expert coders.

2.1.2.2. Explicit motives. We used the 6-item (i.e., 6 items for each motive domain) version of the Unified Motive Scale (UMS; Schönbrodt & Gerstenberg, 2012) to measure explicit achievement, affiliation and power motives. On a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*), participants are asked to rate the extent to which each of the 18 items applies to them. Example items are "Maintaining high standards for the quality of my work." (achievement), "I spend a lot of time visiting friends" (affiliation), and "I like to have the final say" (power). The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were 0.86 (achievement), 0.78 (affiliation), and 0.82 (power). Researchers have demonstrated the superiority of the UMS to other established scales for measuring explicit motives in terms of measurement precision and incremental validity (e.g., Schönbrodt & Gerstenberg, 2012).

2.1.2.3. Big Five. We utilized a 10-item short version of the Big Five Inventory (Rammstedt & John, 2007) for measuring the Big Five personality traits. Each personality dimension is measured with two items. Participants responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Rammstedt and John (2007) found the scale to have good psychometric properties.

2.1.2.4. *Negotiation initiation.* We measured negotiation initiation with an 11-item version of propensity to initiate negotiation scale by Babcock, Gelfand, Small, and Stayn (2006). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each of the 11 items on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A sample item is “Most things are negotiable”. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability for the scale was 0.88.

2.2. *Data analysis*

First of all, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) and computed average explained variance (AVE) using semTools package (Jorgensen, Pornprasertmanit, Schoemann, & Rosseel, 2022) in R (R Core Team, 2020) for explicit motives and negotiation initiation scales. We also conducted these analyses for the 10-item short version of the Big Five Inventory but CFA did not converge. This prevented us from computing AVE for this specific measure, which we do not discuss further given the good psychometric properties of the scale (Rammstedt & John, 2007).

Later, we investigated if the trait measures of personality (the Big Five) explain a significant proportion of variance in negotiation initiation, and if explicit achievement and power motives are positively and explicit affiliation motive is negatively associated with negotiation initiation. To test these hypotheses, we built a hierarchical regression model with age, sex and implicit motives entered at the first step as predictors and negotiation initiation as outcome variable. At the second step, we added the trait measures of personality (the Big Five) as predictors to test if they explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation initiation. Finally, we added explicit motives as our focal predictors. We conducted all of the analyses in R (R Core Team, 2020).

2.3. *Results*

2.3.1. *Descriptive statistics and correlations*

Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables can be found in Table 1. The results show that explicit achievement, affiliation, and power motives are positively and significantly associated with negotiation initiation ($r = 0.50, r = 0.63, r = 0.61, ps < .01$ respectively). Additionally, we found explicit motives not to be significantly correlated with their corresponding implicit motives, which is in line with previous research (e.g., Kohlner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992).

Furthermore, the results from CFA showed a good model fit for explicit motives ($\chi^2 = 202.07, df = 132, CFI = 0.94, TLI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.07, 95\% \text{ confidence interval} = 0.05 \text{ to } 0.09, SRMR = 0.07$) and an acceptable fit for negotiation initiation ($\chi^2 = 98.86, df = 51, CFI = 0.93, TLI = 0.91, RMSEA = 0.10, 95\% \text{ confidence interval} = 0.07 \text{ to } 0.13, SRMR = 0.12$). Additionally, we found acceptable AVE for explicit achievement (0.53), affiliation (0.53) and power (0.60) motives as well as for negotiation initiation (0.42; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010).

2.3.2. *Hypothesis testing*

Our results demonstrated that trait measures of personality explain a significant variance in negotiation initiation ($\Delta R^2 = 0.25, p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 1. In addition, we found positive relationships between explicit power motives and negotiation initiation ($b = 0.22; t = 2.41; p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 4. However, the relationships of explicit achievement and affiliation motives with negotiation initiation were not significant, which is in contrasts with Hypotheses 2 and 3. For further details, see Table 2.

2.4. *Discussion Study 1*

We found evidence that explicit traits explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation initiation and explicit power motive is positively associated with negotiation initiation. As we did not have a sample size

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 1 variables.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	38.62	11.86													
2. Sex (female = 0)	-	-	-0.37**												
3. Extraversion	3.17	0.96	-0.08	0.16											
4. Neuroticism	2.59	0.97	-0.11	0.02	-0.50**										
5. Openness to experience	3.41	0.75	0.43**	-0.16	0.09	-0.04									
6. Conscientiousness	3.54	0.95	0.28**	-0.11	0.16	-0.34**	0.38**								
7. Agreeableness	3.50	0.94	0.10	-0.01	0.18	-0.34**	0.21*	0.33**							
8. Explicit achievement motive	4.48	0.93	-0.25*	0.17	0.40**	-0.21*	-0.02	0.27**	0.21*						
9. Explicit affiliation motive	3.96	0.98	-0.52**	0.26**	0.55**	-0.24*	-0.23*	-0.08	0.18	0.61**					
10. Explicit power motive	3.72	1.10	-0.45**	0.22*	0.44**	-0.14	-0.33**	-0.01	-0.05	0.58**	0.70**				
11. Implicit achievement motive	3.44	1.55	-0.06	-0.03	0.14	-0.08	0.00	0.15	0.19	0.09	0.04	0.04			
12. Implicit affiliation motive	2.05	1.49	-0.25*	-0.03	-0.09	-0.01	-0.21*	-0.23*	-0.04	-0.16	-0.02	-0.05	-0.07		
13. Implicit power motive	5.58	2.02	-0.18	0.20*	0.15	-0.11	0.00	-0.03	0.01	0.27**	0.20*	0.19	-0.23*	-0.16	
14. Negotiation initiation	4.35	0.86	-0.33**	0.26**	0.51**	-0.38**	-0.13	0.11	0.09	0.50**	0.63**	0.61**	0.11	-0.10	0.16

Note. N = 101.
* Indicates $p < .05$.
** Indicates $p < .01$.

Table 2
Regression analyses predicting negotiation initiation with explicit motives and Big Five.

Predictor	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	β	<i>b</i>	<i>t</i>	β
Study 1									
Intercept	4.43	7.80		4.61**	5.86		2.71**	3.37	
Sex (female = 0)	0.24	1.29	0.14	0.15	0.93	0.09	0.17	1.18	0.10
Age	-0.02*	-2.42	-0.25	-0.02**	-2.82	-0.28	-0.00	-0.53	-0.05
Implicit achievement motive	0.07	1.26	0.12	0.01	0.28	0.03	0.03	0.7	0.06
Implicit affiliation motive	-0.02	-0.32	-0.03	-0.02	-0.38	-0.03	-0.01	-0.3	-0.02
Implicit power motive	0.05	1.15	0.12	0.01	0.17	0.02	-0.01	-0.23	-0.02
Extraversion				0.32**	3.57	0.36	0.06	0.59	0.06
Neuroticism				-0.19*	-2.06	-0.22	-0.22**	-2.64	-0.25
Openness to experience				-0.08	-0.73	-0.07	0.05	0.5	0.05
Conscientiousness				0.09	0.97	0.10	0.03	0.33	0.03
Agreeableness				-0.04	-0.51	-0.05	-0.07	-0.93	-0.08
Explicit achievement motive							0.07	0.66	0.07
Explicit affiliation motive							0.23	1.83	0.26
Explicit power motive							0.22*	2.41	0.29
<i>F</i>	3.45**			6.04**			7.81**		
<i>R</i> ²	0.15			0.40			0.54		
ΔF^2				9.36**			8.57**		
ΔR^2				0.25			0.14		
Study 2									
Intercept	1.76**	6.54		2.04**	5.21		1.51**	3.49	
Sex (female = 0)	0.11*	2.21	0.12	0.07	1.25	0.07	0.03	0.61	0.04
Age	0.00	0.15	0.01	0.00	0.12	0.01	0.01	0.72	0.04
Implicit achievement motive	0.06	1.92	0.10	0.06	1.90	0.10	0.05	1.66	0.09
Implicit affiliation motive	-0.02	-0.77	-0.04	-0.02	-1.06	-0.06	-0.01	-0.57	-0.03
Implicit power motive	0.02	0.53	0.03	0.01	0.25	0.01	-0.02	-0.35	-0.02
Extraversion				0.01	0.20	0.01	-0.02	-0.35	-0.03
Neuroticism				-0.09*	-2.00	-0.12	-0.07	-1.54	-0.10
Explicit achievement motive							0.06	1.50	0.10
Explicit affiliation motive							-0.01	-0.21	-0.02
Explicit power motive							0.07*	2.03	0.14
<i>F</i>	2.02			2.18*			2.76**		
<i>R</i> ²	0.03			0.04			0.07		
ΔF^2				2.59			3.97**		
ΔR^2				0.01			0.03		

Note. Study 1: $N = 101$, Study 2: $N = 359$. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. β indicates the standardized regression weights.

* Indicates $p < .05$.

** Indicates $p < .01$.

justification, we conducted a sensitivity power analysis to demonstrate the detectable effect size given our sample size. With three focal predictor variables and 10 control variables, we conducted sensitivity analysis for R^2 in *GPower* ($N = 101$, number of tested predictors = 3, total number of predictors = 13, $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.80$; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). We found a detectable effect size of 0.11, which is smaller than the effect size we found in this study (0.14). Thus, we conclude that our sample size was sufficient to detect the effect size. However, as the negotiation initiation measurement was based on self-report measures, the findings should be replicated with a different negotiation initiation measure, which we do in Study 2.

3. Study 2

3.1. Methods

3.1.1. Participants

Our study was a part of a bigger research project, in which we investigated the effects of personality on alienation after ostracism. We did not base our sample size estimates based on any prior research or statistical model. However, we attempted to replicate Study 1 with a larger sample size and, thus, collected data from 359 students from a German university in exchange of bonus credit. The age of the participants (149 females) ranged from 18 to 32 ($M_{age} = 21.26$; $SD_{age} = 2.20$).

3.1.2. Materials

Similar to Study 1, we used the MSC (Runge & Lang, 2019) to measure implicit motives and the UMS (Schoenbrodt & Gerstenberg,

2012) to measure explicit motives. The variables for implicit motives were computed by a latent item response theory (IRT) model as in Runge and Lang (2019). The Cronbach's alpha (α) reliabilities for explicit motives were 0.83 (achievement), 0.84 (affiliation), and 0.90 (power) in this study.

3.1.2.1. Big Five. As only neuroticism and extraversion was significantly correlated with negotiation initiation in Study 1, we measured neuroticism and extraversion Big-Five personality dimensions by using the German version of the NEO Five-Factor Inventory, which was developed from the NEO-PI-R (P T Costa & McCrae, 1992). Participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with 12 items for each personality dimension using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Sample items for extraversion and neuroticism include "I am a very active person" and "I often feel fatigued and nervous", respectively. The Cronbach's alpha (α) reliabilities for the scale were 0.79 (extraversion) and 0.83 (neuroticism).

3.1.2.2. Negotiation initiation. To measure negotiation initiation, we asked the participants to rank four behavioral alternatives based on the three scenarios used by Volkema et al. (2013). The scenarios capture diverse real-life situations (salary negotiation, request for assistance while approaching a deadline, and a strategic planning disagreement within a team), and are diverse in many aspects (e.g., roles, venue, power). For each scenario, participants are provided with four behavioral alternatives. Behavioral alternatives include: (a) not establishing

contact with a counterpart; (b) engaging in a conversation with a counterpart without asking what is wanted; (c) engaging in a conversation with a counterpart but asking for less than what is desired; and (d) engaging in a conversation with a counterpart and asking what is desired. For each scenario, participants were scored based on the alternative ranked first for engaging (no engagement = 0, engaging counterpart = 1), requesting (no request = 0, request = 1), and optimizing (suboptimized request = 0, optimized request = 1). Thus, for each scenario, participants could receive a score of one for engaging, requesting and optimizing. For example, if participants ranked behavioral alternative (d) first for the scenario 1, they received a score of three (one point for engaging, one point for requesting and one point for optimizing). Across the three scenarios, we took the mean of engaging, requesting and optimizing to create a negotiation initiation variable (Volkema et al., 2013).

3.1.3. Data analysis

We used the same data analysis approach as in Study 1.

3.2. Results

3.2.1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables can be found in Table 3. The results showed that explicit achievement and power motives were positively and significantly associated with negotiation initiation but explicit affiliation motive was not. Similar to study 1, explicit and their corresponding implicit motives were not significantly correlated.

3.2.2. Hypothesis testing

We found that traits do not explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation initiation ($\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $p > .05$), which is contrary to Hypothesis 1. As expected, we found explicit power to be positively associated with negotiation initiation ($b = 0.07$; $t = 2.03$; $p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 4. Unexpectedly, explicit achievement and affiliation motives were not significantly associated with negotiation initiation, which are contrary to Hypotheses 2 and 3. For further details, see Table 2.

3.3. Discussion Study 2

In this study with a larger power, we found that explicit power motive is significantly associated with negotiation initiation. Additionally, similar to Study 1, we conducted a sensitivity power analysis ($N = 359$, number of tested predictors = 3, total number of predictors = 10, $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.80$) and found a detectable effect size of 0.03, which is equal to the significant additional explained variance in negotiation initiation by the explicit achievement, affiliation and power motives. Thus, we conclude that our sample had enough power for detecting the expected effect size.

4. General discussion

This research was motivated by a call for giving individual differences a second chance in the negotiation research (e.g., Elfenbein, 2015), as well as recent theoretical developments revolving around negotiation initiation (Reif & Brodbeck, 2014). We initiated this research with the information that previous empirical findings show that trait measures of personality are significant determinants of negotiation initiation (e.g., Reyes et al., 2021), and that to our knowledge, there is no previous research investigating the role of motives in negotiation initiation. As motives have been considered important sources of individual differences along with traits (like Big Five; Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998; Wolff et al., 2018), we aimed to examine if motives (specifically explicit motives) are significantly associated with negotiation initiation. Furthermore, as motive researchers have mostly researched implicit motives at work (Apers, Lang, & Derous, 2019; Lang et al., 2012; Runge et al., 2020; Wolff et al., 2018), we were intrigued to show that researchers should realize the importance of explicit motives as well when researching correlates of work-related outcomes. Thus, we aimed to show the incremental value of explicit motives beyond traits and implicit motives in explaining negotiation initiation.

These lead us to our first hypothesis that traits explain a significant amount of variance in self-reported and the vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation. The results were partly in line with our hypothesis. Specifically, the results showed that traits significantly contribute to the variance explained in self-reported (Study 1). These results are in line with previous literature wherein trait measures of personality were shown to be significantly associated with negotiation initiation (e.g., Kong, Tuncel, & McLean Parks, 2011).

We also hypothesized that explicit motives have differential relationships with negotiation initiation as initiating negotiations might not have positive incentives for all individuals with a high respective motive. We specifically expected a positive relationship between explicit achievement motive and negotiation initiation. Contrary to expectations, we did not find a significant relationship between explicit achievement motive and self-reported and vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation. Although the correlations (see Tables 1 and 3) between explicit achievement motive and self-reported and vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation were significant ($r = 0.50$ and $r = 0.19$, respectively), these relationships were not significant in the regression models (see Table 2). The inter-correlations among explicit motives could be one possible explanation as to why explicit achievement motive is not a significant predictor of self-reported negotiation initiation when added to the regression model with other explicit motives. Furthermore, it could be that the negotiation initiation measures we used did not offer “enough” positive incentives for individuals with a high explicit achievement motive. However, this is only a speculation

Table 3
Means, standard deviations, and correlations among Study 2 variables.

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Sex (female = 0)	–	–										
2. Age	21.26	2.20	-0.08									
3. Imp. achievement motive	0.01	0.88	0.04	0.11*								
4. Imp. affiliation motive	0.05	1.16	-0.02	0.01	0.06							
5. Imp. power motive	-0.00	0.57	0.09	-0.12*	-0.15**	-0.20**						
6. Extraversion	3.58	0.54	0.04	-0.02	0.01	0.10	0.04					
7. Neuroticism	2.63	0.64	-0.37**	0.03	-0.02	-0.08	-0.13*	-0.37**				
8. Exp. achievement motive	4.73	0.79	0.18**	-0.18**	0.06	-0.07	0.16*	0.23**	-0.26**			
9. Exp. affiliation motive	4.45	0.79	0.02	-0.08	0.04	0.19**	0.01	0.68**	-0.19**	0.21**		
10. Exp. power motive	4.17	1.00	0.27**	-0.16**	0.03	-0.13**	0.24**	0.30**	-0.27**	0.56**	0.22**	
11. Negotiation initiation	1.98	0.48	0.13*	0.01	0.10	-0.04	0.03	0.06	-0.15**	0.19**	0.03	0.21**

Note. $N = 359$. Imp. = implicit, Exp. = explicit.

* Indicates $p < .05$. ** Indicates $p < .01$.

and future studies could utilize other negotiation initiation measures to test this assumption.

Additionally, we hypothesized that explicit affiliation motive is negatively associated with self-reported and vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation. Contrary to our expectations, we did not find significant relationships between explicit affiliation motive and self-reported and vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation. Albeit not significant, the relationship between explicit affiliation motive and self-reported negotiation initiation was positive and in the opposite direction. One explanation for this could be that the negotiation initiation scale we used is a generic measure and includes items such as “I often see changes to improve my circumstances”. Circumstances and situations captured in the scale could also be interpreted as being related to relationships, and individuals with a high affiliation motive might have positive valence that encourages them to start negotiations that might make their relationships with other individuals better. Support for this comes from studies that showed that individuals can accommodate others by giving too much to prevent relational damage (Amanatullah, Morris, & Curhan, 2008). These relationship oriented individuals could also start negotiations to “better” the relationships. However, this still has to be supported empirically.

Finally, we expected a positive relationship between self-report and vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation and explicit power motive. We found positive relationships of explicit power motive with self-reported negotiation initiation (Study 1) and vignette-based measure of negotiation initiation (Study 2). These results show that individuals with a high explicit power motive might seize the opportunities to have influence over other individuals and situations. They could initiate negotiations to retain power (Magee, Galinsky, Gruenfeld, & Wagner, 2007) and in the process of doing so, they could re-evaluate if continuing negotiations could help them retain power over others and advance their social standing (Reif & Brodbeck, 2014).

