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Master Thesis
Master of Science in Leadership and Organizational Psychology

A cross-sectional study on the interplay between motivational climate and employee mindset in a work context

- Why the Focus on Effort might be Beneficial for Organizations -

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Table of Contents

Abstract

Many organizations have a large focus on talent as being the cause for organizational success. The current study aims to show that the focus on learning, effort and development may be a greater cause for success. Drawing on Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) and the person-environment fit perspective, we propose that the leader will have an impact on the motivational climate at work and employees´ mindsets. Additionally, we wanted to test these variables´ relationships with employee achievement and the extra-role behavior taking charge. A cross-sectional study was conducted to look at the interplay between employees´ perceived motivational climate and their mindset in a work context. Using self-reported measures, the relationship between employees´ perceived motivational climate and mindset was tested. This study found a marginally positive relationship between a mastery climate and a growth mindset. No significant relationships between mastery climate and fixed mindset, performance climate and fixed mindset, or performance climate and growth mindset was found. Additionally, motivational climates´ and employee mindsets´ relationship with self-efficacy was tested. The growth mindset was found to strengthen the relationship between the mastery climate and self-efficacy. No significant relationship between performance climate or fixed mindset with self-efficacy was found. Due to lack of complying responses from employees and their direct supervisors, the hypotheses concerning relationship between motivational climates and mindsets to achievement and taking charge could not be tested. We urge future researchers to test these variables in a larger sample size, since, as this paper shows, these factors can be related to organizational performance and effectiveness.

Keywords: motivational climate, mindset, work effort and work quality, taking charge, self-efficacy

Introduction

What motivates employees´ behavior at work in order to achieve organizational goals has been a big interest in motivational research. Achievement goal theory (AGT) has been shown to explain and predict beliefs, responses, and behavior in achievement settings. Both personal and situational factors will influence the goal a person adopts (Wang, Liu, Chatzisarantis & Lim, 2010). An individual's goal perspective and the perceived motivational climate is found to be significant elements in the process of motivation (Roberts, 1992; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002). It is thus important to know what motivates employees in order to develop their competence to meet the criteria of success highlighted in their individual goals or purposes to enhance organizational performance (Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Buch, Nerstad, Aandstad & Säfvenbom, 2015). Society has long worshipped talent as the cause for success, whilst, in fact, 30 years of scientific investigation shows that when emphasizing talent, people will become vulnerable to failure, fear challenges, and be unwilling to face shortcomings (Dweck, 2007). It has been suggested that by praising employees for effort instead of ability, leaders can guide employees into pursuing learning goals instead of performance goals, which is shown to increase both learning and performance (Mueller & Dweck, 1998). In addition, taking charge has been seen as critical for organizational effectiveness (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). In order to maintain their competitive advantage, organizations are dependent on their employees to be change-oriented in how they perform their work (Vadera, Pratt & Mishra, 2013; Dysvik, Kuvaas & Buch, 2016).

Concerning the achievement goal research, achievement goals are viewed in different forms. Both Ames (1992c, 1992d) and Dweck (1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988), among others, have studied achievement motivation (Wang et al. 2010). Ames (1984b, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c) studied the motivational climate and divided this environment into mastery and performance perceptions of motivational climates (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999), where a mastery climate has a focus on learning and self-oriented performance, whilst the performance climate is other-oriented and focuses on proving own ability (Černe, Nerstad, Dysvik & Škerlavaj, 2014). The motivational climate can reinforce specific behaviors in employees that are associated with goals. Dweck (2006) views goal orientation as

an individual variable that influences a person to pursue a pattern. She started the work on mindsets by researching how individuals cope with failure. The fixed mindset looks at intelligence or ability as being a fixed trait, whilst the growth mindset looks at intelligence as something that can be developed or improved (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). The adopted mindset will have an impact on the individual's achievement strategy (Dweck, 2012). Furthermore, the motivational climate is a situational factor that is seen to influence the likelihood of an individual pursuing a particular pattern (Papaioannou, Marsh & Theodorakis, 2004). For an individual to know what to do to achieve success, the feedback and behavior of his or her leader is vital. The leader is found to be the most important person in creating a motivational climate (e.g. Ames, 1992b; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002; Buch et al., 2015). The leader can create a motivational climate that will foster learning and motivation in employees (Nerstad, Roberts & Richardsen, 2013a), and the leader can also guide employees into a fixed or a growth mindset (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). AGT assumes that achievement behavior is influenced by both motivational climate and individual goal orientations (i.e. Ames, 1992c; Maehr & Zusho, 2009; Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Buch et al., 2015). Goal orientations have an important role when it comes to the climate at work (e.g. Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002; Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien, 2007). The situation can thus alter the probability of a predisposing tendency to occur (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Earlier research has studied the motivational climate and individual goal orientations in isolation (Roberts, 2012; Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Buch et al., 2015), and several researchers call for further research on the interplay between motivational climates and goal orientations (e.g. Ames, 1992c; Lau & Nie, 2008; Newton & Duda, 1999; Roberts, 2012; Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Buch et al., 2015). The motivational climate literature has been tested in sports and education, (Ames, 1992b, 1992c; Jagacinski & Nicholls, 1984; Nerstad et al., 2013a), whilst mindsets have been tested on students and children primarily (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Hong, Chiu & Dweck, 1995; Levy, Stroessner & Dweck, 1998). There is limited research on employee mindsets and motivational climates in a work context (e.g. Dweck, 2014, p. 289, Nerstad et al., 2013a). The current study will build on the studies by Nerstad et al. (2013a), who studied motivational climates and performance in groups at work, and Buch et al. (2015), who studied motivational climates, goal orientations and performance in individual athletes.

Our study aims to explore motivational climates, employee mindsets, achievement and taking charge at the workplace.

The purpose of this study is to extend our knowledge on factors influencing employee performance. To do so, we draw on the findings on individual mindsets (Dweck, 1986) and the perceived motivational climate (Ames, 1984a-b, 1992a-d). As the environment is seen as being able to influence individual orientations, we propose that the leader can create a specific type of motivational climate and that this will impact the individuals´ mindsets (Nerstad et al., 2013a). The study by Buch et al. (2015) shows that individuals who fit with their environment will perform better. We expect that the motivational climate will be related to employees´ mindsets due to the person-environment fit perspective, which highlights that individuals will respond more positively in a climate that matches their preferences (Buch et al., 2015). The leader can use this information to manipulate the employees into a preferred mindset (Dweck, 2007) through a chosen motivational climate, to be able to increase performance (Nerstad et al., 2013a). This study intends to extend our knowledge on what motivational climate and mindset is preferable to increase individual performance (Černe et al., 2014, Dweck, 2007), and for the organization to create a competitive advantage to presume performance in many years to come, through employees´ taking charge (Vadera et al., 2013; Dysvik et al., 2016). In light of this prior research, this paper will relate motivational climates to individual mindsets, and view these in light of employee achievement and the extra-role behavior taking charge. We therefore propose the research question; *Will the leader have an impact on the motivational climate and employee mindset, and how are these variables related to employee achievement and taking charge at work?*

The intended theoretical value of this study is to contribute to the achievement motivation literature by studying the interaction between the perceived motivational climate and individual orientations, in this case mindsets, in a work context. We wish to study the interplay between motivational climate and mindset, which is highlighted as important (e.g. Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015) to understand the dynamic interplay that happens when an individual comes across situations to understand, influence and predict behavior (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Hirst, Van Knippenberg & Zhou, 2009; Lewin, 1935; Buch et al., 2015). Additionally, we aim to expand our knowledge on the person-environment fit (Newton & Duda, 1999; Buch et al., 2015) between motivational climates and

employee mindsets, because behavior can be enhanced or diminished due to the match between climate and goal orientation (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Furthermore, we intend to provide practical value through an understanding of how the leader can contribute to increase performance in employees (Dweck, 2007). Employee performance is shown to increase when there is a fit between motivational climate at work and employee mindset (Buch et al., 2015). We thus aim to expand our knowledge on how the leader can foster a specific motivational climate and employee mindset to enhance performance. In addition, taking charge will be researched in relation to motivational climates and employee mindsets to get an even better understanding of how organizations can improve their performance further, create a competitive advantage as well as increase productivity (Vadera et al., 2013; Dysvik et al., 2016). Hence, the intended practical value of this paper is to expand the knowledge on how leaders can guide employees into a specific motivational climate and mindset to influence achievement and extra effort at work, to ultimately increase organizational performance and effectiveness.

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

Motivational Climates

Motivational climates are work environments that shape individuals´ behavior in achievement settings (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Whether the climate is perceived as a performance climate or a mastery climate will have consequences as to how employees behave within an organization (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Climate perceptions are suggested to help employees to understand what behaviors are expected and rewarded (Schulte, Ostroff, Shmulyian & Kinicki, 2009; Černe et al., 2014). The motivational climate at work refers to employees' shared perceptions of the criteria for success and failure, which is emphasized through the policies, practices, and procedures of the work environment (Nerstad et al., 2013a; Černe et al., 2014). The perceived motivational climate is described in AGT as a climate that will play an important role in the motivational process that influences achievement behavior (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). AGT is concerned with an individual's disposition towards developing and demonstrating ability in achievement situations because of the

social setting or environment (Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Payne et al., 2007; Nerstad et al., 2013a). The motivational climate at work describes how employees are to be evaluated, to act towards each other and what goals are to be achieved (Ames, 1984a; Ames & Ames, 1984a, 1984b; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). The work climate will shape an individual's morals, actions and norms in achievement settings, which leads to different meanings of success and failure and different achievement strategies (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015).

A motivational climate can be categorized as a mastery climate or a performance climate. The two different climates affect the salience of specific goals and can thus result in different patterns of behavior (Ames & Archer, 1988; Buch et al., 2015). A mastery climate has been found to promote more adaptive behavior, by supporting effort and cooperation and emphasize learning, mastery and skill development (Ames, 1992b, 1992c; Nicholls, 1989; Černe et al., 2014). What is important for the employee is to learn and be better than what one has accomplished before (Ames, 1984a; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). A performance climate, in contrast, emphasizes normative criteria for success (Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Roberts, 2012; Černe et al., 2014). The performance climate defines success and failure based on employees´ performance in comparison with others (Nerstad et al., 2013a). In this type of climate, the emphasis is on normative ability, social comparison, and intra-team competition (Ames & Ames, 1984b; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Černe et al., 2014). As a consequence of this, the only individuals that are acknowledged as successful, are those who are the best achievers (Ames, 1984b; Černe et al., 2014).

The predispositional perspectives individuals have, together with the social agents, will determine how individuals view achievement (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). The motivational climate is also important concerning how employees are motivated at work (Ames, 1992b; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). It is assumed that the main architect of the motivational climate is the leader (Ames, 1992b; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002). The leader will create a motivational climate by his or her feedbacks and demands, which shows the employees what they need to do to be successful (Nerstad et al., 2013a). The studies by Nerstad et al. (2013a) show that the individual goal orientation will not determine how the situation will turn out (p. 2244). Nerstad et al. (2013a) state that the environment is more important than individual orientations, and that the climate is easier to manipulate

than the individual goal dispositions (Whitehead, Andree & Lee, 1997; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002).