4.1. Theoretical contributions

Our study advances literature in several ways. First of all, to our knowledge, we are the first to show that explicit motives are important predictors of negotiation initiation. With this, we establish that individuals with different explicit motives initiate or refrain from initiating negotiations. Furthermore, by showing that explicit motives explain variance in negotiation initiation beyond the Big-Five and implicit motives, we showed not only that explicit motives should be considered as a separate taxonomy than traits, but also that they are important in terms of explaining variance in work-related outcomes. Thus, we believe that motive researchers should actively study explicit motives along with their implicit counterparts. Finally, relying on Reif and Brodbeck's (2014) cognitive-motivational model of negotiation initiation, we showed the psychological mechanisms behind *why* individuals with a specific high explicit motive should initiate negotiations or refrain from doing so.

4.2. Practical Implications

This study has practical implications, too. As it pays to ask (Kolb & Kickul, 2006), individuals who want to maximize their gains from salary negotiations could identify valence in the outcome of the negotiations and based on that, could motivate themselves to initiate negotiations. As negotiations commonly occur in dyads and groups, another practical implication for the individual himself/herself could be understanding the counterpart's explicit motives. For example, counterparts with high explicit motives could be more motivated to start negotiations to retain the power and have higher gains at the bargaining table (Magee et al., 2007). Individuals could identify this and start negotiating or engaging in different negotiation tactics. Furthermore, our study has implications for organizations at large. Organizations could be represented by individuals with high explicit power motive in situations where they have

business negotiations, which might yield positive outcomes for these organizations.

4.3. Limitations and future studies

In general, we found evidence in support of our hypotheses. However, our study has some limitations, too. A first limitation is the cross-sectional nature of the studies. As there are calls from different branches of psychology for employing designs to make casual inferences (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010; Foster, 2010), it is important to test these hypotheses by establishing a causal link from motives to negotiation initiation. For example, future studies could manipulate individuals' explicit motives and observe their effects on their propensity to initiate negotiations. Secondly, in this study, we did not investigate if explicit motives are differentially related to the propensity to negotiations in different negotiation scenarios. We could, indeed, expect that in competitive negotiation scenarios, individuals with high explicit power motives initiate negotiations more than individuals with high explicit affiliation or achievement motives. However, this has not yet been tested, and future studies could inspect this in different negotiation scenarios. Moreover, our findings concerning the Big Five traits were heterogeneous. One reason for this could be that we utilized the 10-item validated version of Big Five (Rammstedt & John, 2007) because short measures provide less predictive power compared to their longer versions.

5. Conclusion

Even though it is beneficial for individuals to ask (Kolb & Kickul, 2006), not everyone initiates negotiations. Based on the cognitive-motivational model of negotiation initiation (Reif & Brodbeck, 2014), we investigated psychological dynamics underlying individuals' propensity to initiate negotiations based on their explicit motives. We also examined if explicit motives contribute to our understanding of negotiation initiation beyond traits and implicit motives. Our results, in general, show that explicit motives should not be understood as “just another traits framework”, and should be taken into consideration when examining determinants of negotiation initiation along with Big Five and implicit motives.

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Ethics declarations

All procedures performed in the two studies including human participants were in accordance with the institutional ethical standards and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments. Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the studies.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Cafer Bakaç and Hugo M. Kehr contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by Cafer Bakaç. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Cafer Bakaç, and Hugo M. Kehr commented on previous versions of the manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Data availability

The data and the analyses code are provided on OSF (https://osf.io/ec9jv/?view_only=425d11d2a1a7463b9d2016541ab86317).

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4 Article 2

Revisiting Individual Differences in Negotiation Performance: The Role of Implicit Motives and Explicit Motives

Bakaç, C., Kehr, H. M. & Lang, J. W. B. (submitted for publication). Revisiting individual differences in negotiation performance: The role of implicit motives and explicit motives. *Journal of Research in Personality*.

Author Contributions

Cafer Bakaç and Hugo M. Kehr contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by Cafer Bakaç. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Cafer Bakaç and Jonas W. B. Lang, and Hugo M. Kehr commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Abstract

The authors study the idea that achievement- and power-motivated people show higher, and affiliation-motivated show lower negotiation performance than persons who are low and high on these motives, respectively. Additionally, we predicted implicit motives to explain additional variance in negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and traits. To test these ideas, the authors measured implicit and explicit achievement, power, and affiliation motives in three studies. Study 1 included data from 241 individuals and self-reported negotiation performance (Study 1). Study 2 and 3 focused on a typical laboratory negotiation task and included 104 and 196 participants, respectively. Across all studies, explicit achievement motivation predicted negotiation outcomes beyond personality measures. Furthermore, implicit achievement motivation predicted the outcome in Study 2 and 3 beyond both personality measures and explicit motives. No consistent results were found for the other motives. Implications for future research on motivation in negotiation scenarios are discussed.

Keywords: implicit motives, explicit motives, traits, individual differences, negotiation performance

4.1 Introduction

Negotiation researchers have recently argued that it is time to revive research on individual differences in negotiation success (e.g., Elfenbein, 2015; Sharma et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2018). This area of research had long been dormant because of an early literature review that found limited evidence for individual differences and thus provided a pessimistic outlook (Rubin & Brown, 1975) and also affected subsequent reviews (Thompson, 1990; Bazerman et al., 2000). Recently, several studies have focused on implicit and explicit motives, personality traits, and demographic characteristics as correlates of propensity to initiate negotiations (e.g., Bakaç & Kehr, 2023; Kugler et al., 2018). However, we are only aware of a few earlier studies that have linked implicit and explicit motive measures to negotiation outcomes (Langner & Winter, 2001; Quirin et al., 2009; Trapp & Kehr, 2016).

In this article, we contribute to the literature by linking implicit and explicit achievement, affiliation and power motives (McClelland et al., 1989; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2001) to negotiation performance. To our knowledge, actual negotiation performance has only been linked to traits (for a meta-analysis, see Sharma et al., 2013) and not motives, which is somewhat surprising because motivation is typically seen as a key antecedent and driver of negotiation behavior (e.g., De Dreu, 2014).. Implicit motives are typically described as stable individual differences in classes of goals and desires actuating individual behavior (McClelland, 1987), and have traditionally been the second major source of individual differences in personality research besides traits. Motives are related to a variety of work-related outcomes such as task and contextual performance (Lang et al., 2012), counterproductive work behaviors (Runge et al., 2020), networking behaviors (Wolff et al., 2018), or career success (Apers et al., 2021). From a theoretical perspective, implicit motives are particularly suited to predict negotiation outcomes. The reason is

that this type of behavior might elicit task incentives for individuals who have high respective motives (Spangler, 1992).

Our study extends earlier research in two ways. First, we include implicit motives, explicit motives, and traits in our theorizing and empirical studies. Researchers have claimed that an integrative perspective on motivation including both implicit and explicit motives lay foundations for a better understanding of behavior (McClelland, 1987b; McClelland et al., 1989; Lang et al., 2012; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2001). Further, including implicit motives strengthens the theoretical differentiation between implicit and explicit motives (e.g., Spangler, 1992). Second, our three studies extend earlier research by using a recently developed and validated measure for implicit motives. Earlier measures typically either rely on expert coders who code verbal or free text descriptions provided by respondents – a lengthy and error-prone process, or let participants select statements — thereby also potentially capturing explicit aspects of their motivation. The new measure—the motive self-categorization test (Runge & Lang, 2019)—has important advantages over earlier measures because it asks respondents to self-code written stories using an empirically derived coding scheme so that researcher/coder bias and overlap with explicit measures can be ruled out.

4.1.1 Negotiation

Negotiation is commonly defined as a communication between at least two parties with different interests aimed at reaching an agreement on scarce resources (e.g., Pruitt, 1998). These agreements typically have both integrative and distributive characteristics (Thompson et al., 2009). Integrative outcomes satisfy both negotiating parties' interests jointly. Distributive outcomes, in contrast, divide scarce resources between the parties.

Researchers have commonly studied negotiation using negotiation scenarios in which individuals take on different roles (e.g. buyer vs seller) and negotiate over multiple issues between the parties. These tasks typically capture real-life negotiation characteristics (e.g., DeRue et al., 2009; Pietroni et al., 2008; Wilson et al., 2016). In such tasks, individuals are mostly given explicit guidelines that their task is to earn as many points as possible, and reach an agreement at the end of the negotiation task (De Dreu & Van Kleef, 2004; Rees et al., 2019; Van Kleef et al., 2006). The points participants earn in these tasks are used as a proxy for negotiation performance (e.g., DeRue et al., 2009; Pietroni et al., 2008; Rees et al., 2019). Negotiation tasks can be broadly grouped into integrative (maximize utility for everybody so that everybody gets the same amount or everything they want), distributive (win over the other party), and mixed-motive (create additional value for everybody but distribution may not be fair). A common idea in the literature is that both distributive and integrative negotiation-only tasks are rare so most tasks focus on mixed-motive negotiation.

Since the beginning of negotiation research, social psychologists have devoted attention to negotiation outcomes and their determinants, resulting in a large body of literature. Generally speaking, negotiation researchers have mostly analyzed individual negotiators within intraindividual and interindividual levels of analysis when studying correlates of negotiation outcomes (Thompson et al., 2009). At the intraindividual level, researchers have focused on the way inner experiences and perceptions of negotiators affect or are related to negotiation outcomes. On the interindividual level, researchers have paid attention to how interactions between different negotiating parties affect individual or group negotiation outcomes. For a review, see Thompson et al. (2009).

In both the intraindividual and interindividual levels of negotiation research, researchers have examined similar topics as possible correlates of negotiation outcomes. For example, a vast

majority of research focused on the relationship of emotions, communication styles, and affect with negotiation outcomes at both the intraindividual and interindividual levels (e.g., Anderson & Thompson, 2004; Campagna et al., 2016; Jeong et al., 2019; Rees et al., 2019; Van Kleef et al., 2006).

Contrary to this vast negotiation literature, only a small but growing number of researchers have investigated personality as a correlate of negotiation outcomes (for some earlier accounts see Barry & Friedman, 1998; Mohammed et al., 2008). Since the call by Sharma et al. (2013), there is now evidence showing that personality is related to negotiation outcomes (Dimotakis et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2016). For example, in a meta-analysis, Sharma et al. (2013) found extraversion as a personality trait to be especially important in terms of negotiation outcomes. Additionally, this personality trait was studied as a personality similarity index between two negotiating parties (Wilson et al., 2016). These researchers investigated how personality similarity (both high and low on extraversion) is related to more positive emotional displays during negotiation, and how these positive emotional displays are in turn related to faster agreements and lesser relationship conflict. They found that regardless of the similarity (both high; both low), personality similarities are positively related to the respective outcome variables.

4.1.2 Implicit and Explicit Motives at Work

Researchers have long proposed that motivational perspectives are crucial for understanding individual differences in personality along with trait perspectives (Lang et al., 2012; Runge et al., 2020; Winter et al., 1998; Wolff et al., 2018). While traits answer questions regarding how people habitually think, feel and act, motivational perspectives of personality answer questions regarding why people act and behave the way they do (Winter et al., 1998; Wolff et al.,

2018). Motivational perspectives of personality focus on motives as individual differences in personality.

Motives generally refer to the “capacity to experience a specific type of incentive as pleasurable” (Schultheiss et al., 2012, p. 652). They influence how individuals perceive and interpret situations by selecting, energizing and regulating individual behavior. Further, they help evaluate goal states and the probability of success in a situation. McClelland et al. (1989) differentiated motives into implicit and explicit motive systems, each system having differing influences on individuals’ behaviors. On the one hand, implicit motives are widely described as “motivational dispositions that operate outside of a person’s conscious awareness and [they] are aimed at the attainment of specific classes of incentives and the avoidance of specific classes of disincentives” (Schultheiss & Brunstein, 2010, p. 603). On the other hand, explicit motives refer to conscious intentions and strivings (Austin & Vancouver, 1996; Sheldon et al., 2004), and are referred to as explicit traits (e.g., Lang et al., 2012; Winter et al., 1998). These definitions imply that there are a couple of differences between implicit and explicit motives. Firstly, implicit motives mostly operate out of one’s conscious awareness and thus are typically measured via nonreactive procedures such as the Picture-Story Exercise (PSE; Schultheiss et al., 2008) and the Operant Multi-Motive-Test (OMT; Kuhl & Scheffer, 2002). On the other hand, explicit motives mostly function as trait measures of personality; they are consciously accessible and could typically be measured via self-report measures. Secondly, the two differ in terms of the behaviors they predict (McClelland et al., 1989; Spangler, 1992). Implicit motives generally predict long-term, spontaneous behaviors, whereas explicit motives, like personality traits, predict immediate responses directed toward specific situations or choice behaviors (McClelland, 1980). Researchers have repeatedly documented the two to be uncorrelated or weakly correlated (Baumann et al., 2005; Brunstein & Maier, 2005; Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992; but also see, Thrash

& Elliott, 2002), and have widely studied the so-called Big Three classes of implicit motives: Achievement, Affiliation and Power (Kehr, 2004; Lang et al., 2012; Winter et al., 1998). Achievement motive is characterized by the need for improving one's standards of excellence and skills and reaching performance goals. Affiliation motive is the need for building and maintaining positive relationships with others. Power motive is the need for having influence and control over others or environments. In this study, we also expect implicit and explicit motives to be uncorrelated or weakly correlated and hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: *Corresponding implicit and explicit motives are weakly correlated or not significantly correlated.*

IO psychologists have recently started investigating implicit and explicit motives as correlates of a variety of work-related outcomes. For example, researchers documented that implicit motives are related to individuals' career success (Apers et al., 2019), counterproductive work behaviors (Runge et al., 2020) and individuals' networking behaviors (Wolff et al., 2018). Furthermore, Lang and colleagues (2012) investigated if implicit motives are predictive of task and contextual performance in interaction with traits. These researchers found evidence that traits channel (i.e., enable) the effects of implicit motives on task and contextual performance.

With this study, we join the growing number of industrial and organizational (IO) researchers and investigate how negotiators' personality is related to negotiation performance. In doing so, we draw on McClelland's (1987) motive dispositions theory and investigate the associations between personality from the motivational perspective and negotiation performance.

4.1.3 Traits, Explicit Motives and Negotiation Performance

Since the review by Rubin and Brown (1975), there was a consensus among negotiation researchers that trait personality variables are irrelevant to negotiation outcomes, which Sharma and colleagues (2013) call irrelevance consensus. There is, however, evidence from several studies show that this consensus is paradoxical (Dimotakis et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2013; Wilson et al., 2016). For example, in a meta-analysis, Sharma et al. (2013) demonstrated that trait personality variables (especially, extraversion and neuroticism) are significant antecedents of negotiation performance. Due to the space and scope of the current study, we do not provide further theoretical links between trait personality variables and negotiation outcomes (for further details, see Sharma et al., 2013). However, based on this meta-analysis, we expect that trait measures of personality explain a substantial amount of variance in negotiation performance in our study.

Researchers have argued that explicit motives respond to social incentives and predict choice behaviors (McClelland, 1980; McClelland et al., 1989; Runge et al., 2020; Winter et al., 1998). Spangler et al. (2014) describe social incentives as external rewards and expectations, including social norms and demands. Examples of social incentives for achievement, affiliation and power motives might include an achievement goal set by others (e.g., experimenters), collaborative behaviors expected by supervisors and direct responses directed at power-related events respectively. In this study, as our main focus relies on implicit motives, we do not go further into details of how explicit motives might be associated with negotiation performance. However, as we measure negotiation performance using self-report in Study 1 and a negotiation scenario in Study 2 and 3, which might provide differential social incentives to people high on different explicit motives, we expect that explicit motives to explain a substantial amount of variance in negotiation performance.

Based on these, we suggest:

Hypothesis 2: *Trait measures of personality and explicit motives explain a substantial amount of variance in negotiation performance.*

4.1.4 Implicit Motives and Negotiation Performance

Negotiation is characterized by situations in which at least two parties compete over scarce resources and could offer negotiating individuals high on respective motives positive experiences. However, these positive experiences may not be true for all of the implicit motive taxonomies. For example, for individuals high on implicit affiliation motive, negotiating might thwart individuals from reaching their goals and disengage them from behaviors, as they are mostly concerned about establishing and maintaining positive relationships with other individuals. On the other hand, for high power motivated individuals, negotiation scenarios might offer possibilities to establish control over other individuals and resources and thus, to engage in, and have positive experiences from negotiation scenarios.

In the following, we focus on each implicit motive domain specifically and establish relationships between each motive domain and negotiation performance.

Motivational researchers have suggested that task-inherent incentives trigger implicit motives and lead individuals high on respective motives to engage or disengage in behaviors and tasks to satisfy these motives (McClelland, 1987; McClelland et al., 1989; Winter et al., 1998). In negotiation scenarios, individuals high on implicit achievement motivation might engage in negotiation behaviors and negotiate a task to the end because the task itself is challenging and provides incentive opportunities (McClelland et al., 1989; Spangler, 1992). Support for this comes from a multi-study research (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). This research found that in self-referent feedback settings, where participants were informed about their past performance, individuals' implicit achievement motive was positively related to task performance. This relationship did not

hold in norm-referent feedback settings, where participants were informed about their standing compared to others.

Researchers have documented that a high implicit affiliation motive is positively associated with individuals' active search for affiliative activities and with the frequencies of these affiliative activities (McClelland, 1985; McClelland, 1987). Furthermore, individuals with a high implicit affiliation motive are more concerned with maintaining their interaction partner's goodwill and avoiding conflict situations (Exline, 1962; McClelland, 1975). In work settings, they avoid counterproductive work behaviors (Runge et al., 2020). In experimental negotiation settings, individuals are asked to compete with other individuals over scarce resources. Competition in itself is a risky endeavor that could lead to conflict (Aubert, 1947). Thus, we expect individuals high on implicit affiliation motive to disengage from negotiation interactions as competition and conflict are disincentives for these individuals. In support of this, analyses of historical events and experimental research led Langner and Winter (2001) to conclude that individuals with high implicit affiliation motive make concessions and compromises to reach peaceful solutions in the face of international crises (see also, Winter, 2004).