Mindsets

Mindsets are people's implicit beliefs about the nature of human attributes, such as intelligence and personality. Some people believe that human attributes are traits that are fixed by nature. These people are called entity theorists and hold a fixed mindset. Others believe that people can develop and improve their attributes over time. These people are called incremental theorists and hold a growth mindset (Dweck, 2012). The primary research on this concept focused on implicit theories of intelligence, and was tested on children and adolescents (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Hong et al., 1995; Levy et al., 1998). Even though the research was initially done on children in laboratories, it has been well documented on adults too (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988), and it has also proven to work in natural settings (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). This research showed that people with a fixed mindset used information about their own performance on a task to judge their own ability, whilst people with a growth mindset would use the same kind of information to assess their own effort (Levy et al., 1998). The fixed mindset is seen as a helpless pattern, in which the individual avoids a challenge and performs worse when facing obstacles. Helpless individuals are shown to exhibit negative self-cognitions, negative affect and impaired performance when facing failures. The growth mindset is seen as a mastery-oriented pattern, and explains an individual who seeks challenging tasks and strives under failure. Mastery-oriented individuals will exhibit constructive self-instructions and self-monitoring, a positive prognosis, positive affect and effective problem-solving strategies when facing failure or obstacles (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

According to Dweck (2012) it matters what people's mindsets are. It has been shown that these mindsets make a difference for success in academics, in social relationships, in the workplace and in emotional and physical health. Because of this, it is proposed that what mindset one adopts is connected to that person´s goals. This could be either a performance goal or a learning goal, and the reason for choosing one or the other lies in a person's implicit theories (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Goals and goal-oriented behavior can be seen as an approach to motivation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). There is increasing evidence suggesting

that the goal an individual is pursuing creates a framework for interpreting and responding to events that occur. Consequently, the same event may have a different meaning and impact if it occurs within the context of a learning goal or a performance goal (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

The results of Elliott and Dweck´s (1988) research suggest that learning and performance goals may be very useful to understand achievement patterns. Each of the achievement goals are suggested to run off a different `program´ with different commands, decision rules, and inference rules. Learning goals have been found to be associated with challenge seeking, as well as a focus on effort and strategy, positive affect, and high persistence under difficulty. Performance goals on the other hand, are associated with a vulnerability to challenge avoidance and also to negative ability attributions, negative affect and low persistence under difficulty (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). These goals were hypothesized to be based on one's individual theory of intelligence (Bandura & Dweck, 1985; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Payne et al., 2007). Each goal is suggested to evoke different thoughts and emotions and therefore evoke different behaviors (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Based on these different ways of perceiving identical situations, Elliott and Dweck (1988) hypothesized that helpless and mastery-oriented individuals might pursue very different goals. They suggested that individuals´ differences in perceptions and reactions might be a result of their different aims or purposes in a given situation. According to their research, helpless children might be pursuing performance goals, whereas mastery-oriented children might be pursuing learning goals. Therefore, when faced with a challenging achievement situation, helpless children might be pursuing the performance goal of proving their ability. In contrast, mastery-oriented children might be pursuing the learning goal of improving their ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Individuals choose the helpless pattern or the mastery-oriented pattern as to where they are directed (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). When individuals are directed toward skill acquisition, they will choose the mastery-oriented pattern and the challenging task with an opportunity to learn. However, when individuals are directed towards evaluation, the task chosen, challenging or easy, is dependent upon that individual's perceived ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Furthermore, a study by Licht and Dweck (1984) shows that an irrelevant passage at the beginning of a test will impair learning in individuals with a fixed mindset, but will not have any effect on the performance of

individuals with a growth mindset (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Ames (1984a) also showed that an individual would pursue different goal structures according to whether he or she was oriented towards evaluation of ability (fixed mindset) or towards improvement of ability (growth mindset) (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Moreover, by making children read a passage on how you can develop your brain before doing an assessment would lead more children to believe that they had an impact on what they learn and what their results are (Dweck, 2007). Dweck´s (2007) experiments further show that a focus on effort, rather than intelligence, can help resolve helplessness in individuals and also engender success.

The Interaction between Motivational Climates and Mindsets

According to the person-environment fit perspective, performance-oriented individuals will most likely respond more positively in a climate that `matches´ a performance climate (the matching hypothesis) (Newton & Duda, 1999; Buch et al., 2015). Similarly, mastery-oriented individuals will most likely respond more positively in a mastery climate (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015). Behavior can be enhanced or diminished due to the match between the climate at work and the individual's preferences (Amiot, Vallerand & Blanchard, 2006; Caplan, 1987; Pervin, 1968; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). According to Roberts (2012), individuals will adapt their achievement strategies in the climate where he or she feels comfortable (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015). Furthermore, the achievement goals highlighted will create specific thoughts, emotions and different behaviors (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Pervin (1968) also proposes that a good match between person and environment results in high performance (Buch et al., 2015). The study by Buch et al. (2015) supported the proposition that individuals who fit with their environment, e.g. mastery climate with growth mindset and performance climate with fixed mindset, perform better. Because the environment is suggested to be a bigger impact on an employee´s chosen goal strategies than individual goal orientations, the motivational climate created at the workplace will probably have an impact on employees´ mindsets (Nerstad et al., 2013a).

In sports, athletes have been shown to have increased interest, increased effort, positive attitudes, trying harder and persisting when faced with difficulty, when operating in a mastery climate (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Valentini & Rudisill, 2006; Nerstad et al., 2013a). Likewise, individuals with a growth

mindset focus on learning and improving, which is what we see in champions (Dweck, 2006). These people will think of what they have learned and see success in that, even if they lost their game or the competition. Additionally, individuals with a growth mindset will find setbacks or failures motivating (Dweck, 2006). This matches the mastery climate, were the focus is to learn and develop to behave better than what each one has accomplished before (Ames, 1984b; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). In the same way as in a mastery climate, individuals with a growth mindset have been found to be high achievers (Dweck, 2007), optimistic, and relish the opportunity to face obstacles to reach a solution (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals with a growth mindset are also shown to have a mastery response to obstacles, by focusing on strategy formulation, positive affect, and sustained performance (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Moreover, both a mastery climate and a growth mindset focus on learning goals to increase and develop competence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Learning goals are found to be challenge-seeking, and have a focus on effort, positivism and high persistence under difficulty (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), which are components of both the mastery climate and the growth mindset. Newton and Duda (1999) found a strong positive relationship between the mastery climate and the mastery orientation, suggesting that both believe that effort is the cause of success (Buch et al., 2015). Drawing on the matching hypothesis, we propose the hypothesis;

H1: A mastery climate will be positively related to employee growth mindset.

In a performance climate, the best achievers are the most successful employees (Ames, 1984b; Černe et al., 2014). This climate has a focus on competition and, like with people with a fixed mindset, to perform and succeed the first time is emphasized (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Talent is important and employees are being judged or judge themselves in comparison with others (Nerstad et al., 2013a).

Furthermore, in a performance climate, athletes are shown to behave more maladaptive, have decreased motivation, use ineffective strategies, worry more, perceive stress, seek easy tasks, and give up when facing difficulty (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Roberts, Treasure & Conroy, 2007; Nerstad et al., 2013a). Like in a performance climate, individuals with a fixed mindset are vulnerable to the

helpless response in the face of failure, set up low ability attributions, negative affect, and impaired performance (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). In a performance climate the focus is on winning, recognition and normative feedback (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). Similarly, individuals with a fixed mindset are focusing on talent, and that talent does not need effort (Dweck, 2006). These people only want to perform, and believe that more effort will set their talent in a bad light (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a fixed mindset are shown to focus more on ability than on effort, and this will lead them into a helpless pattern in achievement situations (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Furthermore, in both a performance climate and in a fixed mindset the focus is on performance goals, in which individuals are concerned with gaining favorable judgments of their competence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Treasure and Roberts (1998) found that both the performance climate and the performance orientation focus on ability as being the cause of success (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Drawing on the matching hypothesis, we propose the following hypothesis;

H2: A performance climate will be positively related to employee fixed mindset.

If an individual does not have the same values and orientation as the environment he or she is working in, this individual might not experience person-environment fit (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). When an individual lacks the values that lead to a good fit, this individual can experience negative outcomes such as dissatisfaction (Wheeler, Halbesleben & Shanine, 2013; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015) and the employee might have less energy for being inclusive and polite towards coworkers (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). A lack of person-environment fit might also enhance disrespectful and condescending behavior towards coworkers (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). If an individual´s preferences do not match the motivational climate, this can diminish productive behavior (Amiot et al., 2006; Caplan, 1987; Pervin, 1968; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015).

Individuals with a growth mindset have a focus on learning and improving (Dweck, 2006). On the other hand, in a performance climate, individuals are judged on their performance and wish to look great the first time they do the task (Nerstad et al., 2013a). This climate might therefore suppress learning by focusing on not to fail whilst performing the task (Dweck, 2006). A performance climate

highlights that individuals are being other-referenced and egoistic (Buch et al., 2015), whilst individuals with a growth mindset focus on doing better than what one did before (self-referenced), as well as cooperation and learning (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a growth mindset and a mastery goal orientation are found to display lower performance the greater their perception of a performance climate. This is due to the focus on extrinsic motivation, benefits and winning in a performance climate ruining the intrinsic motivation individuals with a growth mindset have when doing their job. This implies that when one is offered benefits to do something one already enjoys, motivation can decrease (Buch et al., 2015). Other studies suggest a negative relationship between a performance climate and intrinsic motivation (e.g. Cumming, Smoll, Smith & Grossbard, 2007; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Buch et al., 2015), whilst a positive relationship is found between a mastery climate and intrinsic motivation (Parish & Treasure, 2003; Buch et al., 2015). Because of the value incongruence between individuals with a growth mindset (development and learning) and a performance climate (ability and competition), people with a growth mindset are likely to feel dissatisfied and experience cognitive dissonance in a performance climate (cf. Cable & Edwards, 2004; Buch et al., 2015). We therefore suggest the following hypothesis;

H3: Employee growth mindset will be negatively related to the performance motivational climate.

An individual can also experience lack of fit if one has a fixed mindset working in a mastery climate, and thus perform poorly (Buch et al., 2015). Because a mastery climate is associated with high support on learning and improving, individuals with a fixed mindset might feel that they are inadequate in their abilities (Deelstra, Peeters, Zijlstra, Schaufeli, Stroebe & van Doornen, 2003; Burnett, Chiaburu, Shapiro & Li, 2015).