Power motives are characterized by the need for having impact and control over other individuals and/or environments. As with other motives, individuals with a high implicit power motive engage in tasks when there is a task incentive (McClelland et al., 1989). To illustrate, individuals may want to become managers at certain companies because the role itself provides incentives of having power, influence and control over others and situations. Individuals high on implicit power motive persuade others during discussions (Veroff, 1957), ask for a higher salary (Trapp & Kehr, 2016) and do not concede easily (Langner & Winter, 2001). Negotiation situations offer possibilities for power motivated individuals to be superior to others and have control over resources, which might be rewarding for them.

Based on these, we suggest:

Hypothesis 3: *Implicit motives explain extra variance in negotiation performance beyond traits and explicit motives.*

Hypothesis 4: *Implicit achievement (1a), power (1b), and affiliation (1c) motives are respectively: positively, positively and negatively associated with negotiation performance.*

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Samples

In all of the studies, we collected informed consent from participants and adhered to German as well as our institutional scientific and ethical code of conduct.

Study 1

We collected data from a sample consisting of 241 (94 females, $M_{age} = 34.97$, $SD_{age} = 10.50$) MTurk participants, who participated in the study in exchange for payment. Most of the participants worked full-time (78%) followed by self-employed (12%). Participants who were randomly answering the questionnaires or who completed the survey in a very short time were excluded from the final sample ($n = 18$).

Study 2

Study 2 included students from a German university who participated in exchange for course credit. Additionally, a research assistant contacted their personal network (i.e., family, friends, etc.) to recruit additional participants. The final sample for study 2 consisted of 104 individuals (46 females) with an age range between 18 and 31 ($M_{age} = 22.39$, $SD_{age} = 2.47$). Of those individuals, 61% indicated that they had one year or less of working experience, followed

by 38% with one to five years of working experience. To assure data quality, we ask participants questions regarding their role (i.e. seller vs. buyer) and the best constellation for the levels of agreements for price, warranty and service contract duration for them and a question asking which of the statements about the negotiation instructions was wrong. Participants could not continue to the negotiation task if they did not answer all of these questions correctly.

Study 3

Study 3 included data from Mturk and a large German university ($N = 196$; 76 females; $M_{age} = 32.24$, $SD_{age} = 9.80$). Of these participants, 75% indicated that they had one to ten years of working experience, followed by 9% with 10 to 15 years of working experience. We used the same data assurance strategy as in Study 2.

4.2.2 Independent Variables

Implicit Motives (Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3)

We used the Motive Self-Categorization test (MSC; Runge & Lang, 2019) to measure implicit achievement, affiliation and power motives in all studies. The application of the MSC takes place in two parts. The first part consists of typical implicit motive measurements: the operant response format. Participants are presented with 15 drawings including ambiguous social scenes. For each drawing, participants are asked to imagine a story and choose a character portrayed in the drawing as the main character of their story. Later, they are asked to answer the following three questions based on their imaginative story: (a) “What is important for the person in this situation and what is the person doing?” (b) “How does the person feel?” and (c) “Why does the person feel this way?”. The second part of the test includes self-categorization. In this part, participants are shown 15 drawings with their responses to the questions about their imaginative stories as well as

empirically derived picture-specific items. Each drawing is accompanied by four-six items and an option indicating none of the items fits their stories. Participants, then, are asked to choose the item describing their stories best. Thus, each drawing is accompanied by more than one item capturing power, affiliation or achievement motive (for the scoring key, see Runge & Lang, 2019). However, as participants were forced to select only one item that describes their story best, for each picture participants could receive a “1” score for achievement, affiliation, and power motives or a “0” score for the motives if the option indicating none of the items fits their stories is selected. The MSC was found to measure implicit motives equally reliably when compared to expert coding-based measurements and the two were found to be highly correlated (Runge & Lang, 2019) so that it is likely to assume that findings on similar measures relying on expert coding can be generalized to the MSC (e.g., Runge et al., 2019). Furthermore, the initial paper on the MSC also includes validation information. Key advantages of the MSC over earlier approaches are that there are no researcher degrees of freedom through the use of expert coders and the use of the MSC is also much more economic¹.

Explicit Motives (Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3)

In Study 1 and 3, we measured explicit achievement, affiliation and power motives with the 6-item (i.e., for each motive domain) version of the Unified Motive Scale (UMS; Schönbrodt & Gerstenberg, 2012). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each of the 18 items applies to them on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). Example items include “Maintaining high standards for the quality of my work.” (achievement), “I spend a lot of time visiting friends” (affiliation), and “I like to have the final

¹ To illustrate the key advantages of the MSC, consider that expert coding our studies would have required at least two expert coders to code a total of $(241+104+196) * 15 * 2 = 16,230$ fantasy stories for motive content. This scenario would be an ideal situation in which the two coders have received adequate training and there would be no recoding necessary.

say” (power). The Cronbach’s alpha (α) reliabilities were .83 and .76 (achievement), .78 and .74 (affiliation), and .82 and .86 (power) for Study 1 and Study 3 respectively. In Study 3, two items were negatively associated with the total scale and thus, were excluded from analyses. However, keeping them did not yield any significant difference in the results.

Study 2 used the three 16-item subscales achievement (e.g., “I enjoy difficult work”), affiliation (e.g., “I try to be in the company of friends as much as possible”), and dominance (e.g., “I try to control others rather than permit them to control me”) from Jackson’s (1984) Personality Research Form (PRF) to measure the explicit achievement, affiliation and power motives, respectively. The use of the PRF is a common approach in the motivational literature (Schüler et al., 2015). Participants answered using a yes/no response format and Cronbach’s α s were .67, .78, and .81 for achievement, dominance and affiliation, respectively. Two items in the dominance subscale were negatively correlated with the total scale and thus, were excluded from analyses. Keeping the two items did not affect the results.

Big Five (Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3)

We measured the Big Five personality traits with the 10-item short version of the Big Five Inventory (Rammstedt & John, 2007), with two items for each dimension. Participants responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“Disagree strongly”) to 5 (“Agree strongly”). Previous studies found good psychometric properties of the scale (e.g., Rammstedt & John, 2007). We collected data on all Big Five traits in Study 1 and 3. However, only neuroticism was measured in Study 2 as it was part of a bigger research project.

4.2.3 Dependent Variables

Self-Reported Negotiation Performance (Study 1)

In Study 1, we measured self-reported negotiation performance with an adapted version of the negotiation performance measure used by Sharma et. al. (2018). We asked participants to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each of the five statements using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (“strongly disagree”) to 5 (“strongly agree”). A sample item includes “I explore all alternatives to reach outcomes acceptable to all parties”. The Cronbach’s alpha (α) reliability for the scale was .76. High scores indicate high negotiation performance, i.e. negotiate well with counterparts.

Objective Negotiation Performance from a Negotiation Task (Study 2 and Study 3)

A previously employed and validated negotiation task was used to measure the dependent variable in Study 2 and 3, namely points conceded during the negotiation task (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995; Van Kleef et al., 2004; Van Kleef et al., 2006). Similar to real-life negotiation scenarios, the task includes multiple issues which are differently utile for the negotiator, payoff information of one own’s as well as common offer-counteroffer procedure. In this version of the task, we informed participants that they are assigned the role of a seller for mobile phone distribution and that they would take on the main role of negotiation for mobile phones’ price, warranty period and duration of the contract’s service with a buyer. Furthermore, to stress the dyadic nature of the task (i.e., each participant would negotiate with another participant), we informed participants that they would be randomly paired with another individual among those who had clicked on the survey link at the time of the negotiation task. To further stress this, we informed the participants that we had sent the link to a large pool of participants and once a connection with another party was achieved, they would start the task. Later, we presented a payoff

chart to each participant, which illustrates nine possible agreement levels for each issue (see Table 1). As Table 1 shows, an agreement on level 9 on price [warranty, and service contract duration] would lead to 0 points and on level 1 on price [warranty, and service contract duration] would lead to 400 [120, and 240] points. There was an increment of 50 [15, and 30] points per level in price [warranty, and service contract duration]. Participants were, then, instructed that a 1-1-1 deal on price, warranty period and service contract duration, respectively, is the best deal for them resulting in a total of 760 points (400 + 120 + 240). Participants were not shown the payoff chart of the other party but were told that the payoff chart is different from their own.

In line with Van Kleef et al. (2006), we informed participants that the points they concede would be converted to lottery tickets at the end of the negotiation task to increase their task involvement. They would receive more lottery tickets at the end of the negotiation task if they concede at higher points in the task and thus, they would have higher chances of earning one of three 20€ prizes. Furthermore, we informed participants that only those who reach an agreement at the end of the negotiation task will participate in the lottery to underscore the mixed-motive nature of the negotiation. After this information, all participants were asked to wait until a connection with another party is achieved. After about one minute, we informed all participants that a connection with another party was achieved and the other party would make the first offer, and they would negotiate until they reached an agreement or until the time was exhausted.

After the presentation of the instructions, the negotiation task started with the buyer's (i.e., computer's) first offer of 8-7-8 for the price, warranty and service following the levels of agreement. In the remaining rounds, the buyer proposed 8-7-7 (round 2), 8-6-7 (round 3), 7-6-7 (round 4), 7-6-6 (round 5), and 6-6-6 (round 6). Face validity of this pre-programmed strategy has been documented previously (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995) and the strategy has been scored as intermediate in terms of cooperativeness and competitiveness (De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995).

Participants' demand was accepted if the demand was equal or exceeded the offer the computer would make in the next round. For example, if the participant demanded 8–6–7 in round 2, this demand was accepted by the computer since its next offer (in round 3) would have been 8–6–7. Regardless of whether participants reached an agreement with the buyer, the task was interrupted after the sixth round (Van Kleef et al., 2004; Van Kleef et al., 2006)

Objective negotiation performance captured the number of points conceded during six rounds of the task, which is a typical measure of objective negotiation performance in negotiation research (e.g., Van Kleef et al., 2004; Van Kleef et al., 2006). Higher points indicate individuals did not concede at lower offers and thus, receive higher points and have high negotiation performance.

Table 1

Study 2 and 3 — Participants' Payoff Chart

Level	Phone Price		Warranty Period		Service Contract Duration	
	Price	Payoff points	Warranty (months)	Payoff points	Service (months)	Payoff points
1	150	400	1	120	1	240
2	145	350	2	105	2	210
3	140	300	3	90	3	180
4	135	250	4	75	4	150
5	130	200	5	60	5	120
6	125	150	6	45	6	90
7	120	100	7	30	7	60
8	115	50	8	15	8	30
9	110	0	9	0	9	0

4.2.4 Analyses

We investigated if implicit and explicit motives are correlated, if explicit motives and traits explain significant variance in self-reported negotiation performance, if implicit motives explain extra variance in self-reported and objective negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and Big Five, and if implicit motives are significantly associated with self-reported negotiation performance. For these, we regressed self-reported negotiation performance on Big Five traits and explicit motives in model 1 and added implicit motives in model 2. We, then, compared model 1 to model 2 to decide if adding implicit motives in model 1 results in extra variance in the outcome variable. The results are presented in Tables 2 and 3. All of the analyses were conducted using R (R Core Team, 2020).

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables can be found in Table 2. In line with previous research and our hypothesis 1 (e.g., Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992), implicit motives did not correlate with their correspondent explicit motives, except for affiliation motive in Study 2 ($r = .21, p < .05$).

4.3.2 Multiple Regression Analyses

We started by investigating if trait personality dimensions and explicit motives explain variance in self-reported and objective negotiation performance. The results showed that the two explain substantial variance in negotiation performance in Study 1 ($R^2 = .43, F(232) = 22.07, p < 0.01$) and Study 3 ($\Delta R^2 = .01; \Delta F(186) = 2.10, p < .05$) but not in Study 2 ($\Delta R^2 = .02; \Delta F(98) =$

1.75, $p > .05$). To examine if adding implicit motives significantly increased explained variance in negotiation performance beyond traits and explicit motives, we compared the R^2 values of the models with and without implicit motives (model 1 vs. model 2 in Table 3). We found that adding implicit motives to model 1 significantly contributed to the explained variance in objective negotiation performance (Study 2: $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $\Delta F^2(95) = 3.00$, $p < .05$; Study 3: $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F^2(183) = 3.11$, $p < .05$) but not self-reported negotiation performance (Study 1: $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F^2 = 1.00$, $p > .05$) beyond traits and explicit motives. For hypothesis 4, we checked if implicit achievement and power motives are positively and implicit affiliation motive is negatively related to self-reported and objective negotiation performance. The results showed that none of the implicit motives was significantly related to self-reported negotiation performance (achievement: $\beta = 0.05$, $t = 0.93$; affiliation: $\beta = -0.02$, $t = -0.34$; power: $\beta = 0.08$, $t = 1.38$; $ps > .05$). However, in Study 2 and 3, we found implicit achievement motive to be significantly associated with objective negotiation performance ($\beta = 0.15$; $t = 2.18$; $p < .05$ and $\beta = 0.07$, $t = 2.21$, $p < .05$ respectively). We also found implicit affiliation motives to be significantly related to objective negotiation performance in Study 3 ($\beta = 0.07$, $t = 2.32$, $p < .05$). There was no significant association between implicit power motive and objective negotiation performance (Study 2: $\beta = 0.07$, $t = 1.13$, $p > .05$; Study 3: $\beta = 0.05$, $t = 1.37$, $p > .05$ respectively). See Table 3 for details.

4.3.3 Supplemental Analyses

We also exploratively tested if the relationships between negotiation performance and implicit affiliation and power motives are moderated by extraversion, which is referred to as the channeling hypothesis (Lang et al., 2012; Runge et al., 2020; Winter et al., 1998). These results with confidence intervals and exact p-values are provided in *Appendix A*.

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables across the Three Studies

Study 1															
Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Gender (female = 0)	-	-													
2. Age	34.97	10.50	-.20**												
3. Extraversion	3.62	0.91	.19**	-.24**											
4. Neuroticism	3.29	1.03	.01	-.30**	.18**										
5. Openness to experience	3.75	0.81	-.03	-.02	.39**	.42**									
6. Conscientiousness	3.64	0.86	-.08	.05	.23**	.13*	.38**								
7. Agreeableness	3.65	0.88	.01	-.11	.33**	.18**	.43**	.43**							
8. Ex. achievement motive	4.61	0.87	.07	-.25**	.39**	.14*	.29**	.32**	.34**						
9. Ex. affiliation motive	4.38	0.91	.16*	-.48**	.52**	.30**	.20**	.18**	.31**	.60**					
10. Ex. power motive	4.27	1.01	.18**	-.52**	.47**	.31**	.23**	.19**	.26**	.63**	.78**				
11. Im. achievement motive	3.54	1.52	.02	-.07	.20**	.09	.11	.11	.23**	.07	.14*	.11			
12. Im. affiliation motive	2.21	1.42	-.17**	-.08	.00	.10	-.02	-.04	.07	-.09	.08	.05	-.00		
13. Im. power motive	5.37	2.19	.11	.02	-.01	-.14*	-.15*	-.12	-.16*	.11	-.04	-.02	-.32**	-.36**	
14. Self-rated negotiation performance	3.99	0.62	.10	-.16*	.49**	.07	.22**	.26**	.25**	.57**	.51**	.45**	.12	-.08	.10

Study 2												
Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender (female = 0)	-	-										
2. Age	22.39	2.47	.10									
3. Finalized (yes = 0)	-	-	-.16	.11								
4. Neuroticism	2.76	1.14	-.33**	-.04	.15							
5. Ex. achievement motive	10.62	3.07	.01	-.13	.04	.04						
6. Ex. affiliation motive	9.56	3.89	.17	-.26**	-.20*	-.32**	.19					
7. Ex. power motive	10.15	3.06	.06	-.36**	-.03	-.19	.43**	.42**				
8. Im. achievement motive	2.92	1.52	-.24*	-.14	.07	.06	.19	.18	-.04			
9. Im. affiliation motive	1.73	1.29	-.08	.07	-.10	-.02	-.21*	.21*	-.11	-.04		
10. Im. power motive	5.17	2.15	.26**	.15	-.03	-.09	.06	-.03	.13	-.36**	-.24*	
11. Objective negotiation performance	2493.99	1134.09	.10	-.10	-.79**	-.21*	-.09	.24*	.12	.04	-.01	.07

Study 3																
Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Gender (female = 0)	0.61	0.49														
2. Age	32.24	9.80	-.16*													
3. Finalized (yes = 0)	0.72	0.45	.14*	.03												
4. Extraversion	3.20	0.73	-.19**	.09	-.19**											
5. Neuroticism	2.94	0.77	-.12	-.10	-.03	-.30**										
6. Openness to experience	3.27	0.72	-.08	-.03	-.33**	.06	.22**									
7. Conscientiousness	3.33	0.77	-.05	.00	-.39**	.19**	-.13	.27**								
8. Agreeableness	3.29	0.75	-.12	-.05	-.38**	.17*	.05	.30**	.38**							
9. Ex. achievement motive	4.65	0.73	.09	-.23**	-.00	.05	-.08	.02	.05	.11						
10. Ex. affiliation motive	4.41	0.76	.06	-.11	.14*	.19**	-.11	-.02	-.02	.05	.55**					
11. Ex. power motive	4.33	0.89	.17*	-.05	.40**	.05	-.19**	-.14	-.18*	-.27**	.51**	.58**				
12. Im. achievement motive	3.57	1.46	-.11	-.07	-.03	-.13	.02	-.03	.03	.09	-.06	-.08	-.16*			
13. Im. affiliation motive	2.12	1.35	.01	.01	.07	.01	-.07	-.04	-.03	-.10	-.02	-.00	.06	.05		
14. Im. power motive	4.94	2.13	.11	.19**	-.08	.01	-.03	.09	-.00	.02	-.07	-.10	-.04	-.36**	-.43**	
15. Objective negotiation performance	920.28	1251.68	-.13	-.02	-.92**	.11	.04	.31**	.42**	.35**	.04	-.15*	-.38**	.09	-.02	.05

Note. Study 1 $N = 240$; Study 2 $N = 104$; Study 3 $N = 196$. M and SD are used to represent mean and standard deviation. *Ex.* = Explicit; *Im.* = Implicit. Finalized represents if individuals negotiated to the end over six negotiation rounds.

* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 3

Regression Analyses Predicting Negotiation Performance with Big Five, Explicit Motives and Implicit Motives across the Three Studies

Predictor	Study 1		Study 2		Study 3		Study 3		Study 3			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
	<i>b</i>	β	<i>b</i>	β	<i>b</i>	β	<i>b</i>	β	<i>b</i>	β	<i>b</i>	β
Intercept	1.67**		1.50**		2907.27**		2723.18**		2424.86**		1767.20**	
Finalized (yes = 0)	–	–	–	–	-2272.23**	-0.76	-2322.41**	-0.78	-2484.97**	-0.89	-2485.90**	-0.89
Extraversion	0.19**	0.27	0.18**	0.26	–	–	–	–	-94.60	-0.06	-79.24	-0.05
Neuroticism	-0.05	-0.08	-0.05	-0.08	-49.42	-0.05	-46.65	-0.05	18.87	0.01	35.53	0.02
Openness to experience	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00	–	–	–	–	0.70	0.00	-1.63	-0.00
Conscientiousness	0.06	0.09	0.07	0.09	–	–	–	–	141.46**	0.09	143.86**	0.09
Agreeableness	-0.02	-0.03	-0.02	-0.03	–	–	–	–	-26.72	-0.02	-30.58	-0.02
Ex. achievement motive	0.26**	0.36	0.24**	0.34	-41.56	-0.11	-62.34*	-0.17	121.22*	0.07	130.45*	0.08
Ex. affiliation motive	0.15*	0.21	0.15*	0.22	15.20	0.05	15.55	0.05	-63.45	-0.04	-55.14	-0.03
Ex. power motive	-0.03	-0.05	-0.03	-0.04	40.66	0.11	43.85	0.12	-29.14	-0.02	-24.72	-0.02
Im. achievement motive			0.02	0.05			109.25*	0.15			56.71*	0.07
Im. affiliation motive			-0.01	-0.02			-87.92	-0.10			65.91*	0.07
Im. power motive			0.02	0.08			39.25	0.07			26.62	0.05
<i>F</i> (<i>dfs</i>)	22.07(8, 232)**		16.33(11, 229)**		35.65(5, 98)**		24.77(8, 95)**		128.10(9, 186)**		100.10(12, 183)**	
<i>R</i> ²	.43		.44		.65		.68		.86		.87	
ΔF vs. Model 1			1.00				3.00*				3.11*	
ΔR^2 vs. Model 1			.01				.03				.01	

Note. Study 1 *N* = 240; Study 2 *N* = 104; Study 3 *N* = 196. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. β indicates the standardized regression weights.

df = degrees of freedom. Ex. = Explicit, Im. = Implicit. *Finalized* represents if individuals negotiated to the end over six negotiation rounds. – represents that the variable was not measured in the respective study.

* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

4.4 Discussion

In this study, we primarily aimed at contributing to the negotiation literature by examining motivational perspectives of personality as correlates of negotiation performance along with traits perspectives of personality. By doing so, we responded to the calls for reviving the research on individual differences in negotiation research. More specifically, by measuring negotiation performance via self-report (Study 1) and a negotiation task, where individuals were asked to negotiate over price, warranty, and service contract duration of mobile phones (Study 2 and Study 3), we investigated if implicit and explicit motives are correlated, if trait measures of personality and explicit motives explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation performance, if implicit motives explain extra variance in negotiation performance beyond Big Five and explicit motives, and if implicit achievement and power motives [affiliation motive] are positively [negatively] associated with negotiation performance. Overall, we found that implicit motives and explicit motives are not-correlated or weakly correlated, that explicit motives and Big Five explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation performance (Study 1 and 3), that implicit motives explain additional variance beyond explicit motives and Big Five (Study 2 and 3) and implicit achievement motive to be significantly correlated with negotiation performance (Study 2 and 3).

In this research, we found evidence that implicit and corresponding explicit motives do not correlate or weakly correlate with each other. This is in line with previous meta-analyses conducted on this issue (Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992). In the studies included in these meta-analyses, implicit motives were mostly measured by the PSE or earlier versions of PSE, which is considered a “standard measure” of implicit motives (Schultheiss et al., 2008). By demonstrating the same conclusions from the meta-analyses with a newly developed implicit motives test, we establish that the MSC is a valid test for measuring implicit motives.

Furthermore, in Study 1 and 3, we found explicit motives and Big Five explain a significant amount of variance in negotiation performance. Our findings are in line with previous research that personality variables are significant correlates of negotiation outcomes and support the claims by researchers that individual differences should be given a second chance in negotiation research (Elfenbein, 2015; Sharma et al., 2013).

In addition, we found evidence that implicit motives, indeed, have incremental validity beyond explicit motives and trait measures of personality in predicting negotiation performance in Study 2 and 3 but not in Study 1. One possible explanation of these results is the differentiation made by McClelland (1980) and McClelland et al. (1989) for the types of behaviors implicit and explicit motives (and traits) predict. According to them, implicit motives predict operant outcomes, which are spontaneous behaviors over time while explicit motives (and most traits measures) predict respondent outcomes, which are immediate choices. Operant outcomes are operant in the sense that the stimuli in the environment that elicit the behaviors are not immediately identifiable and examples of operant outcomes include income and job level attained in an organization (Spangler, 1992). For respondent outcomes, on the other hand, the stimuli activating the behavior are identifiable and examples include results on a personality survey and achievement scores on a standardized test. Provided that negotiation performance was measured based on a self-report measure (i.e., respondent outcome) in the first study, and based on a negotiation task (i.e., operant outcome) in the second and third studies, the results show that implicit motives explained additional variance in negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and traits in Study 2 and 3 but not in Study 1. These results are in line with Runge et al. (2020) showing that implicit motives explained additional variance in counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) beyond traits. They

reasoned for the results by claiming that CWB might occur both when there are clear social stimuli (i.e., respondent) and unclear and unconstrained situations (i.e., operant).

Moreover, we hypothesized that implicit achievement motive is positively associated with negotiation performance. We found evidence for a positive relationship between negotiation performance and implicit achievement motive in Study 2 and 3. That is, individuals with a high implicit achievement motive perform better at negotiation scenarios than those with a low implicit achievement motive. This study is in line with and strengthens the previous findings that implicit achievement motive is a positive predictor of operant achievement behaviors (e.g., spontaneous job-related activities) (Heckhausen & Halisch, 1986; Spangler, 1992).

Additionally, we hypothesized that implicit affiliation motives are negatively associated with negotiation performance. Contrary to our expectations, we did not find significant relationships between implicit affiliation motive and negotiation outcomes in Study 1 and 2, and a positive relationship in Study 3. One key argument for a negative relationship was that we argued that persons with high affiliation motivation are likely to avoid competition. However, it is possible that the typical negotiation task was interpreted more as an opportunity to connect and thus actually motivated them to perform well.

Finally, we predicted that implicit power motive is positively associated with negotiation performance. Contrary to our hypothesis, we did not find any significant relationship between implicit power motive and negotiation performance. One possible explanation for the results in Study 1 could be that the self-report measure of negotiation performance measures respondent outcomes, which are associated with explicit motives than implicit motives (McClelland et al., 1989). In Study 2 and 3, the negotiation scenario we used was a mixed-motive scenario, where neither competitiveness nor cooperativeness was in focus (e.g., De Dreu & Van Lange, 1995; De

Dreu & Van Kleef, 2004). Based on this, it is safe to expect a positive relationship between implicit power motive and negotiation performance in competitive negotiation scenarios, which further explains our non-significant findings. However, this remains to be studied and future studies could explore the relationship between the two in negotiation scenarios with a competitive nature.

4.4.1 Theoretical and Practical Implications

Thus far, IO researchers have investigated mostly trait measures of personality as individual differences in negotiation performance. We extend this research line in several ways. First, we advance the literature on understanding how individuals differ in terms of negotiation performance based on their implicit and explicit motives. To our knowledge, there is only one study investigating how implicit and explicit motives conjointly predict individuals' salary expectations, which is sometimes used as a proxy for negotiation performance (Trapp & Kehr, 2016). By investigating the additive effects of the Big Three classes of implicit and explicit motives, we offer a more comprehensive picture of individual differences in negotiation performance. Furthermore, implicit motives are the second most widely used individual differences in personality research next to trait measures of personality (Winter et al., 1998; McAdams & Olson, 2010). With this research, we contribute to research by demonstrating that implicit motives explain extra variance beyond explicit motives and trait measures of personality, which establishes the conclusion that researchers should take implicit motives also into consideration when investigating the personality correlates of work-related outcomes, specifically in negotiation performance. In addition to self-report measures to measure explicit motives and traits, we used indirect (i.e. nonreactive) measures to assess implicit motives, which contributes to previous literature on individual differences measured via self-report measures (Sharma et al.,

2018; Volkema et al., 2013). Finally, by measuring negotiation performance through self-report measures and a negotiation task, we provide a broader understanding of negotiation performance.

Our study has practical implications for both the individual employee and the organization at large. From the perspective of an employee, our results point out the person-job fit, where individuals are happiest when the jobs they work for fit them the best (Diener et al., 1984). In terms of negotiations, individuals should choose self-concordant jobs, whose requirements are in line with their implicit motives. As individuals might not have access to their implicit motives and thus make cognitive decisions, they might rely on the Self-Concordance Model to decide if the job fits their implicit motives (e.g., Sheldon & Cooper, 2008; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). For example, we assume that individuals with high achievement motive perform better in jobs with mixed-motive negotiation scenarios. Companies, in the same line, divide a wide range of job responsibilities among their employees (Sharma et al., 2018). To enhance a better-working division of labor arrangements, companies could assign jobs that require negotiation based on individuals' implicit motives. For example, individuals with high implicit achievement motives could be assigned to jobs that include mixed-method negotiation scenarios. Of course, in these cases, the measurement of implicit motives becomes an issue as measures like PSE requires researchers and practitioners to hand-code individuals' written stories based on an adapted coding scheme, which typically takes a substantially long time (Pang & Ring, 2020; Runge et al., 2020; Runge & Lang, 2019). An approach to tackle this issue could be using a newly developed instrument to measure implicit motives, namely, the Motive Self-Categorization test, in which participants could specify their implicit motives in the stories they write. This approach was shown to have good convergent validity with expert scorings of the stories individuals write (Runge & Lang, 2019).

4.4.2 Limitations and Future Studies

One limitation of the current studies is the measure of Big Five traits. Although the original publication where the measure appeared received more than 4000 citations as of October 2022, the usage of short personality measures is generally criticized (e.g., Credé et al., 2012). A common criticism is that short Big Five measures have smaller predictive power compared to longer measures. That is why, future research could employ longer versions of the Big Five and replicate our findings. A second limitation of our study lies in its cross-sectional design. Even though we collected two types of negotiation performance data, which makes our findings robust, the design of our study does not establish causality. Future studies could investigate this relationship between implicit motives and negotiation performance in experimental settings. For example, by activating implicit motives, researchers could investigate how these aroused implicit motives affect individuals' negotiation performance on competitive and cooperative tasks.

4.5 Conclusion

Negotiation researchers recently called to revive the study of individual differences in negotiation performance (Elfenbein, 2015; Sharma et al., 2013). With this study, we responded to this call and extended the research on individual differences in negotiation performance by integrating implicit and explicit motives next to trait measures of personality. Our results overall demonstrated that indeed, implicit achievement and power motives are important predictors of negotiation performance and that implicit motives contribute to the explanation of negotiation performance in addition to traits and explicit motives. Based on our findings, we discuss both practical and academic implications regarding the role of implicit and explicit motives when studying negotiation performance.

4.6 Declarations

Funding: This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Conflicts of interest/Competing interests: The authors report no conflict of interest

Availability of data: The datasets analyzed for the current study are available on this [link](#).

Code availability: Codes for data analyses for the current study are available on this [link](#).

Ethics Declarations: All procedures performed in the two studies including human participants were in accordance with the institutional ethical standards and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments. Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the studies.

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5 Article 3

Perceived Intrinsic Motivation Mediates the Effect of Motive Incongruence on Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction

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Author Contributions

Cafer Bakaç and Yixian Chen contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by Cafer Bakaç. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Cafer Bakaç and Jetmir Zyberaj contributed to the discussion of the first draft. Hugo M. Kehr, Markus Quirin, Jetmir Zyberaj and Yixian Chen commented on previous versions of the manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Perceived Intrinsic Motivation Mediates the Effect of Motive Incongruence on Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT

Job burnout is a profound concern in modern society producing enormous financial and emotional costs for companies, health insurances, and the individual employee. In this study, we aimed at contributing to the literature on determinants of job burnout by investigating the indirect effects of implicit and explicit motive discrepancies (IED) through intrinsic motivation, with the aim of replicating previous findings from the literature. In addition, we extended this research by adding job satisfaction as an outcome variable in the mediation model, as well as volition as a moderator in these relationships. We preregistered our study and collected data from 136 participants (82 females; $M_{\text{age}} = 29.33$ years, $SD_{\text{age}} = 6.30$) using indirect measures (for implicit motives) and self-report measures (for explicit motives, job burnout, job satisfaction and volition). IED was shown to have an indirect effect on both job burnout and job satisfaction through intrinsic motivation. Additionally, these indirect effects were mitigated by high levels volition. We discuss implications of our findings for research and practice.

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job burnout;
job satisfaction;
volition

Introduction

Job burnout is defined as a “prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 397). A report from Harvard Business Review documented that job burnout produces estimated costs of \$125 billion to \$190 billion a year in healthcare spending in the U.S. only (Garton, 2017). Thus, preventing job burnout remains a pressing challenge for today’s society, to which scholars proposed developing generic intervention strategies through the identification of primary causes or correlations (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Along these lines, potential determinants have previously been identified both personal and organizational factors, such as core self-evaluations (Best et al., 2005), job demands (Nahrgang et al., 2011), and job-person incongruences (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Drawing on personality factors as determinants of job burnout, Rawolle et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between implicit-explicit motive incongruence, intrinsic

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motivation and job burnout. Motives can be understood as stable differences in classes of goals and desires that actuate individual behavior (McClelland, 1987). Incongruencies between explicit and implicit motives have typically been used as an indicator of intra-individual conflict (Kehr, 2004b) and found to be negatively related to various job outcomes, such as job burnout and intrinsic motivation (Rawolle et al., 2016). Similar to Rawolle et al. (2016), the present work employed a motivational approach that assessed implicit/explicit motive discrepancies (IED) and modeled these discrepancies as predictor of job burnout through intrinsic job motivation, with the aim of replicating their findings. We additionally investigated volition as potential moderator of the relationship between IED and job burnout. Furthermore, we investigated this mediation and moderated mediation model by adding job satisfaction as another outcome variable.

With this research, we contribute to research and practice in several ways. First of all, by investigating IED as a potential determinant of burnout, we advance the literature on the complex motivational etiology of burnout. In particular, the consideration of implicit motives is important because most research on determinants of burnout used self-reports rather than indirect measures, and the few that do exist (e.g. Rawolle et al., 2016) need replication. Moreover, by integrating volition as a moderator in the suggested mediation models, we tested the theoretical considerations by Kehr (2004b) and suggest high volition might compensate for the negative effects of IED on intrinsic motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction. Not least, from a practical perspective, by providing evidence on motivational etiology of burnout, our findings might assist practitioners in developing preventive interventions aimed at reducing intra-individual implicit-explicit motive discrepancy.

We start by elaborating on the differentiation between implicit and explicit motives. Next, we mention IED and its relationships to intrinsic job motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction. Finally, we describe the role of volition in the relationship between IED and intrinsic motivation, job burnout and job satisfaction.

Theoretical Background

Implicit versus Explicit Motives

Motives (including implicit and explicit motives) are considered to energize, select and direct behavior (McClelland et al., 1989). Approximately 30 years ago, McClelland et al. (1989) differentiated between two types of motive systems: implicit and explicit motives. Whereas implicit motives refer to unconscious associative networks (McClelland et al., 1953) of idealized self-conceptions, explicit motives refer to self-attributed needs (Schultheiss, 2008).

The implicit motives are considered to be developed based on the typical emotional experiences in the early pre-verbal stages of childhood (i.e. which types of stimuli and social interactions have predominantly been rewarding). They may be considered as “motivational dispositions that operate outside of a person’s conscious awareness and are aimed at the attainment of specific classes of incentives and the avoidance of specific classes of disincentives” (Schultheiss, 2008, p. 603). They are not consciously reflected and may thus be measured by nonreactive or semi-reactive procedures such

as the Picture-Story Exercise (Schultheiss, 2008), the Operant-Motives Test (e.g. Kuhl & Scheffer, 2001) or the Multi-Motives Grid (Sokolowski et al., 2000)¹.

Explicit motives, on the other hand, are considered to be strongly shaped by verbally encoded learning experiences in later stages of childhood, when language is acquired (McClelland & Pilon, 1983). Explicit motives are responsive to social incentives and demands. Since they can be cognitively represented, they are mainly measured through self-report measures such as Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1984).