People who have an obsessive passion towards their work can be seen as more competitive (Carbonneau, Vallerand, Fernet & Guay, 2008; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015) and have a need to prove themselves (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015), like individuals with a fixed mindset. An employee who has an obsessive passion towards work might experience a mastery climate as a threat to his or her self-esteem (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). This may be because they are measuring themselves to the relative others (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Birkeland & Nerstad,

2015). Furthermore, individuals with a fixed mindset do not wish to exert extra effort when working on a task, they wish to succeed the first time to prove their talent or intelligence (Dweck, 2006). To have an obsessive passion over time is exhausting for employees and may lead to low perceptions of personal accomplishment (Lavigne, Forest & Crevier-Braud, 2012; Trépanier, Fernet, Austin, Forest & Vallerand, 2013; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Additionally, this requires more effort for the individuals to gain confidence at work and may lead to uncivil behaviors (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Individuals with a fixed mindset in a mastery climate is likely to experience this exhaustion because the climate does not support their notions of competitiveness. These individuals are therefore likely to be less content and happy at work, and might produce counter-productive work behaviors (Sakurai & Jex, 2012; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Misfit can result in negative emotions that lead the obsessively passionate employee with less energy for being inclusive and polite towards co-workers (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015).

Individuals with a fixed mindset might not fit in a mastery climate because the mastery climate highlights cooperation, positive relationships and equality and these are not the values individuals with a fixed mindset find important. Individuals with a fixed mindset are less able to engage in high quality relationships (Donahue, Rip & Vallerand, 2009; Philippe, Vallerand, Houlfort, Lavigne & Donahue, 2010; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015) and these people do not change over time, but remain stable (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). The criteria of success in a mastery climate are likely to threaten rather than motivate employees with a fixed mindset (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015) because employees with a fixed mindset need extrinsic motivation to be motivated (Buch et al., 2015) instead of intrinsic motivation which the mastery climate is promoting (Parish & Treasure, 2003; Buch et al., 2015). Because the mastery climate does not respond to employees with a fixed mindset´s validation of competence and social status, these employees might experience a loss of resources because they use all of their resources on getting attention from others. Additionally, they might become increasingly frustrated (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Hobfoll, Lilly & Jackson, 1992; Wheeler et al., 2013; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015), and find it hard to be flexible and adapt to the environment (Amiot et al., 2006; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Individuals with a fixed mindset will not be satisfied in a mastery climate because this climate does not satisfy their need to outperform others or to satisfy their need

to know that their ability is adequate (Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Walling, Duda & Chi, 1993; Buch et al., 2015). Although the mastery climate promotes climates with little rudeness, individuals with a fixed mindset might actually change their behavior to the worse when operating in a mastery climate (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Because of this we propose the hypothesis;

H4: Employee fixed mindset will be negatively related to the mastery motivational climate.

Employee Achievement

The feedback and behavior of the leader will guide employees to achieve more or less (Nerstad et al., 2013a). Employee achievement is in this paper explained in terms of work effort and work quality (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011). Dweck (2007) shows in her studies that by teaching individuals to have a growth mindset and praise effort rather than ability, individuals will turn into high achievers and live up to their full potential. The different mindsets have shown to have a dramatic impact on performance. Individuals with a growth mindset performed better than individuals with a fixed mindset over time, which shows that there is a possible relation between employee mindset and achievement (Dweck, 2007). Individuals with a growth mindset would view a challenging task or problem as an opportunity to learn. In contrast to individuals with a fixed mindset, individuals with a growth mindset will not think that they are failing even though confronted with difficult problems. Individuals with a growth mindset view challenges as something to be mastered through higher effort (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Actually, a person with a growth mindset would try to master a task even though he or she thought his or her abilities were low before starting the task (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Similarly, the motivational climate will play an important part to individuals when demonstrating ability in achievement situations (Nerstad et al., 2013a), where a mastery climate will promote effort and learning and shows higher performance than a performance climate (Černe et al., 2014). The motivational climate will decide how individuals interpret achievement (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). The behavior in a mastery climate has proven to result in better performance, higher levels of work engagement, additional effort,

persistence in the face of difficulty, and positive relationships with others (Nerstad et al., 2013a; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Roberts, 2012; Černe et al., 2014). The studies by Nerstad et al. (2013a) show that employees´ performance, especially concerning work quality, might be enhanced in a mastery climate. Individuals with a growth mindset are not afraid to face failures or admit mistakes, and believe in human development to achieve success. Findings indicate that to reduce the perception of distress, the leader should focus on creating a mastery climate that foster mastery values (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2000). The mastery climate is also found to contribute to employee motivation (Nerstad et al., 2013a).

To achieve success, leaders with a growth mindset look at what skills are needed in the future for the organization to succeed, and build on these skills in employees. These leaders are not thinking about talent, but on learning (Dweck, 2006). Present achievement will tell you where the employee is today, but not where the employee can go (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a growth mindset believe that if you work harder, you will perform better, and these people are also shown to perform better over time (Dweck, 2006). When facing failure, individuals with a growth mindset think that their strategy may be insufficient to the task and that they need to revision. People with a growth mindset alter their strategy when facing failure or obstacles, and focus on self-instructions and self-monitoring to achieve success (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). In fact, individuals with a growth mindset often show improvement in performance when facing failure (Diener & Dweck, 1978). Likewise, mastery-oriented individuals are also shown to focus on working hard to produce future success (Diener & Dweck, 1978). Our next hypothesis is therefore;

H5: Employee growth mindset and the mastery climate will be positively related to a) work effort and b) work quality.

Findings show that people with performance goals will work well in a performance climate (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015). Furthermore, individuals who believe in their ability being high, will perform in the same manner by working as hard as a mastery-oriented individual, but will avoid challenges and taking risks (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Other studies show that a fixed mindset will deteriorate performance because these individuals do not focus on altering strategies or working harder when facing obstacles (Dweck, 2007). Based on

these findings, we think that there might be a curvilinear relationship in an inverted U-shape between fixed mindset and a performance climate and work effort and work quality.

Based on the research done by Dweck (2007), individuals will perform better when a certain mindset is adopted. We expect that in a performance climate and with people having a fixed mindset, the focus will be on the ability to perform. An employee in a performance climate and with a fixed mindset with a focus on ability being low, will not take chances and will not try to solve tasks that seem difficult. These employees will therefore only perform at a low level to make sure that they will not fail doing tasks at a higher level, and performance is thus likely to be low. Furthermore, an employee with focus on a moderate level of ability will perform better than and do more difficult tasks than the employee with a focus on low ability, and performance will thus be higher. Employees who believe their ability is high are likely to pursue more difficult tasks to achieve higher performance. However, to be able to perform above average it is important to work through obstacles in order to be more productive, and employees with a fixed mindset will view their ability as low when facing obstacles. Performance will therefore probably decrease.

Performance-oriented people, who wish to demonstrate their superiority and competence, work well in a performance climate (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015). When a performance goal is highlighted and individuals believe that their ability is high, they will perform in a mastery-oriented manner and show high performance (Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Employees with a fixed mindset will perform well because of their talent (Diener & Dweck, 1978). The research done by Dweck and Leggett (1988) has shown that all individuals, with both fixed and growth mindsets, have the same abilities as a starting point to solve an identical task (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Studies by Dweck (2006) on students with fixed and growth mindsets show that up until a certain level of difficulty, the students will have grades that are indistinguishable.

The performance will be equal no matter what mindset one adopts up until the point of meeting failure or obstacles. Individuals with a fixed mindset will then show deterioration in performance (Diener & Dweck, 1978). When facing failure, individuals with a fixed mindset focus on looking smart and have negative views of effort because they believe effort shows lower ability. Furthermore, these individuals pass up the chances to correct and learn (Dweck, 2007). Because

obstacles are inherent in most important pursuits, this mindset can be seen as maladaptive (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). When doubting their ability, these individuals become discouraged, and decline challenges and show poorer performance than individuals taking a challenge (Dweck, 2007). When meeting obstacles or facing failure, individuals with a fixed mindset focus on altering the rules, talking about talent in other domains and of other possessions to distract attention from their present performance to previous successes. In this way, they boost their image in another way, but do not focus on mastering the task at hand. In addition, they adapt inefficient strategies (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). When focusing on the causes of failure, instead of the remedies, strategies become inefficient and performance becomes poorer (Diener & Dweck, 1978). These individuals are concerned with explaining their failures, instead of focusing on how to work through the obstacle and produce success (Diener & Dweck, 1978). The fixed mindset will over time limit achievement, lessen effort and make other people into judges instead of allies (Dweck, 2006). Because people with a fixed mindset do not take risks and wish to perform known tasks, changes will lead to poorer achievement (Dweck, 2006). Additionally, because individuals with a fixed mindset believe that success is due to ability, they will not strive to perform over time (Dweck, 2006).

Moreover, people with a fixed mindset are very worried about how things appear to the outside world and how they look. An organization with a huge focus on talents will force its employees into a fixed mindset. Individuals with a fixed mindset do not accept their failures and build on their deficiencies, or take risks, and flaws are viewed as intolerable (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a fixed mindset appear to view challenging tasks or problems as a threat to their self-esteem. This is because these individuals would view a task that they cannot master immediately as their ability being inadequate. People with a fixed mindset see further effort as proving their ability as insufficient (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals with a fixed mindset will focus on intelligence when facing difficulty, and will blame their own intelligence for not being able to solve the task (Dweck, 2006). These individuals view difficulty or failure as a threat, are anxious they will be looked upon as losers and are afraid to learn, and therefore focus on protecting their own ego. They protect their ego by not trying to solve the task, to avoid failure. This shows that individuals with a fixed mindset will exert less effort than individuals with a growth mindset when solving tasks (Dweck, 2006).

Likewise, a performance climate has been found to decrease performance. A performance climate can promote several maladaptive outcomes, such as poorer performance, performance anxiety, lower persistence, controlled motivation, and turnover intentions (Abrahamsen, Roberts & Pensgaard, 2008; Nerstad et al., 2013a; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Černe et al., 2014). Overemphasizing on external criteria and the results of the competition, as in a performance climate, can be extremely distressing (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002). Another negative side effect that can be developed in this climate is negative interdependence among employees, because performing better than coworkers is their goal (Ames & Ames, 1984b; Cˇerne et al., 2014). Thus, we propose a curvilinear relationship;

H6: There is a curvilinear relationship in an inverted U-shape between employee fixed mindset and the performance climate, and a) work effort and b) work quality.

Taking Charge

During the past decade, there has been a growing interest in extra-role behavior that goes beyond role-expectations in a way that is organizational functional (Vadera et al., 2013). For many employees, it has become necessary to be more creative and innovative in how they perform their work. A way to deviate from typical behavior may be to take charge (Vadera et al., 2013), which is found to be beneficial to both the organization and the employees (Vadera et al., 2013; Dysvik et al., 2016). It has been argued that this phenomenon is critical for organizational effectiveness because managers cannot foresee every thing or activity needed for employees to perform (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Organ, 1988; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge is a type of extra-role behavior, where employees go beyond role expectations in a way that is organizationally functional (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge is defined as "voluntary and constructive efforts by individual employees to affect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). Taking charge entails both voluntary and constructive efforts by employees within the context of their jobs. Taking charge is discretionary behavior, meaning a behavior that is not formally required. It is change-oriented and intended to improve organizations

(Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The most researched form of extra-role behavior is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which can be defined as "those organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantee or recompense" (Organ, 1990, p. 46). Examples of typical OCB behavior can be to help colleagues with their workloads, not taking longer breaks than necessary, attending gatherings that are not required and alerting with others about work-related problems (Organ, 1988; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Even though these type of extra-role activities are important, they may not be enough for ensuring a continued viability of an organization. Organizations also need employees who are willing to challenge the present state to bring out constructive change (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge is similar to other forms of extra-role behaviors in that it is not formally required from the organization. Taking charge is inherently change-oriented and aimed at organizational improvement (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

For employees to take charge, certain conditions in the organization should be in place. Morrison and Phelps (1999) have focused on what motivates employees to take charge. The decision to take-charge is suggested to be affected by two judgments. First, as assessment of likely success and, second, an assessment of likely consequences (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge has been shown to be related to perceptions of top management openness, felt responsibility, and self-efficacy (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Top management openness is a contextual condition, which is related to the motivational climate, whilst felt responsibility and self-efficacy are individual conditions, which the adopted mindset is connected to. The research of Morrison and Phelps (1999) indicates that employees are more likely to take charge when they perceive top management as open to their suggestions and to employee-initiated change. Top management openness is defined "as the degree to which top management is believed to encourage and support suggestions and change initiatives from below" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406). This underlines the importance of a work-context that is supportive. Also, when employees feel a sense of responsibility, they are more likely to take charge. Felt responsibility is "an individual's belief about whether he or she is personally obligated to bring about constructive change" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406). Lastly, employees are more likely to take charge when they have high levels of self-efficacy (Morrison & Phelps,

1999). Self-efficacy can be defined as "an employee´s estimate of his or her capacity to perform" (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406).

Several research have suggested that self-efficacy is the most important individual-level variable that predicts taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Self-efficacy has been found to increase personal initiative at work (Speier & Frese, 1997; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). A mastery climate is supporting employee learning, development and adaptation of tasks, by focusing on effort and cooperation (Ames, 1992b, 1992c; Nicholls, 1989; Černe et al., 2014). This is likely to lead employees to take charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The results of a sense of felt responsibility and a high level of self-efficacy show that the decision about whether or not taking charge is affected not only by the context, but also by individual characteristics. This indicates that within the same organization, some individuals, those with high self-efficacy and felt responsibility, may be more likely to take charge than others (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It is therefore suggested that organizations should try to select employees with these attributes, or alternatively, try to develop those attributes among their employees (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

What has distinguished the better performing organizations from the others, are leaders that are self-effacing, who ask questions, look failures in the eyes and remain a faith that they will succeed. These leaders have the growth mindset and thereby foster a mastery climate (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a mastery-oriented pattern will strive to find a solution and focus on self-instructions and self-monitoring (Diener & Dweck, 1978). People with a growth mindset are shown to be less aggressive, have more positive feelings, concern and compassion towards others (Dweck, 2012). An organization that has a focus on growth mindsets and mastery climate will thus likely develop more individuals with the characteristics of taking charge. We propose that;

H7: Employee growth mindset and the mastery climate will be positively related to taking charge.

According to Morrison and Phelps (1999), taking charge is related to perceptions of top management openness, felt responsibility, and self-efficacy. Findings suggest that individuals will take charge if they feel support from the organization, but if they feel too much or too little support, this can lead to less

taking charge (Burnett et al., 2015). This is similar to children with overly nurturing parents and students with overly nurturing teachers, who are found to be less confident and weaker in problem solving (Burnett et al., 2015). Employees might see the costs of taking charge as them being replaced because of inability (Burnett et al., 2015). Because employees will perceive a performance climate and a fixed mindset as being judged on ability and performance the first time they perform a task, they will probably be more aware of varying levels of support and the possible negative consequences of taking charge (Burnett et al., 2015). Furthermore, employees´ reaction to support will depend on their perceptions of whether the support threatens their self-esteem (Deelstra et al., 2003; Burnett et al., 2015), as employees with a fixed mindset is very concerned with how they look to the world (Dweck, 2006). Additionally, felt responsibility is found to be related to employees taking charge, but when employees perceive the support from the manager as being low, employees are more likely to feel no obligation to help their organization (Burnett et al., 2015). In a performance climate, the focus on competition and normative criteria for success (Černe et al., 2014) might lessen support from the leader. Lastly, self-efficacy is found to be an important variable to predict taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Employees´ perception of their capacity to perform may thus be negatively affected by a performance-oriented leader, who might foster negative thoughts and doubts that may affect the employees´ self-confidence (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2000).

A part of taking charge is to challenge routines in the everyday work life (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Individuals with a fixed mindset do not like challenges or taking risks (Dweck, 2006), and therefore might be less likely to take charge. Sometimes, known procedures might be dysfunctional or inefficient, and it is important for employees to take charge to find more productive ways of working for the organization to be successful (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Individuals pursuing a helpless pattern would spend little time on overcoming obstacles and failures (Diener & Dweck, 1978), so these individuals will probably take less charge. Furthermore, individuals with a fixed mindset and a focus on high performance are less likely to be intrinsically motivated (e.g. Ryan & Deci, 1989; Buch et al., 2015) and a performance climate is also found to be a negative predictor of intrinsic motivation (Kavussanu & Roberts, 1996; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2000). For individuals with a fixed mindset external rewards are more important than intrinsic motivation (Buch et al., 2015). This may indicate that

people with a fixed mindset are not intrinsically motivated enough to take charge. Thus, we propose the hypothesis;

H8: Employee fixed mindset and the performance climate will be negatively related to taking charge.

Research Model

This theory leads to the research model presented in Figure 1. The hypotheses are illustrated with the assumed relationships.
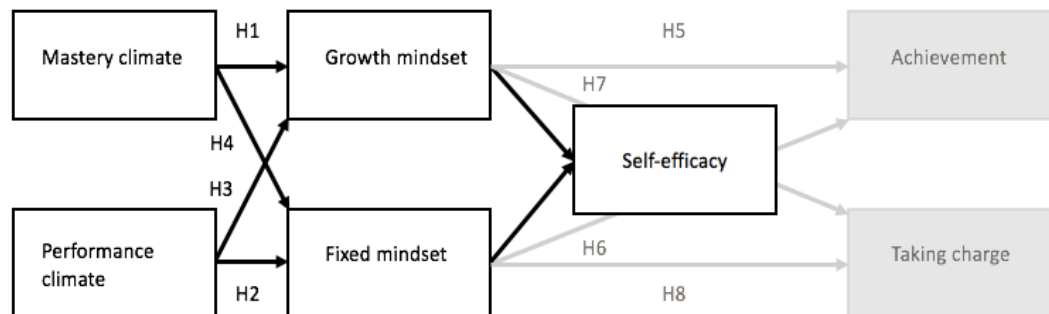

Figure 1: Research Model

Methodology

Sample and Data Collection Procedure

A quantitative cross-sectional study was performed to complete this study. A cross-sectional approach is preferred to examine relationships between variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Respondents were drawn from 13 different Norwegian organizations, where 12 operate in the private sector and 1 in the public sector. Our contact in the organization asked leaders and employees to voluntarily participate in our research. Leaders answered questions about the employees and the employees answered on self-reported measures to reduce common rater bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). The participants were informed that the survey had been approved by Norwegian Centre for Research Data, and were also informed that their responses would be treated confidentially. This was done to reduce the presence of response distortion (Chan, 2009; Conway & Lance, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). The participants

were also informed that participation was voluntary. The survey was in Norwegian and was sent out by e-mail. Respondents who did not complete the survey got a minimum of one and maximum of three reminders to improve our response rate.

Data was collected from leaders and this leaders´ employees in order to find out whether the leader´s behavior and feedback impacts the motivational climate and employee mindset, and how these are related to achievement and taking charge. All leaders got a number that they filled in on top of their responses, and the employees filled out the number of their leader at the start of their survey to connect the responses. The surveys were sent to 256 participants, with a response rate of 60 percent. Out of these participants, the survey was sent to 55 leaders, with a response rate of 75 percent, and 201 employees, with a response rate of 56 percent. The leader answered questions about the employees´ achievement and taking charge behavior, whilst the employees answered questions concerning perceived motivational climate, mindset and self-efficacy. According to Kuenzi and Schminke (2009), measures on climate should rest on individual perceptions of the working environment (Nerstad et al., 2013a) because group and individual level measures can be fundamentally different (Papaioannou et al., 2004). Therefore, we relied on self-report measures. To minimize selection bias, the participants were not told the nature of any of the questions asked (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Measures

The items for all the constructs were measured on a 7-point Likert response scale, ranging from 1=Strongly Agree to 7=Strongly Disagree. *Achievement* was measured from the leader's point of view on work effort and work quality through a 10-item scale by Dysvik and Kuvaas´ (2011), which was developed by Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009). *Taking charge* was measured from the leader's perspective using Morrison and Phelps´ (1999) 10-item measures on employees´ taking charge behavior. The *motivational climate* was measured from the employee perspective using Nerstad et al.´s (2013a) Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire in a 14-item scale. *Mindsets* were measured from the employee perspective using Dweck's (2000) Theory of Intelligence in a 6-item version. Additionally, we asked employees to report on individual *self-efficacy*. This measure was taken from Schyns and von Collani (2002), and contains 8

items. These items are a short form developed by Schyns and von Collani (2002), building on the measures by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentich-Dunn, Jacobs & Rogers (1982), Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995), Schwarzer (1998), Snyder, Harris, Anderson, Holleran, Irving, Sigmon, Yoshinobu, Gibb, Langelle & Harney (1991), and Stäudel (1998). To our knowledge, this last measure has not been used in the Norwegian context before, and had to be translated from English into Norwegian. The questionnaires can be found in appendix 1.

Analyses

The analyses was conducted in several stages. Reliability was tested estimating the Cronbach´s alpha values. All variables are validated by earlier research (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011, Dweck, 2000, Morrison & Phelps, 1999, Nerstad et al., 2013a, Schyns & von Collani, 2002), which shows that they have satisfying psychometric characteristics (Nerstad et al., 2013a).

For hypotheses H1 to H4, we used the responses of the 112 employees who had responded to the questionnaire ($n = 112$). For hypotheses H5 to H8 we needed responses from both the employees and their direct supervisors. Even though the response rate on our surveys was fairly good, the responses from employees did not comply with the responses from the leaders. Only 25 leaders had answered for employees who also had responded. Unfortunately, this sample of matching responses from both employees and their direct supervisors was too small to be investigated further. We therefore analyzed the self-reported measures from employees only.

In hypotheses H1 and H3 we wanted to test whether there was a positive relationship between the two variables. In hypotheses H2 and H4 we wanted to find a negative relationship between the variables. A regression was performed to check the Pearson correlation to test the relationships between our variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Hierarchical multiple regression was performed to test whether mastery climate and growth mindset were positively related to self-efficacy, and whether performance climate and fixed mindset were negatively related to self-efficacy. We followed the procedure of Nerstad et al. (2013) to perform this hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Step 1 involved entering the variables mastery climate and performance climate. Step 2 included entering fixed mindset and growth mindset. By entering our variables in steps, this allows us to statistically

control for the mindset in question. In these tests the sample size was 111 because of missing values ($n = 111$).