Implicit-Explicit Motive Discrepancies


From motive research's inception, researchers have reported implicit achievement, affiliation and power motives to be uncorrelated with their corresponding explicit motives (e.g. Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992). This statistical independence has been interpreted as implicit-explicit motive discrepancy (e.g. McClelland et al., 198; Schüler et al., 2019). Many theorists and researchers suggest the incongruence between implicit and explicit motives to be associated with different developmental trajectories and the ways these motives are acquired (McClelland et al., 1989; Strick & Papies, 2017; Thrash et al., 2007). As implicit motives are implicit in the sense that individuals may not know about their implicit motives, it becomes strenuous to align implicit and explicit motives (Grund et al., 2018), leaving conscious self (i.e. explicit motives) divorced from its corresponding unconscious counterpart (i.e. implicit motives; Thrash et al., 2012). In line with this, some researchers suggest that individuals access to their implicit motives and bring their explicit motives in line with these motives, which may result in positive experiences like well-being (Grund et al., 2018; Strick & Papies, 2017). Evidence from several studies suggest that goal commitment is enhanced when individuals have a sense of their implicit motives and set corresponding explicit goals compared to when their implicit and explicit motives are in disarray (Job & Brandstätter, 2009; Schultheiss & Brunstein, 1999). We invite the readers to see recent endeavors to experimentally establish implicit-explicit motive congruence (Roch et al., 2017) or a review on the issue (Hofer & Busch, 2017).

IED was shown to be positively associated with a variety of variables such as unhealthy eating behaviors (Job et al., 2010), decreased relationship satisfaction (Hagemeyer et al., 2013), depressiveness (Thrash et al., 2007), negative affect (Baumann et al., 2005), volitional depletion (Kehr, 2004a) and clinical depression (Neumann & Schultheiss, 2015).

It has been argued that IED probably leads to these negative outcomes because explicit motives lead individuals to set corresponding goals that are in conflict with their emotional preferences coming from implicit motives. Doing so over a longer period of time may constitute a "hidden stressor" that might be causal in producing effects of IED on indicators of reduced well-being (Baumann et al., 2005; Kehr, 2004b; McClelland et al., 1989; Weineck et al., 2021).

IED, Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction

Maslach and Leiter (2008) postulated that a person's perceived incongruence or mismatch between oneself and the job in terms of perceived fairness and workload is

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positively associated with the likelihood of burnout. Associating this person-job mismatch with IED, it seems plausible to argue that individuals who set goals and have explicit motive systems that are not in line with their implicit motives (i.e. the “true self”), might be at greater risk in developing burnout than those whose goals and implicit motives align. To be sure, there are two kinds of IED: one constellation is when individuals’ implicit motives are high but explicit motives are low (e.g. a situation where individuals have high achievement motives but might choose jobs or tasks that do not offer respective incentives), and the other constellation is the vice versa (e.g. a situation where individuals choose achievement-related tasks or jobs but they might not enjoy engaging in these tasks or jobs). There is conclusive evidence that regardless of the constellation, IED works as a hidden chronic stressor, produce long-lasting intrapersonal conflict (Baumann et al., 2005), is associated with lessened well-being (e.g. Kazén & Kuhl, 2011; Kehr, 2004a; Schüler et al., 2009) and leads to anxiety in clinical samples (Weineck et al., 2021). Thus, we expect a positive relationship between IED and job burnout.

Following similar reasoning that IED results in intrapersonal conflict, Kehr (2004b) suggested a negative relationship between IED and job satisfaction for both IED constellations. Job satisfaction is defined as “pleasurable or emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). Positioning IED at work settings, when employees explicitly are encouraged to engage in social interactions with others at work even though these interactions do not bring positive experiences or when employees refrain from engaging in social interactions although they are enjoyable for them as these interactions may be considered to conflict with the work demands (Thielgen et al., 2015), their positive experiences at work and thus, job satisfaction may hinder. Additionally, IED has been found to be negatively related to well-being (cf. Brunstein, 2010, for a review), life-satisfaction (Hofer et al., 2010) and positively related to psychosomatic symptoms (Baumann et al., 2005). Considering job satisfaction and life satisfaction mutually affect each other (and are positively related), we expect a negative relationship between IED and job satisfaction. As a support for this expectation, Thielgen et al. (2015) found evidence for a negative relationship between IED and job satisfaction. Specifically, conducting two studies, the researchers found that in the affiliation motive domain, IED was negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Based on these, it is plausible to expect a negative relationship between IED and job satisfaction.

IED, Intrinsic Job Motivation and Volition

Intrinsic motivation is commonly defined as “... doing something for its own sake because it is interesting and enjoyable” (Gagné et al., 2010, p. 629). Here, we specifically assessed intrinsic motivation related to the job. More clearly, we more often used the term “intrinsic job motivation” or “job-related intrinsic motivation” in the text. By contrast, motives refer to motivational strengths with respect to achievement, affiliation, or power in general (not restricted to the job). General mismatches in these domains indicate that individuals typically set (explicit) goals incongruent with their implicit motives, which increases the risk for losing motivation for their goals and


tasks over time, job-related tasks included. See Locke and Schattke (2019) for an extensive conceptual difference between implicit motives and intrinsic motivation.

Depending on Kehr's (2004b) model, in this research we propose intrinsic motivation as a mediator of the relationship between IED and job burnout, and job satisfaction. Kehr (2004b) proposed intrinsic motivation to stem from a congruence between implicit and explicit motives. For example, when employees enjoy interacting with others at work and are explicitly encouraged to so do, they might be intrinsically motivated at this workplace. To be more specific, Kehr (2004b) mentions two pre-requisites for an implicit motive: 1) conditions when individuals' aroused implicit motives and behavior at hand are aligned 2) conditions when explicit motives or goals that are competing with aroused implicit motives do not exist. When these two pre-requisites are met, intrinsic motivation is likely to boost.

This theorizing also implies that when implicit and explicit motives are at conflict, individuals' intrinsic motivation could be hindered. A rather recent research by Rawolle et al. (2016) support this implication. Conducting their study among a sample of managers, the researchers were interested if intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between IED and job burnout. The results showed a significantly negative relationship between IED and intrinsic motivation. This documents that IED (due to conflicting behavioral tendencies) might have negative consequences for individual's intrinsic motivation, which, in turn, lead to job burnout. Similarly, Rubino et al. (2009) found a mediating effect of intrinsic motivation in the relationship between work stressors and job burnout. Furthermore, Van Beek et al. (2012) found a negative relationship between intrinsic motivation and job burnout. Based on these theoretical assumptions and empirical evidence, we side with the idea that the relationship between IED and job burnout and job satisfaction is mediated by intrinsic motivation.

Hypothesis 1: Intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between IED and job burnout, and job satisfaction.

Moreover, previous research has shown that implicit and explicit motives typically do not correlate (Köllner & Schultheiss, 2014; Spangler, 1992), for which Thrash et al. (2007) have suggested three possible reasons: substance of motive constructs (e.g. approach vs avoidance), methodological issues (e.g. comparability of methods), and moderator variables (i.e. individual differences). In the compensatory model of motivation and volition, Kehr (2004b) makes a case for such a moderator variable, namely volition. Kehr defines volition as "an array of self-regulatory strategies to support explicit action tendencies against competing behavioral impulses (p. 485)". According to this model, discrepancies between implicit and explicit motives lead to conflicting behavioral tendencies, and because of this, intrapersonal conflict arises. To overcome this conflicting behavioral tendencies, volition is needed. To do this, his model ascribes two functions to volition: 1) suppressing unwanted implicit behavioral impulses (e.g. overcoming the temptation of meeting friends when one has to study for his/her final exams) and 2) enhancing explicit action tendencies (e.g. attending company after work meetups even though one is low on affiliation motive). Thus, volition might buffer against the negative effects of individuals' conflicting implicit and explicit motives (IED) on intrinsic motivation and job burnout. Support for this notion comes from

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studies using self-determination, a variable empirically correlated with volition (Thrash et al., 2007).

Hypothesis 2: Volition moderates the relationship between IED and intrinsic motivation.

Building on the both hypotheses (Hypothesis 1 and 2), we, further, expect a moderated mediation. To be more specific, we expect volition to moderate the relationship between IED and intrinsic motivation as well as IED and outcome variables in the mediation models (See research model in Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: The indirect effect of IED on job burnout and job satisfaction through intrinsic motivation is conditional upon volition, such that the indirect effect is weaker when volition is high rather than low.

Methods

Materials and Data Processing

The pre-registration to this study can be found at this <https://osf.io/ez596>. Deviations from the pre-registration are explicitly documented in the manuscript. All materials can be accessed via OSF project folder associated with this project at the same link provided above. Pre-processing and polynomial regression with response surface analysis were conducted in *RSA* package (Schönbrodt, 2016) in R and other data analyses were conducted in SPSS using PROCESS tool (Hayes, 2012). We report all of the measures included in the study, how the sample size was determined, all data exclusions. Further, some analyses, which were not preregistered, are reported as non-preregistered exploratory analyses.

Participants and Procedure

Using Rawolle et al. (2016) as a basis for a power analysis (*GPower*: $f^2 = 0.20$, $\alpha = .05$, $\beta = .95$; Faul et al., 2009), we recruited a total of 144 participants from a big company and through social media, eight of which were excluded from analyses because they did not complete the study ($N = 4$) and responded randomly ($N = 4$). Our final sample included 136 participants (82 females), with an age ranging from 18 to 58 ($M = 29.33$ years,

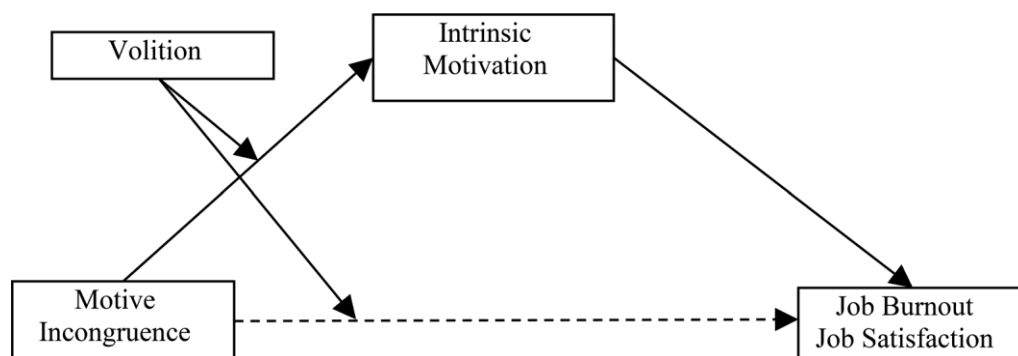



Figure 1. Hypothesized research model.

$SD = 6.30$). Other than Rawolle et al. (2016), we did not only include managers but employees from various industries such as hospitals, governmental institutions (teaching, majorship etc.) and non-governmental organizations. Many of participants finished a master's degree (53.28%) and had one to five years of working experience (44.53%).

Measures

The Multi-Motive-Grid (MMG; Sokolowski et al., 2000) was used to assess *implicit motives*. The MMG, like Picture Story Exercise (PSE; Schultheiss, 2008) and the Operant-Motives Test (OMT; Kuhl & Scheffer, 2001), arouses implicit motives with the help of pictures. However, the three differ in terms of the ways participants' responses to the pictures are captured. In PSE, participants are asked to write stories to ambiguous pictures. These stories are then coded by trained coders in terms of their implicit achievement, affiliation and power motive content. In OMT, participants are asked to answer pre-formulated open-ended questions for each picture. Participants' answers to these questions, are then content-coded by trained coders, like in PSE. The MMG, however, is composed of 14 pictures, where each picture is accompanied by three pre-defined items. Further, each item corresponds to each motive domain: power, affiliation and achievement. Participants are asked to indicate the item that fits the picture best, which makes the MMG are more economic approach of measuring implicit motives than the other two. Example items include, "trying to influence other people" for dominance, "feeling good about one's competence" for achievement, and "feeling good about meeting other people" for affiliation. The motives are computed based on the total score of each motive across the 14 pictures. Cronbach's α was .65 for the affiliation subscale, .71 for the achievement subscale, and .76 for the dominance subscale. Previous studies documented that implicit motive measures typically have low internal consistency reliabilities although they predict behavior as well as self-report measures (e.g. Lang, 2014; Spangler, 1992). This low reliability could be explained by theoretical considerations for implicit motives. According to consummatory assumption of motives (e.g. Atkinson & Birch, 1970; Revelle, 1986), upon being expressed in behaviors, a certain motive is satisfied and thus the likelihood that this motive is subsequently expressed in behavior reduces. That is, after being satisfied, it is less likely that individuals display a motive-related response. In addition, researchers use a $\alpha > .70$ threshold for acceptable reliabilities (Cortina, 1993). Based on these, we conclude that our implicit motives measure reliabilities are adequate.

Explicit motives were assessed using Jackson's (1984) Personality Research Form (PRF). For the measurement of explicit motives, we use three subscales from PRF, which are dominance, achievement, and affiliation. Each subscale includes 16 self-report statements. For each statement, participants are asked to indicate the degree to which each item applies to them using a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("not at all") to 5 ("very much/absolutely"). Sample items include "I enjoy doing things which challenge me" for achievement, "attempts to control the environment and to influence or direct other people" for dominance, "enjoys being with friends and people in general" affiliation. Cronbach's α was .67, .81, and .80 for achievement, affiliation, and dominance (power) subscales respectively.

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We defined *motive incongruence* by absolute differences between standardized z scores of MMG and PRF for each motive domain (Kehr, 2004a). Further, an IED score was obtained by computing the average of the three domains (IED-Dominance, IED-Achievement, IED-Affiliation). *Intrinsic motivation* was assessed by three item intrinsic motivation subscale of the Motivation at Work Scale (MAWS; Gagné et al., 2010). Items were scored on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (“not at all”) to 6 (“very strongly”). Participants are asked to “indicate for each of the following statements to what degree they presently correspond to one of the reasons for which you are doing this specific job”. A sample item is “because I enjoy this work very much”. Cronbach’s α was .89.

We assessed participants’ *job burnout* by using the short version Burnout Measure short version (BMS; Malach-Pines, 2005), a widely used and validated job burnout measure. The measure includes 10 items and participants are asked to indicate the degree to which they are physically, emotionally and mentally exhausted (e.g. feeling “tired,” “trapped”) on a 7-point frequency scale ranging from 1 (“never”) to 7 (“always”). The Cronbach’s α was .89. *Job satisfaction* was assessed by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1994). Participants were asked to indicate how satisfied they feel about different aspects of their job based on 13 items. These items target different aspects like salary, the chance of promotion, recognition, and working environment, which may exert an influence on an individual’s levels of job satisfaction. A sample item is “I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do”. Participants are asked to indicate to what extent they agree or disagree with each item on a scale ranging from 1 (“disagree very much”) to 6 (“agree very much”). Cronbach’s α was .76.

Finally, we assessed *volition* by the self-regulation subscale of the short version of the Volitional Components Inventory from Kuhl and Fuhrmann (2004). The subscale includes 12 items where participants are asked to rate the extent to which each item applies to them using a 4-point likert scale from 1 (“not at all”) to 4 (“completely”), for example, “Before I begin to work on a task, I first think about all the details.”. Cronbach’s α was .79.

Statistical Analyses

Before conducting any analyses to test hypotheses, for each motive domain, we ran one polynomial regression with response surface analysis to demonstrate if the incongruence between implicit and explicit motive was related to the mediator (intrinsic motivation)². We did so because difference scores as measures of incongruence have been criticized (see e.g. Edwards, 1994).

To replicate and extend Rawolle et al. (2016) findings, we used a blocked-variables approach to investigate the mediation hypothesis that intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between implicit-explicit motive congruency and job burnout, and job satisfaction for each motive domain. We, further, used this approach to test the hypotheses that the indirect effect implicit-explicit motive congruency on job burnout and job satisfaction through intrinsic motivation is conditional upon volition for each motive domain. We followed recommendations by Edwards and Cable (2009) to construct block variables. Thus, to construct a block variable, we first regressed mediator variable on implicit motives (achievement, affiliation and power, respectively), implicit

motives squared, explicit motives (achievement, affiliation and power, respectively), explicit motives squared and the interaction between implicit and explicit motives for each motive domain. After that, we multiplied each term (e.g. implicit achievement motive, implicit achievement squared, explicit achievement motive, explicit motive squared and the interaction between implicit achievement motive and explicit achievement motive) with their corresponding regression coefficients obtained from the regression analyses. Finally, we summed all of the variables for each motive content and thus, computed three block variables. We used each block variable as a predictor for the mediation and moderated mediation analyses. For each motive domain, we investigated if each block variable (achievement, affiliation and power respectively) has an indirect effect and conditional (on levels of volition) indirect on both job burnout and job satisfaction through intrinsic motivation. The results using this approach can be accessed in [supplementary materials](#), as this was not pre-registered.

To replicate the findings of Rawolle et al. (2016) as pre-registered, we additionally conducted a mediation analysis with the IED as predictor, intrinsic motivation as mediator and job burnout as outcome variable. Further, to extend these findings, we ran a moderated mediation analysis to test the hypothesis if the indirect effect IED on job burnout through intrinsic motivation is conditional upon volition. In addition to these analyses, we ran analogous mediation and moderated mediation analyses for job satisfaction as a dependent variable. All analyses were conducted with SPSS PROCESS tool (Hayes, 2012).

Results

Before conducting statistical analyses for our main hypotheses, we investigated if our data includes common method bias using *Harman's single-factor test* (Tehseen et al., 2017). For each dependent variable, we conducted a test including items from implicit motives, explicit motives, intrinsic motivation, volition and respective dependent variable. Results showed that one factor does not represent the data well, and explains a small percentage of variance in the data with both burnout (12%) and job satisfaction (9%). Thus, we concluded that common method bias may not exist in our data.

Table 1 displays correlations among all variables. Participants' gender and age had no impact on the results and were thus excluded from further analyses.

Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analyses (Pre-Registered, Confirmatory)

We started by investigating whether incongruences between implicit and explicit motives significantly predicted intrinsic motivation using polynomial regression and visualizing incongruences with response surface analyses separately for each motive. For the power motive domain, the overall test did not reach significance ($R^2 = 0.02$, $p = 0.89$) and none of the surface parameters were significant, thus we refrained from further interpretation of these findings. Moreover, the overall model reached significance for the affiliation motive domain ($R^2 = 0.09$, $p = 0.03$). However and incompatible with the congruence hypothesis, the surface parameter a_4 was not negative, although the surface

Table 1. Correlations between Implicit and Explicit Motive Scores, Motive Incongruence Scores, and Dependent Measures (i.e. Job Burnout, Job Satisfaction).