Results

Descriptive statistics and reliability

Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations between all our variables are presented in Table 1. All scales indicate acceptable reliability estimates, with Cronbach´s alpha values ranging from .804 to .922. These are acceptable measures of internal reliability as they all are above .8 (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Mastery climate	5.56	1.01	(.843)				
2. Performance climate	2.94	1.06	.059	(.804)			
3. Fixed mindset	3.27	1.64	-.003	.114	(.922)		
4. Growth mindset	4.85	1.39	.171	-.051	-.657**	(.874)	
5. Self-efficacy	5.95	.66	.188*	.059	-.091	.225*	(.888)

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

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and reliability estimates for all variables

Furthermore, we found that the mean value of a mastery climate ($M = 5.56$) is larger than the mean value of a performance climate ($M = 2.94$). In addition, the mean value of growth mindset ($M = 4.85$) was larger than the mean value of fixed mindset ($M = 3.27$).

Multiple regression

Following the recommendations of Meyers, Gamst and Guarino (2006), the Pearson correlation predictors were tested prior to testing the hypotheses, and revealed that there was no case of multicollinearity, which was shown through the Tolerance and VIF values (lowest Tolerance value = .540, highest VIF value = 1.851). This shows no evidence of multicollinearity because the Tolerance value was above .1 (Menard, 1995; Field, 2013) and the highest VIF value was below 10 (Bowerman & O´Connell, 1990; Myers, 1990).

Regression analyses was performed to test hypotheses H1 to H4 with growth or fixed mindset as dependent variables, and mastery or performance climate as independent variables. The results indicated a marginally significant

positive relationship (β = .174, *Sig.* = .068 < .07) between mastery climate and a growth mindset. The relationship between performance climate and growth mindset (β = -.062) was not significant (*Sig.* = .515). Furthermore, the relationship between performance climate and fixed mindset (β = .115) was not significant (*Sig.* = .232). Lastly, the relationship between mastery climate and fixed mindset (β = -.010) was not significant (*Sig.* = .919). The motivational climate variables explained 3.3% of the variance (R^2 = .033) in the growth mindset variable, and 1.3% of the variance (R^2 = .013) in the fixed mindset variable. None of the models reached statistical significance according to the Sig. values (*Sig.* = .162 and *Sig.* = .488). Hypothesis H1, predicting that a mastery climate will be positively related to employee growth mindset, was thereby supported. Hypothesis H2, predicting that a performance climate will be positively related to employee fixed mindset, was not supported. Hypothesis H3, predicting that employee growth mindset will be negatively related to performance motivational climate, was not supported. Hypothesis H4, predicting that employee fixed mindset will be negatively related to mastery motivational climate, was not supported.

Hierarchical multiple regression was performed to check the relationship between motivational climate, mindset and self-efficacy. We present the results of this analysis in Table 2. The control variables, performance climate and mastery climate, were entered in Step 1. The results indicate that the relationship between mastery climate and self-efficacy (β = .185) was marginally statistically significant (*Sig.* = .051), and the relationship between performance climate and self-efficacy (β = .048) was not statistically significant (*Sig.* = .614). In Step 2, we entered the fixed and growth mindset variables. Results indicated that mastery climate and growth mindset now related marginally significantly (*Sig.* = .053) and positively to self-efficacy (β = .246). Adding the growth mindset thus improved the model fit above the direct effects from mastery climate as the self-efficacy was increased. Performance climate and fixed mindset were not shown to be statistically significant to self-efficacy.

	Self-efficacy	
	Step 1	Step 2
Mastery climate	.185	.143
Performance climate	.048	.055
Fixed mindset		.065
Growth mindset		.246
Adjusted R^2	.020	.045
ΔR^2	.038	.042
F	2.136	2.321
ΔF	2.136	2.449

Note: n=111. Standardized regression coefficients are shown.

Table 2: Hierarchical regression analyses on the relationship between motivational climate, mindsets and self-efficacy

The mastery and performance climate variables explained 3.8% of the variance in self-efficacy. After entering fixed and growth mindset the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 8%. Growth and fixed mindsets thus explain an additional 4.2% of the variance in self-efficacy. In the final model, only growth mindset has a marginally statistically significance (*Sig.* = .053), with a beta value of .246. The final model shows to be marginally statistically significant (*Sig.* = .061), whilst the initial model is not significant (*Sig.* = .123).

Discussion

The present study builds on existing theories and research on motivational climates and mindsets. The main purpose of this study was to test the relationship between the perceived motivational climates (mastery and performance climates) and individual mindsets (growth and fixed mindsets), and test the relationship between these variables with achievement and taking charge. In the present study, we were able to test the relationship between motivational climates and employee mindsets, but did unfortunately not have a large enough sample size with responses from leaders and employees in compliance to test the variables´ relationship with achievement and taking charge.

Our study contributes to the achievement motivation literature by looking at the interplay between the perceived motivational climates at work and employee mindsets. Furthermore, because we were not able to test hypotheses H4 to H8, we tested motivational climates and employee mindsets´ relationship with self-efficacy instead. The relationship between mindset and self-efficacy has been studied earlier in educational contexts (Schunk, 1996; Mueller & Dweck, 1998).

We wanted to expand these findings and test the relationship between motivational climates, employee mindsets and self-efficacy in a work context.

Growth mindset and motivational climate

The person-environment fit perspective states that individuals with certain characteristics will feel more comfortable in environments that match their characteristics (Newton & Duda, 1999; Buch et al., 2015). Consistent with this, our study finds a marginally significant, positive relationship between a mastery climate and a growth mindset. Our findings thus align with the theoretical assumptions of AGT where an individual with a mastery orientation (i.e. growth mindset) feels most comfortable in a mastery climate (Buch et al., 2015). This finding also fits with the results of Newton and Duda´s (1999) study, that there is a relationship between a mastery climate and individuals with a mastery orientation (Buch et al., 2015). These two variables are likely to relate because both the mastery climate and the growth mindset believe that effort will lead to success (Newton & Duda, 1999), by focusing on learning goals to increase and develop competence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

The hypothesis that employee growth mindset will be negatively related to the performance climate seeing as a performance climate focuses on ability (Nerstad et al., 2013a) and a growth mindset focuses on learning and effort (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), is not supported. The results show an insignificant relationship between these two variables. We found that across all responses, the mean value of a mastery climate is higher than the mean value of a performance climate, indicating that there are not many people feeling as if they work in a performance climate in the participating Norwegian organizations. This finding is in accordance with the findings of Nerstad et al. (2013a), who also found a higher mean value for the mastery climate than for the performance climate in their findings. However, the hypothesis might have been supported if we had asked employees who work in environments that relish extrinsic rewards to participate in the survey. As earlier research shows, intrinsic motivation fits better with a mastery climate and not with a performance climate (e.g. Cumming et al., 2007; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Buch et al., 2015). A performance climate is found to be a negative predictor of intrinsic motivation (Kavussanu & Roberts, 1996; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2000). Hence, individuals working in performance climates are shown to have different preferences and might therefore have responded

differently to the survey (Amiot et al., 2006; Caplan, 1987; Pervin, 1968; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015).

Fixed mindset and motivational climate

According to the matching hypothesis (Newton & Duda, 1999; Buch et al., 2015), we expected to find a positive relationship between a performance climate and employee fixed mindset. However, this study found no support for this hypothesis. Results show an insignificant relationship. This may be explained by the lack of perceived performance climate amongst the participating employees as explained earlier. Additionally, it might be that the participants are high or low on both performance and mastery orientations. Buch et al. (2015) found that an individual must have a high performance orientation accompanied with a low mastery orientation for this individual to fit in a performance climate. These findings can therefore explain why our study did not find support for the hypothesis including a performance climate and fixed mindset, because participants did not relate only to the performance orientation (i.e. fixed mindset). Another possible explanation might be that the participants chose their goals according to the situation they were in (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), and that they were in a situation where they focused on learning goals.

The results of the regression analysis show an insignificant relationship between employee fixed mindset and the mastery climate. The hypothesis indicating that employee fixed mindset would be negatively related to a mastery motivational climate was therefore not supported. Further, results show that the mean value for fixed mindset is lower than the mean value for growth mindset, which might indicate that there were more participants with a growth mindset participating in the current study. Individuals with a fixed mindset will feel low perceptions of personal accomplishments (Lavigne et al., 2012; Trépanier et al., 2013; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015) when not getting acknowledged in a mastery climate. Because of this, they may get exhausted and become uninclusive and impolite towards colleagues (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). This might be one reason why individuals with these mindsets have not responded to our survey, as the survey was voluntary, and these individuals do not feel a need to cooperate (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). In addition, because individuals with a fixed mindset exert less effort than individuals with a fixed mindset (Dweck, 2006), this might also be a reason why there are more people

with a growth mindset responding to the survey. Lastly, since the participants did not get any extrinsic rewards when participating in the survey, individuals with a fixed mindset might have avoided responding because they were not extrinsically motivated (Buch et al., 2015).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has been defined by Bandura (1977) as "the conviction that one can successfully execute a given behavior required to produce certain outcomes" (p. 193). Schyns and von Collani (2002) have called for future research on whether occupational self-efficacy is related to other constructs. Payne et al. (2007) also call for further research on whether highly self-efficacious individuals are likely to have a strong learning goal orientation (i.e. growth mindset). The current study aimed to answer to these calls by checking whether self-efficacy is dependent on motivational climate and individual mindset. Employees´ feeling of self-efficacy is found to be influenced by the supervisor's behavior (Eden & Kinnar, 1991; Natanovich & Eden, 2001; Schyns & von Collani, 2002). As the leader is found to be the main architect of the motivational climate (Ames, 1992b; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002), we find it reasonable to assume that the motivational climate created will be positively related to individual self-efficacy. We tested whether individual self-efficacy was dependent on a mastery climate and a growth mindset, and whether the mastery climate was enough to strengthen self-efficacy or if the growth mindset needed to be present. Likewise, whether the performance climate and fixed mindset was related to employees´ reported self-efficacy was also tested.

The results show that there is a small, positive and marginally significant relationship between a mastery climate and self-efficacy. This aligns with the research done by Payne et al. (2007), suggesting that self-efficacy is an antecedent of goal orientation, and that goal orientation appears to play an important role in the working climate. This may be explained by the fact that a mastery climate focuses on supporting employee learning, development and adaption of tasks. Hence, the results indicate that a mastery climate fits an employee´s degree of self-efficacy by focusing on effort and cooperation (Ames, 1992b, 1992c; Nicholls, 1989; Černe et al., 2014) and increases employees´ confidence to perform a certain task (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Our finding can be related to earlier research, which states that individuals will adapt

their achievement strategies in the climate where they feel comfortable (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015).

The current study did not find a statistically significant relationship between performance climate, the fixed mindset and self-efficacy. As already mentioned, there were few participants who responded that they felt like they are working in a performance climate. This may have impacted the findings. Earlier research shows that individuals with lower self-efficacy tends to hold a fixed mindset (Payne et al., 2007). A performance climate is suggested to foster negative thoughts and doubts about own skills and one´s self-confidence (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2000). Moreover, a fixed mindset and a performance climate both focus on ability as the cause of success (Treasure & Roberts, 1998; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015), which makes us believe that these two aspects will create person-environment fit (Buch et al., 2015). It is thus reasonable to assume that, if being tested in a larger sample, the relationship between a performance climate and self-efficacy would be negative seeing as both the performance climate and the fixed mindset have matching characteristics.

The moderating role of a growth mindset between the mastery climate and self-efficacy

The current study found that a mastery climate and growth mindset had a stronger, positive relationship to self-efficacy than the mastery climate variable alone had with self-efficacy. Dweck´s (2006) studies have supported that the leader's mindset is trivial for an organization´s success. Leaders who are constantly trying to improve their own and their employees´ skills are shown to operate with confidence that is grounded in facts and not about thoughts about their talent. Because of this, these leaders show high self-efficacy and the willingness to overcome failures and deficiencies. Furthermore, individuals with a growth mindset and a learning goal orientation are shown to have higher levels of self-efficacy because they believe that performance can be improved through effort (Dweck, 1989; Payne et al., 2007). Additionally, Kanfer (1990) suggests that individuals with a growth mindset have higher self-efficacy than individuals with a fixed mindset (Payne et al., 2007). In fact, the learning goal orientation is found to be in relationship with high self-efficacy in earlier research (Payne et al., 2007). These earlier findings align with the findings in this study that the growth

mindset will strengthen the relationship between the mastery climate and self-efficacy.

Limitations

This study has several limitations that need to be taken into consideration when interpreting the results. Firstly, there were not enough respondents that could be matched with their direct leader´s response. This led to us not being able to test hypotheses H5 to H8 and had effects on the study as a whole. Because of downsizing and restructuring in many businesses in Norway these days, it was difficult to, firstly, get organizations to participate in our study, and, secondly, to get leaders and employees to prioritize to answer our survey. We believe this have had effects on the size of our final sample.

Secondly, the cross-sectional study design used in this study does not allow us to draw inferences of causality between the variables (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2001). The bivariate analysis helps us to uncover relationships, but we cannot say anything about whether one variable causes the other (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In order for causal inferences to be drawn, experimental studies would be required (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011).

Thirdly, the measures may be influenced by social desirability bias, despite ensuring the respondents that we would treat their responses anonymously (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We received some concerns from participants who were anxious that, because they were to enter their leader´s number in the survey, their answers would be recognized by their leader. Although we reassured them that the leaders would not have access to the data, this might have impacted the way the questions about motivational climates, mindsets and self-efficacy were answered.

Fourthly, because this study relied on self-report data only, the measurements can be susceptible to common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We wanted to remove the possibility of common method bias by having some measures reported by the leader and the other measures self-reported by the employees. Unfortunately, we were not able to use the data gathered from the leader's perspective, and the measures might therefore be subject to common method bias and possible measurement errors (e.g. Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Buch et al., 2015). In the aftermath, we do see that we would have gathered more responses if we had designed our survey with self-reported measures on all

variables and would then be able to test all intended hypotheses. The reason why we did not wish to rely on self-reported measures only was to reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Fifthly, it should be noticed that because our study consists of a small sample size ($n = 112$), the true relationships between the variables in this study might be stronger than uncovered (Aguinis & Harden, 2009; Kline, 2004; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011). Furthermore, seeing as the relationships uncovered ($\beta = .174$ between mastery climate and growth mindset, $\beta = .185$ between mastery climate and self-efficacy, and $\beta = .246$ between mastery climate, growth mindset and self-efficacy) were found to be marginally statistically significant ($p = .068$, $p = .053$ and $p = .051$ respectively), we recommend that these findings are tested in a larger sample in the future to unveil a significant relationship.

Lastly, it needs to be explored further if the findings can be generalized to other organizations and countries (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Future Research Suggestions

An assumption of AGT (Nicholls, 1984, 1989) is that a person can be high in both performance and mastery orientation, low in both, or high in one and low in the other (Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002; Van De Pol, Kavussanu & Ring, 2012; Buch et al., 2015). For instance, Buch et al. (2015) found in their study that high levels of mastery orientation must be accompanied with low levels of the performance orientation for this person to fit and perform well in a mastery climate. This indicates that the person-environment fit is important (Buch et al., 2015). It might therefore be that an individual can have different levels of a fixed and a growth mindset, and that the goal pursued can vary from situation to situation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). The present study found support for the relationship between a mastery climate and a growth mindset, but insignificant findings for the hypotheses including performance climate as well as when testing the fixed mindset and mastery climate. Future research should study whether it is possible to have a high degree of one mindset and a low degree of another in specific work situations. It should also be studied whether it is possible to be high in both mindsets, and if this can have an impact on the person-environment fit. A study including levels of individual orientation or mindset might yield larger findings than the present study if this is the case.

Furthermore, to study individuals in groups will allow researchers to explore important new questions about how effects of individual level constructs vary from one group to another, as well as how group variables influence individual variables (Papaioannou et al., 2004). Duda (2001) argues that multilevel analyses and design are needed to see the effects of individuals in groups, and that it might be incorrect to analyze individuals who are part of a team if ignoring the effect of teams (Papaioannou et al., 2004). In the current study, the measures of climate are based on individual perceptions recommended by Kuenzi and Schminke (2009). It would be interesting for future research to build on the present study by testing the effects of motivational climate in groups, as well as what effects an individual's mindset has on the rest of the group the individual is a part of.

Due to this study not receiving enough responses to test the relationship between motivational climates and employee mindsets with achievement and taking charge, we urge future researchers to test these topics in a larger sample size, seeing as these variables are found important for organizational performance (Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Buch et al., 2015) and organizational effectiveness (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The dependent variable we tested instead, self-efficacy, is about individuals´ belief in their own capacity and how they meet challenges (Bandura, 1977). Individuals who never give up when meeting challenges or failures are shown to be the ones who achieve more than individuals who give up when facing failures (Dweck, 2006). A meta-analysis by Judge and Bono (2001) found a positive correlation ($r = .23$) between self-efficacy and job performance (Schyns & von Collani, 2002), indicating that self-efficacy has a positive relationship with achievement. Moreover, self-efficacy has been found as an important variable to predict taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Thus, we find it reasonable to believe that self-efficacy is a variable that will be positively related to both achievement and taking charge. We also believe that the growth mindset will be positively related to both these variables due to the findings in the current study suggesting that growth mindset will strengthen the relationship between the mastery climate and self-efficacy. Future research should look further into whether motivational climates and employee mindsets are related to achievement and taking charge.

Firstly, achievement seems important to look further into because individuals who fit with their environment are shown to perform better (Buch et

al., 2015). Earlier findings suggest that performance will be equal until the point of meeting failure or obstacles (Diener & Dweck, 1978). When facing failure, individuals with a growth mindset show improved performance (Diener & Dweck, 1978) because these individuals focus on personal development (Dweck, 2006). This study shows that there is a marginally statistically significant relationship between a mastery motivational climate and a growth mindset. Additionally, Nerstad et al. (2013a) found a positive association between a mastery climate and work effort and work quality. This can imply that the motivational climate established by the leader has an impact on employees´ mindsets, which can have a relation to achievement at work. On the contrary, when meeting challenges or failure, individuals with a fixed mindset show a decrease in performance (Diener & Dweck, 1978). Our hypothesis about a curvilinear relationship between a performance climate, a fixed mindset and achievement is based on earlier findings (Roberts, 2012; Buch et al., 2015, Elliott & Dweck, 1988) indicating that in a performance climate or with a fixed mindset, performance decreases when meeting obstacles (Dweck, 2007). Knowledge about this possible relationship could help managers to design a climate that will maximize performance and take into account challenges and obstacles that most individuals are likely to meet in their work (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Additionally, it would be interesting to test the hypotheses concerning achievement because it can be a help in selection and recruitment as goal orientation is found to predict performance beyond cognitive ability and the Big Five (Payne et al., 2007). Individuals can have the same abilities, but different mindsets. Thus, if cognitive ability alone is used as a measure of performance, one cannot know whether the individual will show impairment in the face of difficulty or seek challenge and be persistent (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). If a relation between a mastery climate and growth mindset with achievement is found, it might also be interesting to study further what HR strategies could make the workplace into an arena of learning, e.g. a mastery climate (Nerstad et al., 2013a).

Secondly, taking charge is a variable found to be important for organizations to establish a competitive advantage (Vadera et al., 2013; Dysvik et al., 2016). It is important for organizations to be change-oriented in today's fast-changing markets and taking charge is thus important for organizations to be effective (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Even though we were not able to test the relationship between motivational climates and employee mindsets with taking

charge, we were able to test the relationship with self-efficacy. Earlier research suggests that self-efficacy is the most important variable predicting taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The findings in this study show a marginally statistically significant relationship between mastery climate and self-efficacy, and this relationship grows stronger when adding the growth mindset. In addition to self-efficacy, taking charge also consists of perceptions of top management openness and felt responsibility (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and the variable should therefore be tested in order to see what, if any, relationship the motivational climate and employee mindset have with taking charge.

If future research shows that motivational climates and employee mindsets have a relation to achievement and taking charge, it would be interesting to test whether the motivational climate has an effect on an individual´s adopted mindset in an experiment. We believe that the motivational climate can have an effect on the individual mindset due to Dweck and Leggett´s (1988) research stating that the situation can potentially alter the probability that a predisposing tendency in an individual occurs (Dweck & Leggett, 2000). There is limited research using other methods than experimental designs when testing mindsets. Dweck (1978, 1986, 1988) has used experimental design when doing her research. We therefore believe that testing motivational climate, employee mindset, achievement and taking charge at the workplace in an experiment can give fruitful findings.

Theoretical Implications

Our findings add mainly to the achievement motivation literature. There are limited studies combining employees´ mindsets and their perceived motivational climate at work. This study adds to the achievement motivation literature by studying the relationship between motivational climates and mindsets. Even though the p-values are too large ($p = .68$, $p = .53$ respectively), the findings show that there is a positive relationship between a mastery climate and growth mindset ($\beta = .174$), and that growth mindset will strengthen the relationship between a mastery climate and self-efficacy ($\beta = .246$). These findings contribute to the literature on the interplay between motivational climate and goal orientation (Nerstad et al., 2013b; Buch et al., 2015). However, future research with a larger sample size is needed to test the significance of these relationships further.

Practical Implications

The present study contributes with some practical implications that can come in handy for managers. Firstly, as this study found a marginally statistically significant relationship between mastery climate and growth mindset managers who foster a mastery climate might have a higher probability of attracting individuals with a growth mindset due to the matching hypothesis (Newton & Duda, 1999). Seeing as the climate is easier to manipulate than the individual orientations or mindsets (Whitehead et al., 1997; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002), the manager should focus on fostering a mastery climate. A mastery climate is found to improve employees´ motivation, well-being, performance, and intentions to stay in the organization (Nerstad et al., 2013a). By fostering a mastery climate, leaders are likely to attract individuals with a growth mindset because of person-environment fit, and then reap the benefits of the growth mindset.