C. BAKAÇ ET AL.	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
<i>Implicit Motive Scores</i>															
1. MMG-achievement	6.45	2.57													
2. MMG-affiliation	6.14	2.29	.44**												
3. MMG-power	7.07	2.92	.52**	.60**											
<i>Explicit Motive Scores</i>															
4. PRF-achievement	3.38	0.48	.08	.00	.03										
5. PRF-affiliation	3.29	0.62	.14	.05	.16	.26**									
6. PRF-power	3.12	.058	.20*	.02	.09	.58**	.39**								
<i>Motive incongruence scores</i>															
7. Achievement	0.02	0.91	-.05	.07	-.10	.05	-.13	.01							
8. Affiliation	0.02	0.88	.11	.11	.06	-.16	-.07	-.08	.06						
9. Power	0.04	0.85	-.01	-.01	-.10	-.04	-.18*	-.07	.28**	.02					
10. Composite	0.03	0.57	.03	.09	-.07	-.08	-.19*	-.08	.71**	.56**	.66**				
<i>Dependent and Moderator Variables</i>															
11. Intrinsic Motivation	4.23	1.01	.13	-.08	.05	.20*	.19*	.04	-.15	-.16	-.10	-.21*			
12. Job Burnout	3.25	1.04	-.04	.26**	.15	-.25**	-.34**	-.25**	.09	.13	.13	.19*	-.39**		
13. Job Satisfaction	3.94	0.71	.03	-.14	-.65	.08	.18*	.05	-.03	-.06	.01	-.05	.41**	-.46**	
14. Volition	2.59	0.42	.05	-.07	-.08	.36**	.23**	.30**	-.07	-.16	-.05	-.10	.44**	-.37**	.25**

Note. *N* = 136. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *MMG* = multi-motive grid; *PRF* = personality research form. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

parameter a_3 was significant and in line with hypothesis. Thus, we refrained from further interpretation of these results as well. For the achievement motive domain, on the other hand, the overall model was significant ($R^2 = 0.11$, $p = 0.01$). Bootstrapped coefficients and surface parameters are presented in the Table 2. Most importantly, parameter a_1 was significant and positive, indicating low levels of both implicit and explicit achievement motives engender low intrinsic motivation, which is in line with our expectations. Furthermore, parameter a_2 was also significant and positive. In a nutshell, congruencies at high or low levels were related to highest levels of intrinsic motivation as compared to mean level congruencies. In line with Rawolle et al. (2016), our hypothesis of a positive relationship between implicit and explicit motive congruencies and intrinsic motivation was confirmed.

Mediation Analysis (Preregistered, Confirmatory)

In order to examine the proposed mediation hypothesis that intrinsic motivation mediates the effect of IED on job burnout, we used bootstrapping with 5000 resamples and 95% confidence intervals. Results are summarized by Figure 2: The analysis demonstrated a significant direct effect of IED on job burnout, $c = .34$, $SE = 0.16$, and 95% CI [0.03, 0.65]. However, after controlling for the effect of the mediator (intrinsic motivation), the remaining direct effect of IED on job burnout was not significant, $c' = 0.20$, $SE = 0.15$, and 95% CI [-0.10, 0.50], which shows a complete mediation. As expected, a significant indirect effect of IED on job burnout mediated by intrinsic motivation was reported, $ab = 0.15$, $SE = 0.06$, and 95% CI [0.04, 0.27]. Thus, our results confirmed the role of intrinsic motivation as a mediator between IED and job burnout as already reported by Rawolle et al. (2016).

Moderated Mediation (Pre-Registered, Confirmatory)

In addition, we examined if the indirect effect of IED on job burnout through intrinsic motivation is conditional upon volition by running a moderated mediation (i.e. conditional processing modeling) analysis. Following Hayes's (2013) guidelines with this model, we aimed to extend the findings of Rawolle et al. (2016). In the first step in the moderated mediation, we regressed the mediator (intrinsic motivation) on IED

Table 2. Parameters from RSA Analyses: Implicit Achievement Motive and Explicit Achievement Motive Discrepancy as Predictor of Intrinsic Motivation.

	<i>Est</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>
b0: constant	4.09	0.11	[3.87, 4.31]	4.05	0.00
b1: implicit motive	0.10	0.09	[-0.08, 0.27]	0.10	0.28
b2: explicit motive	0.21	0.07	[0.07, 0.36]	0.21	0.01
b3: implicit motive squared	-0.01	0.06	[-0.13, 0.11]	-0.01	0.87
b4: implicit motive X explicit motive	0.14	0.09	[-0.03, 0.30]	0.12	0.11
b5: explicit motive squared	0.14	0.04	[0.06, 0.21]	0.21	0.00
<i>Surface Values</i>					
$a_1 = (b_1 + b_2)$	0.33	0.11	[0.10, 0.52]		0.00
$a_2 = (b_3 + b_4 + b_5)$	0.26	0.12	[0.02, 0.50]		0.03
$a_3 = (b_1 - b_2)$	-0.12	0.13	[-0.36, 0.13]		0.36
$a_4 = (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$	-0.01	0.11	[-0.22, 0.19]		0.91

Note. *Est.* = unstandardized regression coefficient; *SE* = standard error; *CI* = confidence interval; *B* = standardized regression coefficient.

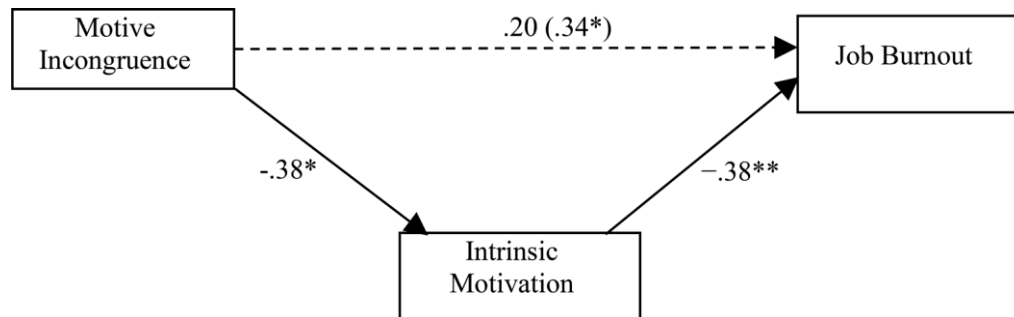


Figure 2. Mediation model for the influence of the composite measure of motive incongruence (independent variable) on job burnout (dependent variable) through intrinsic motivation (mediator). The value in brackets represents the direct effect of motive incongruence on job burnout without controlling for intrinsic motivation. After adding the mediation effect, the direct effect does not become significant. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

(independent variable), volition (moderator) and the interaction between independent variable and moderator. In the second step, we regressed outcome variable (job burnout) on IED, volition, intrinsic motivation and the interaction between IED and volition (see *Model 8* in Hayes, 2013).

The results from the first step of the model revealed that IED and volition significantly predicted intrinsic motivation, ($b = -0.34$), $t(136) = -2.44$, $p < .05$ and ($b = 1.09$), $t(136) = 5.84$, $p < .000$. However, the interaction term between IED and volition did not significantly predict intrinsic motivation, ($b = 0.43$), $t(136) = 1.44$, $p > .05$. The results from the second step of the model showed intrinsic motivation and volition significantly predicted job burnout ($b = -0.27$), $t(136) = -3.01$, $p < .05$ and ($b = -0.57$), $t(136) = -2.54$, $p < .05$ respectively. However, IED and the interaction term between IED and volition did not significantly predicted job burnout ($b = 0.19$), $t(136) = 1.26$, $p > .05$ and ($b = 0.16$), $t(136) = 0.50$, $p > .05$ respectively.

Next, we examined the conditional direct effect of IED on job burnout and indirect effect of IED on job burnout (through intrinsic motivation) at two values of volition following recommendations by Hayes (2013). In line with the recommendations, we set high and low levels of volition at one standard deviation above and below the mean score of volition, respectively. Contrary to expectations, the direct effect of IED was not conditional upon the levels of volition. Specifically, regarding volition, the direct effect of IED on burnout was non-significant at either level, low (CI ranging from -0.30 to 0.55 and crossing zero) and high (CI ranging from -0.11 to 0.62 and crossing zero). By contrast, the indirect effect of IED on burnout *via* intrinsic motivation was conditional upon the level of volition. The indirect effect was significant at low levels of volition (CI ranging from 0.02 to 0.31 and not crossing zero), but it was nonsignificant at high levels of volition (CI ranging from -0.05 to 0.18 and crossing zero). Details of the analysis are depicted in Table 3 (Figure 3).

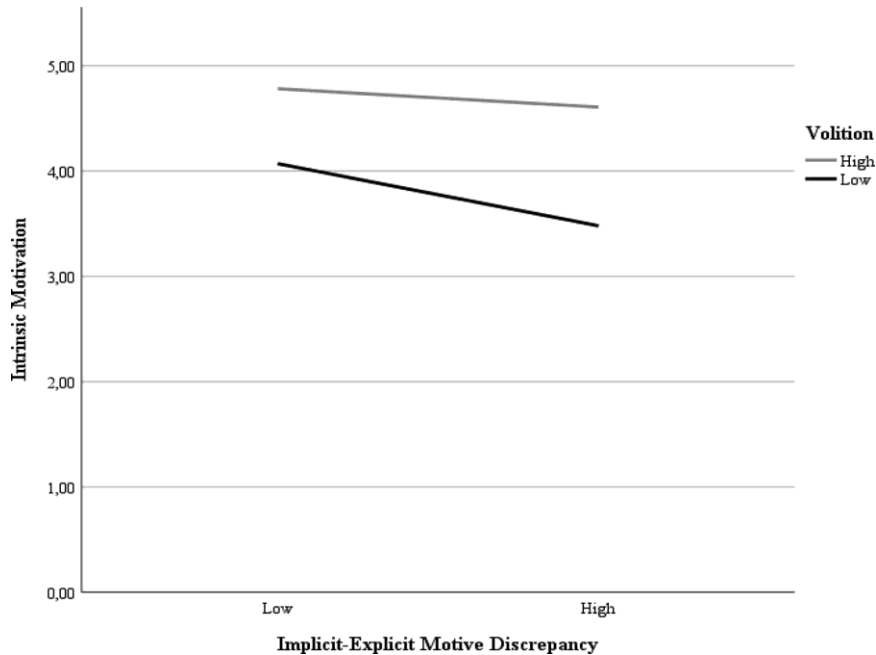
Mediation Analysis with Job Satisfaction as DV (Pre-Registered, Confirmatory)

In order to examine the mediation hypothesis that intrinsic motivation mediated the effect of IED on job satisfaction, we used bootstrapping with 5000 resamples and 95%

Table 3. Moderated Mediation Results for Job Burnout and Job Satisfaction across Levels of Volition.

Outcome Variable	Moderator (Volition)	Conditional direct effect				Conditional indirect effect			
		<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	LL 95% <i>CI</i>	UL 95% <i>CI</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	LL 95% <i>CI</i>	UL 95% <i>CI</i>
Job Burnout	Low (-0.42)	0.12	0.21	-0.30	0.55	0.14	0.07	0.02	0.31
	High (0.42)	0.25	0.18	-0.11	0.62	0.04	0.06	-0.05	0.18
Job Satisfaction	Low (-0.42)	0.03	0.15	-0.26	0.33	-0.13	0.06	-0.26	-0.03
	High (0.42)	0.07	0.13	-0.19	0.32	-0.04	0.05	-0.16	0.05

Note. *N* = 136. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. *b* = unstandardized regression coefficients; *SE* = standard error; *LL* = lower limit; *CI* = confidence interval; *UL* = upper limit.

**Figure 3.** Interaction between volition and implicit-explicit motive discrepancy for predicting intrinsic motivation.

confidence intervals. The analysis (see Figure 4) demonstrated a non-significant direct effect of IED on job burnout, $c = -0.06$, $SE = 0.11$, and 95% $CI [-0.27, 0.16]$. After controlling for intrinsic motivation as a mediator, the remaining direct effect of IED on job burnout was not significant either, $c' = 0.05$, $SE = 0.10$, and 95% $CI [-0.15, 0.25]$. However, a significant indirect effect of IED on job satisfaction mediated by intrinsic motivation was identified, $ab = -0.11$, $SE = 0.04$, and 95% $CI [-0.20, -0.03]$. Accordingly, we found that the effect of IED on job satisfaction was mediated by intrinsic motivation.

Moderated Mediation Analysis with Job Satisfaction as DV (Pre-Registered, Confirmatory)

In order to examine if the indirect effect of IED on job satisfaction through intrinsic motivation is conditional upon volition, we conducted a moderated mediation analysis.

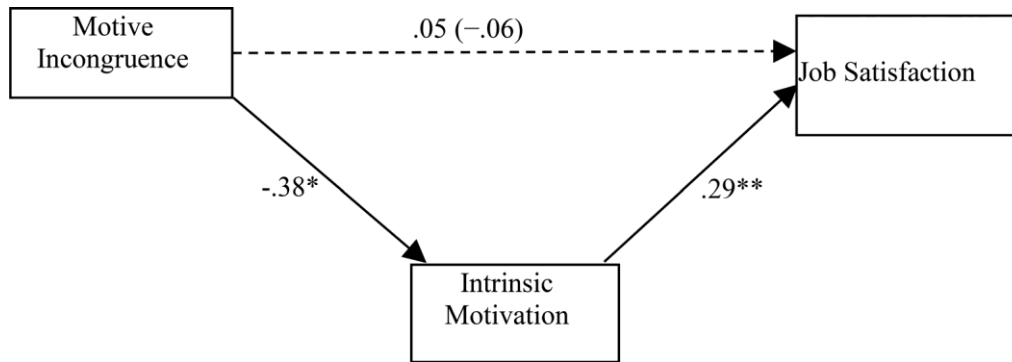


Figure 4. Mediation model for the influence of the composite measure of motive incongruence (independent variable) on job satisfaction (dependent variable) through intrinsic motivation (mediator). The value in brackets represents the direct effect of motive incongruence on job satisfaction without controlling for intrinsic motivation. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

As before, we regressed intrinsic motivation on IED, volition, and the interaction between IED and volition. In a second step, we regressed job satisfaction on IED, volition, intrinsic motivation, and the interaction between IED and volition.

The results of the first step are the same as the results of the first step of moderated mediation. The results in the second step showed that intrinsic motivation significantly predicted job satisfaction ($b = 0.26$), $t(136) = 4.04$, $p < .001$. However, IED, volition and the interaction term between IED and volition did not significantly predict job burnout ($b = 0.05$), $t(136) = 0.48$, $p > .05$, ($b = 0.16$), $t(136) = 1.03$, $p > .05$ and ($b = 0.04$), $t(136) = 0.17$, $p > .05$ respectively.

Using the same procedure as in the first moderated mediation analysis, we examined the conditional direct effect of IED on job satisfaction and indirect effect of IED on job satisfaction (through intrinsic motivation) at two values of volition. Contrary to expectations, the direct effect of IED on job satisfaction was not conditional upon the levels of volition. Specifically, the direct effect of IED on job satisfaction was non-significant at the both low levels of volition (CI ranging from -0.26 to 0.33 and crossing zero) and at the high levels of volition (CI ranging from -0.19 to 0.32 and crossing zero). However, the indirect effect of IED on job satisfaction *via* intrinsic motivation was conditional upon the levels of volition. The indirect effect was significant at the low levels of volition (CI ranging from -0.26 to -0.03 and not crossing zero) but non-significant at high levels of volition (CI ranging from -0.16 to 0.05 and crossing zero). For a detailed analysis, see Table 3.

Discussion

The present work investigated the degree to which IED in motives predict job burnout as an important replication (Rawolle et al., 2016), as well as job satisfaction, as a novel contribution, through self-reported trait intrinsic motivation. Additionally, we investigated the role of volition in these relationships. Our findings revealed that IED negatively predicts intrinsic motivation. We also found indirect effects of IED on job burnout and job satisfaction (through intrinsic motivation), which was dependent upon

the levels of volition. Specifically, we found a positive [negative] indirect of IED on job burnout [job satisfaction] through intrinsic motivation at low levels of volition. In line with expectations, these effects were not significant at high levels of volition.

On the basis of a larger sample size and a stronger analysis method, our study confirmed the results from Rawolle et al. (2016), who found an indirect effect of motive incongruencies on job burnout, mediated by intrinsic motivation. Moreover, we further developed and enhanced the study of Rawolle et al. (2016) by adding volition and job satisfaction variables (our novel contribution). Although volition and the interaction term between IED and volition did not significantly predict intrinsic motivation or job burnout, in further analysis, however, we found that intrinsic motivation and volition predicted job burnout. These findings were also confirmed after controlling for possible mediating effects of IED. Furthermore, we found that intrinsic motivation mediate the possible effects of IED on job satisfaction, which extends the findings of Rawolle et al. (2016). Thus, similar to their findings on job burnout - in our research - intrinsic motivation did also predict job satisfaction. Our moderated mediation analysis revealed that this mediation was dependent upon volition.

In his compensatory model of motivation and volition, Kehr (2004b) reported that people will benefit from intrinsic motivation only when their behavior is congruent with their implicit motives and when there is alignment between individuals' implicit and explicit motives. He further made the case that when an incongruence between individuals' implicit and explicit motives arises, intrinsic motivation hinders. Therefore, since intrinsic motivation can predict important variables, such as job burnout and job satisfaction, it is of imperative importance to pay attention to possible incongruencies in individuals' motives, as possible hindrances of these positive effects of intrinsic motives. As reported by Rawolle et al. (2016), possible "interventions include systematic assessment and feedback on implicit motives, goal imagery, or the enhancement of volitional strength (p. 68)", which in turn would diminish the negative effects of IED on job-related outcomes, such as burnout and satisfaction.