Secondly, this study shows that a growth mindset will strengthen the relationship between a mastery climate and self-efficacy. Even though the study did not find any support for the hypotheses including having a fixed mindset, earlier research indicates that there might be some negative aspects of having a fixed mindset. Dweck (2006) shows in her work that organizations with a mindset fixated on talent (a fixed mindset) are less likely to succeed than an organization focusing on the growth mindset and personal development. Furthermore, Buch et al. (2015) found that individual outcomes will improve due to the interplay of motivational climate and goal orientations. Leaders should therefore focus on improving, learn from mistakes and look failure in the eye to find out what the organization needs in the future to succeed (Dweck, 2006). Earlier research supports that individuals with a growth mindset have a higher performance over time (Dweck, 2006). Employee growth mindset is shown in this study to have a relation to self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is suggested to be influenced by the manager's behavior (Eden & Kinnar, 1991; Natanovich & Eden, 2001: Schyns & von Collani, 2002), and to increase personal initiative at work (Speier & Frese, 1997; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). This study finds a relation between a mastery climate and growth mindset with self-efficacy. As managers can be able to manipulate individuals´ mindsets, they can therefore direct their employees into

pursuing mastery goals and having a growth mindset (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck & Leggett, 1988), which is likely to lead to greater success.

Conclusion

Although potential relationships between employees´ goal orientations and the perceived motivational climate have been tested on athletes and children, insufficient attention has been given to the interplay between mindsets and motivational climates in a work context (Buch et al., 2015). The current study aimed to fill this research gap by studying whether the leader has an influence on the motivational climate at work and employees´ mindsets, and what relationship these variables have with employee achievement and taking charge at work. Earlier research has proposed that the leader is the main architect of the motivational climate (Ames, 1992b; Pensgaard & Roberts, 2002), and this study aimed to explore whether the leader can influence climates and thereby mindsets. Results showed a marginal, positive relationship between a mastery climate and a growth mindset. Furthermore, a mastery climate was found to have a stronger positive relationship to self-efficacy when the growth mindset was added to the model. This indicates that the leader should foster a mastery climate when giving feedback to employees and guide them into a growth mindset. Many organizations have been fixated on talent as being the key to success (Dweck, 2007). The current study´s results back up findings supporting that a focus on effort might be more beneficial for organizations (Mueller & Dweck, 1998). Additionally, a focus on effort will lead to higher self-confidence in the employees, which leads to them mastering failures and challenges, which is crucial to an organization's success (Dweck, 2006). We encourage future researchers to test the relationship of motivational climates and employee mindsets with achievement and taking charge in a larger sample size, and perhaps in an experimental design, to find stronger and causal relationships.

Acknowledgments

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Attachments

Appendix 1 – Questionnaire

Spørsmål til ansatte:

Arbeidsklima (motivational climate):

De neste 14 påstandene/utsagnene skal hjelpe deg til å beskrive **hvordan suksess er definert i din arbeidssituasjon**. For hver påstand skal du ta stilling til hvor enig eller uenig du er.

I min avdeling/arbeidsgruppe…

	Helt enig	Enig	Litt enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Litt uenig	Uenig	Helt uenig
1. ...oppfordres det til samarbeid og gjensidig utveksling av tanker og ideer.							
2. ...måles arbeidsprestasjoner på grunnlag av en sammenligning med kollegaers prestasjoner.							
3. ...legges det vekt på den enkeltes læring og utvikling.							
4. ...motiveres det til rivalisering mellom ansatte.							
5. ...oppfordres det til samarbeid og gjensidig kunnskapsutveksling.							
6. ...oppfordres det til interne konkurranser for å oppnå best mulig resultat.							
7. ...blir arbeidstakerne oppmuntret til å prøve nye løsningsmetoder i arbeidsprosessen.							
8. ...fremheves (kun) de arbeidstakerne som oppnår de aller beste resultatene/prestasjonene.							
9. ...eksisterer det et rivaliserende konkurranseforhold blant arbeidstakerne.							
10. ...blir man oppmuntret til å prestere optimalt for å ha muligheten til å oppnå pengebelønninger.							
11. ...har alle en viktig og tydelig oppgave i arbeidsprosessen.							
12. ...blir den enkeltes prestasjoner sammenliknet med andre kollegaers prestasjoner.							
13. ...er et av målene å få den enkelte til å føle at han/hun har en viktig rolle i arbeidsprosessen.							
14. ...er det viktig å prestere bedre enn andre.							

Tankesett (mindset):

I hvilken grad er du enig eller uenig i de følgende påstandene om dine ferdigheter/intelligens

	Helt enig	Enig	Litt enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Litt uenig	Uenig	Helt uenig
1. Din intelligens er noe du ikke kan endre veldig mye.							
2. Du har en viss intelligens og du kan egentlig ikke gjøre mye for å endre det.							
3. Du kan lære nye ting, men du kan ikke egentlig endre din grunnleggende intelligens.							
4. Uansett hvem du er kan du endre din intelligens mye.							
5. Du kan alltid endre hvor intelligent du er.							
6. Uansett hvor mye intelligens du har, kan du alltid forandre det ganske mye.							

Mestringstro (self-efficacy):

Hvordan ser du på deg selv i forhold til dine arbeidsoppgaver?

	Helt enig	Enig	Litt enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Litt uenig	Uenig	Helt uenig
1. Takket være mine egne ressurser vet jeg hvordan jeg skal takle uforutsette hendelser på jobb.							
2. Hvis jeg har problemer på jobb, kan jeg som oftest tenke ut hvordan jeg skal løse disse.							
3. Jeg beholder roen på jobb hvis jeg møter vanskeligheter fordi jeg kan stole på mine ferdigheter.							
4. Når jeg blir konfrontert med et problem på jobb kan jeg som oftest finne flere løsninger.							
5. Uansett hva som skjer med meg på jobb, kan jeg som oftest takle det.							
6. Mine tidligere erfaringer på jobb har forberedt meg godt til min fremtidige karriere.							
7. Jeg når de målene jeg setter for meg selv på jobb.							
8. Jeg føler meg forberedt til å møte de fleste krav i min jobb.							

Spørsmål til ledere:

Arbeidsinnsats og -kvalitet (achievement – work effort and work quality):

Hvordan vil du beskrive den ansattes arbeidsinnsats og arbeidskvalitet i forhold til de følgende påstandene?

	Helt enig	Enig	Litt enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Litt uenig	Uenig	Helt uenig
1. Han/hun forsøker å jobbe så hardt som overhodet mulig.							
2. Han/hun er svært opptatt av å gjøre en god innsats i jobben sin.							
3. Han/hun legger ofte inn ekstra innsats i jobben sin.							
4. Han/hun står ofte på litt ekstra i travle perioder.							
5. Han/hun nøler sjeldent med å ta i ett ekstra tak når det er behov for det.							
6. Kvaliteten på arbeidet hans/hennes er jevnt over på et høyt nivå.							
7. Arbeidet hans/hennes er av ypperste kvalitet.							
8. Han/hun presterer bedre enn det som kan forventes av en person i denne type jobb.							
9. Han/hun leverer sjeldent fra seg en jobb før han/hun er sikker på at kvaliteten på den holder et høyt nivå.							
10. Andre i organisasjonen ser på det han/hun leverer som typisk kvalitetsarbeid.							

Ekstra innsats for organisasjonen utover det forventede (taking charge):

Hvordan vil du beskrive den ansattes innsats for bedriften utover det forventede i forhold til de følgende påstandene?

	Helt enig	Enig	Litt enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Litt uenig	Uenig	Helt uenig
1. Denne personen prøver ofte å ta i bruk forbedrede måter å gjøre jobben på.							
2. Denne personen prøver ofte å endre måten å gjøre jobben på for å gjøre den mer effektivt.							
3. Denne personen prøver ofte å forbedre måter å gjøre ting på for sin enhet eller avdeling.							
4. Denne personen prøver ofte å innføre nye måter å gjøre jobben på som er mer effektive for organisasjonen.							
5. Denne personen prøver ofte å gjøre om på organisatoriske regler eller bestemmelser som er uproduktive eller hemmer produktiviteten.							
6. Denne personen kommer ofte med konstruktive forslag til hvordan ting bør gjøres bedre i organisasjonen.							
7. Denne personen prøver ofte å rette opp i mangelfulle eller ufullstendige bestemmelser eller praksiser.							
8. Denne personen prøver ofte å fjerne overflødige eller unødvendige prosedyrer.							
9. Denne personen prøver ofte å løse viktige problemer i organisasjonen.							
10. Denne personen prøver ofte å innføre nye former for organisering, teknologi, eller fremgangsmåter for å forbedre effektiviteten i organisasjonen.							

Appendix 2 – Preliminary Thesis Report

- Preliminary Thesis Report -

Examination code and name:
GRA 19003 – Preliminary Master Thesis

Hand-in date:
15.01.2016

Campus:
BI OSLO

Supervisor:
Anders Dysvik

Programme:
MSc Leadership and Organizational Psychology

Introduction

What motivates employees´ behavior at work in order to achieve organizational goals has been a big interest in motivational research (Wang, Liu, Chatzisarantis & Lim, 2010). It has been shown that achievement goal theory can explain and predict behavior in achievement settings (Wang et al., 2010). Concerning the achievement goal research, achievement goals are viewed in different forms. Both Ames (1992) and Dweck (1988), among others, have studied achievement motivation (Wang et al., 2010). Ames (1984, 1992) studied the motivational climate and divided this environment into a mastery and performance perceptions of motivational climates (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). The motivational climate can reinforce specific behaviors in employees that are associated with goals. Furthermore, Dweck views goal orientation as an individual variable that influences a person to pursue a pattern. The motivational climate is a situational factor that is seen to influence the likelihood of an individual pursuing a particular pattern (Papaioannou, Marsh & Theodorakis, 2004).

Motivational climates are work environments that shape individuals´ behavior in achievement settings (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Whether the climate is perceived as a performance climate or a mastery climate will have consequences on how employees behave within an organization (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015).

Furthermore, the mindsets of the employees also matter (Dweck, 2012). Dweck started the work on mindsets by researching how individuals cope with failure (Dweck, 2006). Working with children and students, Dweck has studied the differences in how people think when receiving a challenge (Dweck, 2006). Inspired by Carol Dweck, we find it very interesting to think about human beings as having the possibilities to adapt and learn. Dweck do not see individuals as having a talent or not, but view people's accomplishments according to what type of mindset one adopts (Dweck, 2014).