Our research findings contribute to the systematic work on job burnout and job satisfaction in various ways. First, by replicating the study of Rawolle et al. (2016), we further establish the importance of IED for job burnout. Aligning with previous research reporting on the importance of personal factors for the alleviation of job burnout, such as emotional exhaustion (Bowers et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2012) or depersonalization (Rupert & Kent, 2007), our work provides additional data in this line of research, by investigating the importance of the motive incongruencies for job burnout. Second, we extend the research of Rawolle et al. (2016) by looking at the role of IED for another significant work-related variable, namely job satisfaction. Our results revealed that IED can effect job satisfaction as well. This finding is yet another factor to account whenever looking at the importance of motives (cf. Kehr, 2004b), especially the possible discrepancies in any form or level of experiences, for workplaces. Third, our research adds up to the implications that motivational factors, such as intrinsic motivation and volition, yield for IED and their effects on job burnout and job satisfaction. Research on implicit and explicit motives stipulates that discrepancies between these motives can yield conflicting behavioral shifts, which would require the activation of the regulative mechanisms for their adjustment and control (Brunstein et al., 1999). One of these mechanisms has reported to be volition (Kehr, 2004b).

Similarly, intrinsic motivation is another important mechanism, which can facilitate one's work by mediating the possible negative effects of the discrepancies in employees' motives.

Our research on IED also raises the question about the degree to which explicit and implicit motives can be changed to make the two aligned because alignment of the two is assumed to positively affect emotional health (e.g. Pueschel et al., 2011). Researchers have recently found traits could be malleable through intervention (e.g. Roberts et al., 2017). Given that researchers commonly refer explicit motives as explicit traits and study them in the same category, even though yet to be studied, we have reason to believe that explicit motives could also be malleable. Accordingly, practitioners may prompt individuals to change explicit motives into the direction of implicit motive strengths, in order to foster motivational self-congruency. There is also accumulating evidence suggesting that implicit motives can adapt to life circumstances and could be changed through interventions (Denzinger & Brandstätter, 2018) similar to trait personality variables. As such, individuals might also be able to change their implicit motives, that is, when they can barely bring in line their goals with their implicit motives. However, changing implicit motives may be a more extensive, accommodative, and long-term endeavor that requires specific contextual conditions (Denzinger & Brandstätter, 2018).

We also note some limitations of our research. Although we advance on sample size (limitation acknowledged by Rawolle et al. (2016) in their research), we further recognize the limitations that our correlation-based results, as well as survey-retrieved data, might yield for our findings. However, by employing robust data analysis approaches, we believe that these limitations have been mitigated to a great extent. In the lights of new experimental research (Roch et al., 2017), future studies could experimentally establish implicit-explicit motive incongruence and investigate if our findings hold in experimental designs as well. Furthermore, as raised by an anonymous reviewer, cross-sectional mediation models typically carry concerns for common method bias. Although we minimized these concerns by employing measures with clear and concise items, and by running *Harman's single factor test* on our data (Tehseen et al., 2017), which showed that one factor does not explain the data well, future studies should employ more robust methods to address this issue. For example, researchers could measure predictors (implicit motives, explicit motives and moderator), mediator and dependent variables at different time points (Tehseen et al., 2017). Nevertheless, our research adds to the systematic work on motivation, by looking at the implications that motive incongruencies and intrinsic motivation might yield for two important job outcomes, namely job burnout and job satisfaction. For example, one important practical implication is the mediating effect of intrinsic motivation for both job burnout and job satisfaction, in relation to IED. These findings contribute to previous research revealing the need for organizations to look over the development of motivation and motivational factors that influence job satisfaction and job performance (e.g. Hancer & George, 2003).

In conclusion, the present research supports a role for IED of motives in job burnout and, inversely, job satisfaction, which seems to be mediated by intrinsic motivation. Effects of IED of motives is diminished if individuals show high trait levels of volition.

The present research strongly suggests that the investigation of job burnout determinants should take into consideration the complex interplay of implicit and explicit motives, intrinsic motivation, as well as trait levels of volition.

Notes


1. Please see Methods section for more clarifications of these methods for measuring implicit motives.
2. In a polynomial regression analysis, the outcome variable is predicted by centered predictors, their interactions and their squared values. To put it in a more mathematical notation, the general form of a polynomial regression follows as: $Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + e$. Z is the outcome variable (intrinsic motivation in our case), X and Y are centered predictor variables (implicit and explicit motives in our case respectively) and e is the error term. For the coefficients, b_0 is the intercept and b_1 through b_5 are the estimated coefficients. Using these estimated coefficients, four additional surface test parameters are estimated, which are: $a_1 (b_1 + b_2)$ is the slope of line of congruence between the predictors (implicit and explicit motives). This line of congruence indicates a perfect agreement, where individuals' predictor values perfectly match. When this parameter is significant, it indicates the outcome variable increases as the two predictor increase. $a_2 (b_3 + b_4 + b_5)$ demonstrates if there is a curvature along the line of agreement. If significant, it indicates a difference in the congruence effect at different levels of line of congruence. That is, there is a difference between the average values of congruence and high and low levels of congruence. $a_3 (b_1 - b_2)$ represents the slope along the line of incongruence. This parameter has been used as a test for directional hypothesis (e.g., Kazén & Kuhl, 2011). For example in our case, it might test the hypothesis that in the cases that there is a incongruence between implicit and explicit motives, the higher values of implicit motives as compared to explicit motives, the higher the intrinsic motivation. $a_4 (b_3 - b_4 + b_5)$ is the most important parameter for testing the congruence (incongruence) hypothesis. It tests the curvature along the line of incongruence and test the hypothesis if an increase in incongruence (between implicit and explicit motives) has any effects on outcome variable (intrinsic motivation). However, Edwards and Cable (2009) warns that one should not readily talk of an incongruence when a_4 parameter is significant, but only when at least three criteria are met: 1) if a surface is curved downward along the incongruence line, then the a_4 parameter should be negative. 2) If the ridge of the surface runs along the congruence line, then the first principal axis of the surface should have a slope of 1 and an intercept of 0. 3) If a surface is flat along the congruence line, then the quantities a_1 and a_2 should both equal 0. They further mentions these conditions does not have to hold all the times and one can be at failure if he/she concludes, if these conditions do not hold, the nonexistence of congruence hypothesis. In our analyses we followed these recommendations and we conducted these analyses using RSA package (Schönbrodt, 2016) in R.

Data Availability Statement

The data materials that support the findings of this study are openly available at https://osf.io/b6y8u/?view_only=bd8815c25b6e4db6a79c277596ecc354.

Ethical Approval

All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964

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Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. **Informed consent:** Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the studies.

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6 General Discussion

This dissertation was brought forward by the dearth of research on motives in industrial and organizational psychology, as well as recent calls to reinvigorate individual differences in negotiation research (Elfenbein, 2015; Elfenbein, 2020; Sharma et al., 2013). Therefore, in this dissertation, I further explored the personality antecedents of work-related outcomes. Specifically, through the lenses of lexical (i.e., Big Five) and motivational (i.e., motives) approaches to personality, I examined a set of work-related outcomes, such as negotiation initiation, negotiation performance, intrinsic work motivation, job burnout, and job satisfaction. Based on this, this dissertation had three main goals: 1) to separate explicit motives and the Big Five by examining the incremental value of explicit motives in predicting negotiation initiation beyond implicit motives and the Big Five, 2) to contribute to the idea that implicit and explicit motives predict different classes of behaviors by examining implicit and explicit motives as predictors of respondent and operant measures of negotiation performance, and 3) to test whether personality misalignment in terms of motives leads to negative consequences for individuals by replicating and extending the findings of Rawolle et al. (2016) while using a more robust methodology.

For the remainder of this chapter, I will first summarize the findings and insights from the three articles presented in this dissertation. Next, I will place the findings in a broader context and present the theoretical and practical implications of the findings. Then, I will discuss the general limitations of the articles in this dissertation and present directions for future research. Finally, I conclude the dissertation by summarizing the implications for industrial and organizational psychology.

6.1 An Overview of Key Findings and Insights

In the first article of this dissertation, we sought to examine personality from lexical (i.e., Big Five) and motivational (i.e., motives) approaches as predictors of negotiation initiation. We aimed to conceptually distinguish between the Big Five and explicit motives, as the two have sometimes been examined interchangeably (Lang et al., 2012). In addition, we wanted to examine the personality antecedents of negotiation initiation. We expected that explicit motives would explain additional variance in negotiation initiation beyond implicit motives and the Big Five, and that explicit achievement and power motives would be positively associated with negotiation initiation, whereas affiliation motives would be negatively associated. In the two studies ($N = 101$, $N = 359$), the results showed an incremental validity of explicit motives beyond implicit motives and the Big Five in explaining negotiation initiation. Furthermore, in both studies, the explicit power motive was found to be positively associated with negotiation initiation. However, the findings for explicit achievement and affiliation motives were not stable. Overall, these findings support the notion that explicit motives and the Big Five are separate personality variables and may have additive and/or differential effects on behavior.

The second article of this dissertation built on the findings of the first article and aimed to strengthen the idea that implicit and explicit motives predict different behaviors. The measures of negotiation initiation used in the first article match typical respondent behaviors. Thus, based on theoretical considerations (McClelland, 1987; McClelland et al., 1989) and empirical findings (Brunstein & Maier, 2005; Spangler, 1992), it is not surprising that explicit motives, but not implicit motives, predicted negotiation initiation. In this article, by measuring negotiation performance through self-report measures and concessions during a negotiation task, we aimed to strengthen the findings of the first article, to explain the differences between implicit and explicit

motives in terms of the behavior they predict, and to demonstrate the additive effects of implicit motives on negotiation performance along with the Big Five. In two studies, we found that implicit motives predicted additional variance in objective negotiation performance, as measured by points conceded over six rounds of a negotiation task, over and above explicit motives and the Big Five. However, these effects were not replicated in the first study included in this article, where negotiation performance was measured by a self-report measure. In addition, implicit achievement motives consistently predicted objective negotiation performance, but not self-reported negotiation performance. Explicit achievement motives were also a stable predictor of both objective and self-report measures of negotiation performance. Results were inconsistent for implicit and explicit power and affiliation motives. These findings establish implicit and explicit motives as important personality variables in predicting negotiation performance beyond the Big Five. Moreover, the findings support the idea that implicit and explicit motives predict operant and respondent behaviors, respectively.

After establishing motives as an important personality taxonomy along with the Big Five for predicting work-related outcomes such as negotiation initiation and performance, the third article set out to disentangle how the combinations of implicit and their corresponding explicit motives are related to intrinsic motivation, job burnout, and job satisfaction. That is, in an attempt to replicate and extend the previous findings (Rawolle et al., 2016) with a more robust analytic approach and a larger sample, we examined whether the negative effects of implicit-explicit motive incongruence on job burnout and job satisfaction are mediated by intrinsic work motivation and volition plays a compensatory role for these negative effects. Overall, intrinsic work motivation was found to mediate the negative [positive] relationship between motive incongruence and job satisfaction [job burnout]. In addition, volition was found to moderate the negative

relationship between motive incongruence and intrinsic work motivation. These findings support the notion of detrimental effects of motive incongruence and provide prescriptions to alleviate these negative effects.

6.1.1 The Incremental Validity of Motives beyond the Big Five

The results of Article 1 and 2 showed that implicit and explicit motives have incremental validity in negotiation initiation and performance in addition to the Big Five. These findings are consistent with the proposition that lexical, and motivational approaches to personality are distinct and may have additive and/or interactive effects when predicting behavior (Winter et al., 1998). In negotiation initiation and performance, the Big Five has been the dominant individual difference taxonomy in terms of personality (Kong et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2013). By demonstrating the incremental validity of implicit and explicit motives in predicting negotiation initiation and performance beyond the Big Five, we complement the previous literature and advance the conclusions of the literature on personality correlates of work-related outcomes. Because motives explain why individuals behave in certain ways and do certain things, and the Big Five explains how individuals tend to think, feel, and behave, this dissertation showed that an individual difference in work-related outcomes that includes the both will yield better conclusions and stimulate more ground for further research.

6.1.2 The Differential Effects of the *Big Three* on Negotiation Initiation and Performance

One of the central hypotheses of the studies included in this dissertation was that achievement and power motives would be positively associated and affiliation motives would be negatively associated with negotiation initiation and performance. The general idea was based on

the motive theorizing of McClelland (1987, 1985). McClelland (1987) explains that environmental cues signaling the availability of motive-specific cues generate a series of motivated behaviors that result in a state that energizes, selects, and orients individuals toward achieving desired goals. Achieving the goals, in turn, leads to a pleasurable affect and reinforces the behavior. McClelland (1987) further theorizes that environments and tasks that signal the availability of incentives arouses and satisfies individuals' motives. Based on this, one might expect positive emotions and satisfaction from engaging in behaviors and activities that promote incentives to satisfy individuals' motives. Individuals may learn these environmental cues in childhood (Brunstein et al., 1998; McClelland, 1987) and thus may have different motive strengths. Because individuals differ in their specific motivational strength, they may not derive the same amount of pleasure and satisfaction from achieving different types of incentives. For example, overcoming challenges may not be equally motivating for individuals with high implicit affiliation and achievement motives.

However, because the measures of choice for negotiation initiation in Article 1 were typical measures of respondent behavior, we expected these relationships for explicit motives but not for implicit motives. In Article 1, we found that the explicit power motive was significantly associated with negotiation initiation. Thus, it could be argued that negotiation initiation scenarios signal the availability of opportunities to exert control over others for individuals high in explicit power motive. Indeed, negotiation initiation situations are strongly related to power (Small et al., 2007). However, these situations do not provide incentives for achievement- or affiliation- motivated individuals. This is consistent with research showing that women in general have higher affiliation motives (Denzinger et al., 2016), engage in more affiliative activities (Wong & Csikszentmihalyi, 1991), and are more intimidated by situations framed as negotiation opportunities because some

women may feel threatened by such situations (Small et al., 2007). Based on this, it could be said that situations that present individuals with opportunities to negotiate are a disincentive for those with a high affiliation motive, thus preventing them from engaging in behaviors and initiating negotiations. In addition, it has been shown that in situations that offer achievement incentives, there is a positive relationship between performance and achievement motives. However, this relationship is absent or even reversed in situations that do not offer a specific performance incentive (McClelland, 1985; McClelland, 1987; McClelland et al., 1989). Thus, it is likely that the negotiation initiation situations used in the first article do not provide sufficient achievement incentives for individuals with high achievement motives to engage in behaviors.

Along the same lines, Study 1 in the second article included a measure of respondent behavior of negotiation performance, and thus we expected that explicit motives but not implicit motives would predict negotiation performance. Specifically, we expected explicit achievement and power motives to be positively related and affiliation motives to be negatively related to the self-report measure of negotiation performance. The results for achievement motives were consistent with these expectations. Since the measure we used of negotiation performance includes items such as “I explore all alternatives to reach outcomes acceptable to all parties”, which reflect achievement situations, the results are not surprising. That is, such items signal the availability of achievement incentives, and thus there is a positive relationship between explicit achievement motives and negotiation performance. Unexpectedly, explicit affiliation motive was positively related to self-reported negotiation performance. However, these results are consistent with findings from negotiation research that show that women tend to have higher negotiation performance than men in socially relevant negotiation scenarios, such as reciprocal living (Reif et al., 2019), and that in more harmonious cultures, women are more likely to outperform men (Shan

et al., 2019). That is, when the negotiation topic or situation is about social issues rather than typically masculine situations such as salary, it is likely that individuals with a high affiliation motive will have a better negotiation performance. In fact, the item of the negotiation performance measure (i.e., “I explore all alternatives to reach outcomes acceptable to all parties”) could also be interpreted from a harmony perspective. That is, individuals try to negotiate an issue to make it acceptable to all parties involved, which may provide opportunities for individuals with a high affiliation motive to receive recognition from others and to be closer to others.

Objective negotiation performance could be considered an operant behavior, and thus we expected that implicit motives, but not explicit motives, would be significant predictors of it. Specifically, similar to the self-report measure of negotiation performance, we expected a positive relationship of objective negotiation performance with implicit achievement and power motives and a negative relationship with implicit affiliation motives. In both Study 2 and Study 3 in Article 2, we found a positive relationship between achievement motives and negotiation performance. These findings are consistent with the idea that individuals with high achievement motives engage in behaviors that provide opportunities for them to increase their performance and that they like medium-difficulty tasks (McClelland et al., 1989). There is good reason to argue that by negotiating a negotiation task to the end, individuals can improve their situations, and thus such situations provide incentives for such individuals. However, we did not find consistent relationships between negotiation performance and implicit power and affiliation motives. For individuals with high affiliation motives, negotiation situations may signal the possibility of conflict escalation (Dorado et al., 2002), which acts as a disincentive and thus discourages them from engaging in negotiation behaviors. Since the negotiation task was a computer-mediated task and thus individuals did not interact with others, individuals with a high power motive did not

perceive these situations as fruitful for having control over others and thus did not negotiate a task to the end. However, this is an assumption that should be tested in future studies. Researchers could compare whether there are differences in the relationship between negotiation performance and power motive in face-to-face negotiation tasks and computer-mediated negotiation tasks.

The studies included in these two articles not only show that implicit and explicit achievement, affiliation, and power motives are differentially related to negotiation initiation and performance because they provide different incentives for individuals with high levels of each motive, but also that implicit and explicit motives predict different classes of behavior. Consistent with previous theoretical and empirical findings (Brunstein & Maier, 2005; McClelland, 1987; McClelland et al., 1989; Runge et al., 2020), we find that explicit motives correlate with respondent behavior and implicit motives correlate with operant behavior. Thus, we extend the literature by including negotiation outcomes.

6.1.3 The Negative Effects of Motive Incongruence

In addition to demonstrating that motives are important personality variables to be studied as correlates of work-related outcomes and that implicit and explicit motives predict different classes of behaviors, this dissertation set out to demonstrate the negative effects of implicit-explicit motive discrepancy on work-related outcomes. Specifically, we examined whether motive incongruence is positively and negatively associated with job burnout and job satisfaction and whether these relationships are mediated by intrinsic work motivation. We also tested the idea that volition plays a compensatory role and moderates these negative effects of motive incongruence. Our results supported these expectations. It seems to be the case that implicit-explicit motive discrepancy is associated with intrapersonal conflict (Kehr, 2004), which may lead to reduced well-being (Baumann et al., 2005). It even goes so far as to produce no satisfaction even when

individuals achieve their goals (Brunstein et al., 1998). As our results show, it could also lead to reduced intrinsic work motivation and increased job burnout. However, based on the compensatory model of work motivation and volition (Kehr, 2004), we also proposed that individuals need volition to resolve this intrapersonal conflict due to motive incongruence. Volition works by increasing explicit action tendencies and reducing implicit behavioral impulses. The results showed that volition may indeed be a crucial variable in eliminating the negative effects of motive incongruence on behavior. This is consistent with studies showing that trait self-control, which is needed when desires and goals are in conflict, is positively associated with subjective well-being (Nielsen et al., 2019) and academic performance (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005). That is, when individuals inhibit their implicit behavioral impulses in favor of their explicit action tendencies, they become more goal-directed and thus more successful.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The findings from this dissertation have several theoretical implications. From a theoretical perspective, the findings point to the importance of motivational perspectives on personality along with the Big Five. In fact, the results showed that both explicit and implicit motives have incremental validity beyond the Big Five in negotiation outcomes. Thus, explicit motives should not be used interchangeably with other trait measures of personality and should be used in other areas of IO psychology. Furthermore, the findings and claims that implicit and explicit motives are correlates of different classes of behaviors (Lang et al., 2012; McClelland et al., 1989) have been extended to negotiation outcomes. Next, the implicit motives related findings reflect the importance of using implicit personality measures at work. Previous literature has mainly focused on the explicit measures of personality but failed to entertain the importance of implicit measures

of personality (Winter et al., 1998). As implicit motive measures are nonreactive, individuals may not control their answers provided on these measures and thus, the results from these might be less subject to social desirability. Additionally, our results extended the previous findings (Rawolle et al., 2016) and showed that individuals experience intrapersonal conflict when their implicit and explicit motive systems are not congruent, leading to decreased intrinsic work motivation and job satisfaction and increased job burnout. However, it might be of both theoretical and practical importance to demonstrate if the incongruence both ways (i.e., high implicit motives and low explicit motives or low implicit motives and high explicit motives) have these negative effects on work-related outcomes. The results from this dissertation are only one step towards decoupling the effects of complex incongruence patterns between implicit and explicit motives on work-related outcomes. Finally, the results of this dissertation also open the way for research on how to address this intrapersonal conflict (i.e. implicit-explicit motive incongruence), and suggest that volitional self-regulation may be an important variable.

6.3 Practical Implications

From a practical perspective, managers could assign tasks according to employees' implicit and explicit motives. For example, employees with high explicit power motives could be sent to work situations where they are expected to negotiate with other parties. However, there is the problem of measurability of (especially) implicit motives. That is, it may be difficult for companies to measure employees' implicit motives because it is time and resource consuming. However, the newly developed test, namely the MSCT (Runge & Lang, 2019), could be a solution for this, for which the first two studies included in this dissertation serve as a validation. Another practical implication of these findings come from person-environment fit literature (e.g., Edwards et al., 1998). Personnel selection practices should also consider the fit between an individual's motives

and the requirements of the job positions to be filled. From a cost and performance perspective, it might be important for companies to hire individuals with “appropriate” motives that match the requirements of the job. It is also possible that companies design their work environments in line with employees’ motives especially if these companies want to retain the talents they have at their companies. Retaining talents is particularly important in the times when there is a shortage of skilled workers in developed countries like Germany (Kaufmann, 2023). A further implication of our findings lies in volitional self-regulation. Since incongruence between implicit and explicit motives can lead to serious problems for organizations and society at large, possible variables that reduce the negative effects of motive incongruence or that create motive congruence should be investigated and promoted. This study identified one such variable, volitional self-regulation. Organizations could develop trainings that boost individuals’ volitional self-regulation to make them resourceful when dealing with the negative effects of motive incongruence. Another such variable comes from studies of mindfulness. Mindfulness has been shown to help individuals set goals in line with their implicit motivational systems (Strick & Papies, 2017). This may be an important endeavor, as mindfulness is associated with emotional self-access. Thus, individuals with motive incongruence could engage in mindfulness practices and thereby increase their implicit and explicit motive congruence.

6.4 Limitations and Future Studies

Although the results of this dissertation enhance our understanding of the personality antecedents of negotiation outcomes, it also has several limitations. The first limitation of this dissertation lies in the cross-sectional nature of the studies. Because personality is assumed to precede negotiation outcomes, a causal relationship from personality to negotiation outcomes is implied. However, without appropriate designs, it is not possible to make causal claims from

observational data (Foster, 2010). Future studies could use designs such as directed acyclic graphs (Antonakis et al., 2010; Pearl, 2009) to model causal links from personality to negotiation outcomes, even when the data are observational. Another limitation of the first two articles was the assumption of expectations. That is, based on motivational theories, it was assumed that the underlying mechanism that motivates people to engage in negotiation outcomes is the incentive in such tasks. However, by specifically testing this mechanism, one cannot make strong claims about the results, even though they are driven by the theory. Thus, future studies will specifically manipulate the incentives involved in such negotiation tasks and observe whether these manipulations play a role in the relationship between motives and negotiation outcomes.

7 Conclusion

This dissertation aimed to examine the incremental validity of motives in negotiation outcomes alongside the Big Five and the negative effects of motive incongruence on work-related outcomes such as intrinsic work motivation, job burnout, and job satisfaction. Despite being developed at the same time and place, the Big Five has been the preferred personality taxonomy for negotiation outcomes (Kang et al., 2015; Kong et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2013) and work-related outcomes in general (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Young et al., 2018; Wilmot & Ones, 2019). Although studies establishing motives as antecedents of work-related outcomes are accumulating (e.g., Runge et al., 2020), they are nowhere near the number of studies on the Big Five. Thus, this dissertation set out to focus IO researchers' attention on motives. Specifically, in two articles, I examined 1) whether explicit and implicit motives predict negotiation initiation and performance beyond the Big Five, and 2) whether implicit and explicit motives are related to operant and respondent negotiation behavior, respectively. In the third article, I aimed to replicate and extend Rawolle et al.'s (2016) findings showing that intrinsic work motivation mediates the positive relationship between implicit-explicit motive discrepancy and job burnout by using a larger sample and a more robust analytic strategy.

The results were mostly in line with our expectations. In article 1, explicit motives explained a significant amount of variance in negotiation initiation beyond implicit motives and the Big Five, and the explicit power motive was positively associated with negotiation initiation. However, explicit achievement and affiliation motives did not yield robust and stable relationships with negotiation initiation. In article 2, implicit motives had incremental validity for predicting objective measures of negotiation performance beyond explicit motives and the Big Five. However, these results were not present in the self-report measure of negotiation performance.

Furthermore, implicit and explicit achievement motives showed the most stable associations with negotiation performance. The results of these two articles also show that implicit and explicit motives predict operant and respondent negotiation behavior, extending the findings of the literature (Brunstein & Maier, 2005). Article 3 replicated the finding that implicit-explicit motive incongruence is related to job burnout through intrinsic work motivation. This indirect relationship was also significant when job satisfaction was used as the outcome variable. To search for possible variables that might moderate the negative effects of motive incongruence on subsequent behaviors, volitional self-regulation was used. Results indicated that when volition was added as a moderator, the relationship between motive incongruence and intrinsic work motivation was no longer significant.

In light of these findings, researchers should consider motivational perspectives on personality when examining correlates of work-related outcomes. However, they should pay careful attention to the behaviors they are interested in predicting, as the correlates of implicit and explicit motives differ. In addition, implicit-explicit motive incongruence appears to have detrimental effects on individuals, and researchers could examine other variables, such as volitional self-regulation, that may be helpful in mitigating these negative effects. This dissertation is a step toward demonstrating the importance of motives in predicting negotiation outcomes beyond the Big Five and that motive incongruence does indeed bring about negative work outcomes.

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Appendix A

Channeling Hypothesis

A widely held idea in implicit motive research is that trait personality variables and implicit motives interact to predict subsequent behaviors. The general theorizing behind this idea is that trait personality variables like extraversion enable (or channel) implicit motives to exert influence on outcome variables like negotiation performance (Lang et al., 2012; Runge et al., 2020; Winter et al., 1998). Following this, we also exploratively tested if the relationships between negotiation performance and implicit affiliation and power motives are moderated by extraversion. We relied on extraversion as a moderator because it is related to interpersonal relationships and has been previously theorized and tested to be associated with implicit social motives such as power and affiliation (Runge et al., 2020; Winter et al., 1998). We tested the channeling hypothesis in study 1 and 3 as we measured extraversion in these studies only. The results demonstrated that the interaction between and extraversion and implicit affiliation motive (Study 1: $\beta = 0.06$, $t = 1.04$ and Study 2: $\beta = 0.02$, $t = 0.73$) and extraversion and implicit power motive (Study 1: $\beta = 0.10$, $t = 1.82$ and Study 2: $\beta = 0.05$, $t = 1.61$) were not significant. One possible reason for this could be that extraversion was measured with a two item measure, which may fall short in capturing dimensions of extraversion. For further details, see Table A1 and A3 in Appendix A.

Table A1*Study 1: Regression Analyses Predicting Negotiation Performance with Big Five, Explicit Motives and Implicit Motives*

Predictor	<i>Model 1</i>					<i>Model 2</i>					<i>Model 3</i>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	1.67	[1.25, 2.09]		7.80	0.00	1.50	[0.98, 2.02]		5.66	0.00	2.20	[1.67, 2.74]		8.16	0.00
Extraversion	0.19	[0.10, 0.27]	0.27	4.37	0.00	0.18	[0.09, 0.26]	0.26	4.10	0.00	0.19	[0.10, 0.27]	0.27	4.24	0.00
Neuroticism	-0.05	[-0.12, 0.02]	-0.08	-1.40	0.16	-0.05	[-0.11, 0.02]	-0.08	-1.31	0.19	-0.05	[-0.12, 0.02]	-0.08	-1.42	0.16
Openness to experience	-0.01	[-0.11, 0.09]	-0.01	-0.14	0.89	0.00	[-0.10, 0.10]	0.00	0.01	0.99	-0.01	[-0.10, 0.09]	-0.01	-0.10	0.92
Conscientiousness	0.06	[-0.02, 0.14]	0.09	1.48	0.14	0.07	[-0.02, 0.15]	0.09	1.57	0.12	0.06	[-0.02, 0.14]	0.08	1.40	0.16
Agreeableness	-0.02	[-0.11, 0.06]	-0.03	-0.58	0.57	-0.02	[-0.11, 0.06]	-0.03	-0.51	0.61	-0.02	[-0.10, 0.07]	-0.02	-0.37	0.71
Ex. achievement motive	0.26	[0.16, 0.35]	0.36	5.18	0.00	0.24	[0.14, 0.34]	0.34	4.70	0.00	0.25	[0.15, 0.35]	0.35	4.88	0.00
Ex. affiliation motive	0.15	[0.03, 0.26]	0.21	2.49	0.01	0.15	[0.04, 0.27]	0.22	2.59	0.01	0.16	[0.04, 0.27]	0.23	2.68	0.01
Ex. power motive	-0.03	[-0.13, 0.07]	-0.05	-0.56	0.58	-0.03	[-0.13, 0.08]	-0.04	-0.49	0.62	-0.03	[-0.13, 0.08]	-0.04	-0.49	0.62
Im. achievement motive						0.02	[-0.02, 0.06]	0.05	0.93	0.36	0.02	[-0.02, 0.07]	0.05	0.96	0.34
Im. affiliation motive						-0.01	[-0.06, 0.04]	-0.02	-0.34	0.73	-0.00	[-0.05, 0.04]	-0.01	-0.12	0.91
Im. power motive						0.02	[-0.01, 0.06]	0.08	1.38	0.17	0.03	[-0.01, 0.06]	0.09	1.52	0.13
Im. aff. X Extraversion											0.03	[-0.03, 0.08]	0.06	1.04	0.30
Im. pow. X Extraversion											0.03	[-0.00, 0.07]	0.10	1.82	0.07
<i>F(df)</i>		22.07(8, 232)**					16.33(11, 229)**					14.17(13, 227)**			
<i>R</i> ²		.43					.44					.45			
ΔF							1.00					1.72			
ΔR ²							.01					.01			

Note. $N = 241$. df = degrees of freedom. b represents unstandardized regression weights. β indicates the standardized regression weights. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively. p indicates exact p -value. Ex. = Explicit, Im. = Implicit, aff. = affiliation motive, pow. = power motive.

* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table A2

Study 2: Regression Analyses Predicting Negotiation Performance with Big Five, Explicit Motives and Implicit Motives

Predictor	<i>Model 1</i>					<i>Model 2</i>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	2907.27	[2175.22, 3639.32]		7.88	0.00	2723.18	[1826.30, 3620.05]		6.03	0.00
Finalized (yes = 0)	-2272.23	[-2638.44, -1906.03]	-0.76	-12.31	0.00	-2322.41	[-2680.21, -1964.60]	-0.78	-12.89	0.00
Neuroticism	-49.42	[-177.11, 78.27]	-0.05	-0.77	0.44	-46.65	[-171.65, 78.35]	-0.05	-0.74	0.46
Ex. achievement motive	-41.56	[-91.03, 7.91]	-0.11	-1.67	0.10	-62.34	[-112.38, -12.30]	-0.17	-2.47	0.02
Ex. affiliation motive	15.20	[-25.28, 55.69]	0.05	0.75	0.46	15.55	[-27.05, 58.14]	0.05	0.72	0.47
Ex. power motive	40.66	[-12.68, 94.01]	0.11	1.51	0.13	43.85	[-9.56, 97.26]	0.12	1.63	0.11
Im. achievement motive						109.25	[9.90, 208.61]	0.15	2.18	0.03
Im. affiliation motive						-87.92	[-201.11, 25.28]	-0.10	-1.54	0.13
Im. power motive						39.25	[-29.57, 108.08]	0.07	1.13	0.26
<i>F</i> (<i>dfs</i>)		35.65(5, 98)**					24.77(8, 95)**			
<i>R</i> ²		.65					.68			
ΔF							3.00*			
ΔR^2							.03			

Note. $N = 104$. *df* = degrees of freedom. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. β indicates the standardized regression weights.

LL and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively. *p* indicates exact *p-value*. Ex. = Explicit, Im. = Implicit.

* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table A3*Study 3: Regression Analyses Predicting Negotiation Performance with Big Five, Explicit Motives and Implicit Motives*

Predictor	<i>Model 1</i>					<i>Model 2</i>					<i>Model 3</i>				
	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b</i> 95% CI [LL, UL]	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	2424.86	[1607.38, 3242.33]		5.85	0.00	1767.20	[817.94, 2716.46]		3.67	0.00	1761.23	[973.77, 2548.70]		4.41	0.00
Finalized (yes = 0)	-2484.97	[-2673.13, -2296.80]	-0.89	-26.05	0.00	-2485.90	[-2671.37, -2300.44]	-0.89	-26.45	0.00	-2498.94	[-2686.03, -2311.84]	-0.89	-26.35	0.00
Extraversion	-94.60	[-196.66, 7.47]	-0.06	-1.83	0.07	-79.24	[-180.77, 22.29]	-0.05	-1.54	0.13	-88.51	[-190.52, 13.50]	-0.05	-1.71	0.09
Neuroticism	18.87	[-78.60, 116.34]	0.01	0.38	0.70	35.53	[-61.18, 132.23]	0.02	0.72	0.47	43.43	[-53.61, 140.48]	0.03	0.88	0.38
Openness to experience	0.70	[-104.42, 105.83]	0.00	0.01	0.99	-1.63	[-105.59, 102.34]	-0.00	-0.03	0.98	4.50	[-99.60, 108.59]	0.00	0.09	0.93
Conscientiousness	141.46	[39.94, 242.98]	0.09	2.75	0.01	143.86	[43.86, 243.87]	0.09	2.84	0.01	144.05	[43.83, 244.27]	0.09	2.84	0.01
Agreeableness	-26.72	[-134.69, 81.26]	-0.02	-0.49	0.63	-30.58	[-137.39, 76.23]	-0.02	-0.56	0.57	-37.29	[-144.34, 69.76]	-0.02	-0.69	0.49
Ex. achievement motive	121.22	[0.07, 242.38]	0.07	1.97	0.05	130.45	[10.96, 249.93]	0.08	2.15	0.03	129.52	[10.21, 248.83]	0.08	2.14	0.03
Ex. affiliation motive	-63.45	[-184.95, 58.04]	-0.04	-1.03	0.30	-55.14	[-175.39, 65.11]	-0.03	-0.90	0.37	-59.88	[-181.94, 62.17]	-0.04	-0.97	0.33
Ex. power motive	-29.14	[-143.22, 84.93]	-0.02	-0.50	0.61	-24.72	[-137.80, 88.36]	-0.02	-0.43	0.67	-15.81	[-129.66, 98.05]	-0.01	-0.27	0.78
Im. achievement motive						56.71	[6.02, 107.39]	0.07	2.21	0.03	56.01	[5.32, 106.71]	0.07	2.18	0.03
Im. affiliation motive						65.91	[9.91, 121.90]	0.07	2.32	0.02	63.84	[7.87, 119.81]	0.07	2.25	0.03
Im. power motive						26.62	[-11.58, 64.81]	0.05	1.37	0.17	27.69	[-10.51, 65.89]	0.05	1.43	0.15
Im. aff. X Extraversion											30.28	[-51.95, 112.51]	0.02	0.73	0.47
Im. pow. X Extraversion											34.98	[-7.96, 77.93]	0.05	1.61	0.11
<i>F(df)</i>		128.10(9, 186)**					100.10(12, 183)**					86.30(14, 181)**			
<i>R</i> ²		.86					.87					.87			
ΔF							3.11					1.29			
ΔR ²							.01					.00			

Note. $N = 196$. df = degrees of freedom. b represents unstandardized regression weights. β indicates the standardized regression weights. LL and UL indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively. p indicates exact p -value. Ex. = Explicit, Im. = Implicit, aff. = affiliation motive, pow. = power motive.

* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.