We wish to look further into how the leader can affect organizational performance through guiding the employees. The leader can create a motivational climate that will foster learning and motivation in employees (Nerstad, Roberts & Richardsen, 2013), and the leader can also guide employees into choosing a fixed or a growth mindset (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). In addition to looking at employee

achievement, we also find extra-role behavior to be important for organizational performance. In order to maintain their competitive advantage, organizations are dependent on their employees to be change-oriented in how they perform their work (Vadera, Pratt & Mishra, 2013; Dysvik, Kuvaas & Bush, 2015). For many employees, it has become necessary to be more creative and innovative in how they perform their work. A way to deviate from typical behavior may be to take charge (Vadera et al., 2013), which is found to be beneficial to both the organization and the employees (Vadera et al., 2013; Dysvik et al., 2015).

To our knowledge no study has yet researched the impact of motivational climates and mindsets on achievement and extra-role behavior in a work context. We wish to contribute to the leadership literature by expanding the knowledge on how leaders can influence employees´ achievement and extra effort at work. We therefore propose the research question;

Will the leader´s behavior and feedback have an impact on the motivational climate at work and employees´ mindsets, and what effects do these have on work achievement and employees´ taking charge at work?

This study potentially makes three contributions to the literature and practice: First, by looking at the motivational climate in relation and comparison to employees´ mindsets. Second, to show how the leader can impact employee achievement through exercising a specific climate and foster a specific mindset. Third, employees´ willingness to pursue extra-role behavior in taking charge because of a focus on a specific motivational climate and mindset. Overall, this study aims to provide theoretical and practical value, with recommendations for leadership development and practice.

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

Motivational Climate

Climate perceptions are suggested to help employees to understand what behaviors are expected and rewarded (Schulte, Ostroff, Shmulyian & Kinicki, 2009; Cˇerne, Nerstad, Dysvik & Škerlavaj, 2014). The motivational climate at work refers to employees' shared perceptions of the criteria for success and failure, which is emphasized through the policies, practices, and procedures of the

work environment (Nerstad et al., 2013; Cˇerne et al., 2014). The perceived motivational climate is described in the Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) as a climate that will play an important role in the motivational process that influences achievement behavior (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). AGT is concerned with an individual's disposition towards developing and demonstrating ability in achievement situations because of the social setting or environment (Nicholls, 1984, 1989; Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien, 2007; Nerstad et al., 2013). The motivational climate at work describes how employees are to be evaluated, to act towards each other and what goals are to be achieved (Ames, 1984; Ames & Ames, 1984a, 1984b; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). The work climate will shape an individual's morals, actions and norms in achievement settings, which leads to different meanings of success and failure and achievement strategies (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015).

A motivational climate can be categorized as a mastery climate or a performance climate. A mastery climate has been found to promote more adaptive behavior, by supporting effort and cooperation and emphasize learning, mastery and skill development (Ames, 1992a, 1992b; Nicholls, 1989; Cˇerne et al., 2014). What is important for the employees are to learn and be better than what each one has accomplished before (Ames, 1984; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). A performance climate, in contrast, emphasizes normative criteria for success (Nicholls ,1984,1989; Roberts, 2012; Cˇerne et al., 2014). The performance climate defines success and failure based on employees´ performance in comparison with others (Nerstad et al., 2013, p. 2233). In this type of climate the emphasis is on normative ability, social comparison, and intra-team competition (Ames & Ames, 1984; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Cˇerne et al., 2014). As a consequence of this, the only individuals that are acknowledged as successful are those who are the best achievers (Ames, 1984; Cˇerne et al., 2014).

Mindsets

Mindsets are people's implicit beliefs about the nature of human attributes, such as intelligence and personality. Some people believe that human attributes are traits that are fixed by nature. These people are also called entity theorists and hold a fixed mindset. Others believe that people can develop and improve their attributes over time. These people are called incremental theorists and hold a growth mindset (Dweck, 2012). The primary research on this concept focused on implicit theories of intelligence, and was tested on children and adolescents

(Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Hong, Chiu & Dweck, 1995; Levy, Stroessner & Dweck, 1998). Even though the research was first done on children, it has been well documented on adults too (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). This research showed that people with a fixed mindset used information about their own performance on a task to judge their own ability, whilst people with a growth mindset would use the same kind of information to assess their own effort (Levy et al., 1998). The fixed mindset is seen as a helpless pattern, in which the individual avoids a challenge and performs worse when facing obstacles. Helpless children are shown to exhibit negative self-cognitions, negative affect and impaired performance when facing failures. The growth mindset is seen as a mastery-oriented pattern, and explains an individual who seeks challenging tasks and strives under failure. Mastery-oriented children will exhibit constructive self-instructions and self-monitoring, a positive prognosis, positive affect and effective problem-solving strategies when facing failure or obstacles (Brunson & Matthews, 1981; Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

According to Dweck (2012) it matters what people's mindsets are. It has been shown that these mindsets make a difference for success in academics, in social relationships, in the workplace and in emotional and physical health. Because of this, it is proposed that what mindset one adopts is connected to that person´s goal. This could be either a performance goal or a learning goal, and the reason for choosing one or the other lies in a person's implicit theories (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Goal and goal-oriented behavior can be seen as an approach to motivation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). There is increasing evidence suggesting that the goal an individual is pursuing creates a framework for interpreting and responding to events that occur. Consequently, the same event may have a different meaning and impact if it occurs within the context of a learning goal or a performance goal (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

The results of Elliott and Dweck (1988) suggest that learning and performance goals may be very useful to understand achievement patterns. Each of the achievement goals is suggested to run off a different "program" with different commands, decision rules, and inference rules. Learning goals has been found to be associated with challenge seeking, as well as an effort/strategy focus, positive affect, and high persistence under difficulty. Performance goals on the other hand, are associated with a vulnerability to challenge avoidance and also to negative ability attributions, negative affect and low persistence under difficulty

(Dweck & Leggett, 1988). These goals were hypothesized by Dweck to be based on one's individual theory of intelligence (Bandura & Dweck, 1985; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Payne et al., 2007). Each goal is suggested to evoke different thoughts and emotions and therefore evoke different behaviors (Elliot & Dweck, 1988). Based on these different ways of perceiving identical situations, Elliot and Dweck (1988) hypothesized that helpless and mastery-oriented individuals might pursue very different goals. They suggested that individuals´ differences in perceptions and reactions might be a result of their different aims or purposes in a given situation. According to their research, helpless children might be pursuing performance goals, whereas mastery-oriented children might be pursuing learning goals. Therefore, when faced with a challenging achievement situation, helpless children might be pursuing the performance goal of proving their ability. In contrast, mastery-oriented children might be pursuing the learning goal of improving their ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Motivational Climates and Mindsets

For an individual to know what to do to achieve success, the feedback and behavior of his or her leader is vital. Because of this, we wish to look at what effects the different motivational climates will have on employee mindsets. The leader will create a motivational climate by his or her feedbacks and demands, which shows the employees what they need to do to be successful (Nerstad et al., 2013). The studies by Nerstad et al. (2013) show that employees´ performance, especially concerning work quality, might be enhanced in a mastery climate, and that the individual goal orientation will not determine how the situation will turn out. Nerstad et al. (2013) state that the environment is more important than individual orientations. This means that the organization can overcome negative dispositions by focusing on the criteria of the mastery climate, and that the climate is to contribute to employee motivation (Nerstad et al., 2013). Because the environment is a bigger impact on an employee´s chosen goal strategies than individual goal orientations, the motivational climate created at the workplace will have an impact on employees´ mindsets (Nerstad et al., 2013). The leader should thus be able to guide employees into a preferred mindset.

Furthermore, Elliott and Dweck (1988) show that individuals choose the helpless pattern or the mastery-oriented pattern as to where they are directed (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). When individuals are directed toward skill acquisition, they will choose the mastery-oriented pattern and the challenging task with an

opportunity to learn. However, when individuals are directed towards evaluation, the task chosen (challenging or easy) is dependent upon that individual's perceived ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Furthermore, a study by Licht and Dweck (1984) shows that an irrelevant passage at the beginning of a test will impair learning in individuals with a fixed mindset, but will not have an effect on the performance of individuals with a growth mindset (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). A study by Ames (1984) also showed that an individual would pursue different goal structures according to whether he or she was oriented towards evaluation of ability (fixed mindset) or towards improvement of abilities (growth mindset) (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Moreover, Dweck (2007) discovered that by making children read a passage on how you can develop your brain before doing an assessment would lead more children to believe that they had an impact on what they learn and what their results are (Dweck, 2007). Dweck´s (2007) experiments further show that a focus on effort, rather than intelligence, can help resolve helplessness in individuals and also engender success. These manipulations show that feedback from the leader to the employee can lead the employee into pursuing a helpless pattern or a mastery-oriented pattern.

The pre-dispositional perspectives individuals have together with the social agents will determine how individuals view achievement (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). The motivational climate is also important considering motivation (Ames, 1992; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). In sports, athletes have been shown to have increased interest, increased effort, positive attitudes, trying harder and persisting when faced with difficulty, when operating in a mastery climate (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Valentini & Rudisill, 2006; Nerstad et al., 2013). Likewise, individuals with a growth mindset focus on learning and improving, which is what we see in champions (Dweck, 2006). These people will think of what they have learned and see success in that, even if they lost their game or competition. Additionally, individuals with a growth mindset will find setbacks or failures motivating (Dweck, 2006).

We propose that this is also the case in work settings, and propose the hypothesis;

H1: A mastery climate will be positively related to individuals with a growth mindset.

On the contrary, in a performance climate, athletes are shown to behave more maladaptive, have decreased motivation, use ineffective strategies, worry more, perceive stress, seek easy tasks, and give up when facing difficulty (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Roberts et al., 2007; Nerstad et al., 2013). In a performance climate the focus is on winning, recognition and normative feedback (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). Similarly, individuals with a fixed mindset are only focusing on the talent, and that talent does not need effort (Dweck, 2006). These people only want to perform, and believe that more effort will set their talent in a bad light (Dweck, 2006). We therefore propose the following hypothesis;

H2: A performance climate will be positively related to individuals with a fixed mindset.

If an individual does not have the same values and orientation as the environment he or she is working in, this individual will not experience person-environment fit. When an individual lacks the values that leads to a good fit, this individual can experience negative outcomes such as dissatisfaction (Wheeler, Halbesleben & Shanine, 2013; Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015) and the employee might have less energy for being inclusive and polite towards coworkers (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). A lack of person-environment fit might also enhance disrespectful and condescending behavior towards coworkers (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Individuals with a growth mindset have a focus on learning and improving (Dweck, 2006). On the other hand, in a performance climate, individuals are judged on their performance and wish to look great the first time they do the task (Nerstad et al., 2013). This climate might therefore suppress learning by focusing on not to fail whilst performing the task (Dweck, 2006). We suggest the following hypothesis;

H3: Individuals with a growth mindset will not fit with a performance motivational climate

Similarly, an employee who has an obsessive passion towards work might experience a mastery climate as a threat to his or her self-esteem (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2015). Individuals with a fixed mindset do not wish to exert extra effort

when working on a task, they wish to succeed the first time to prove their talent or intelligence (Dweck, 2006). Because of this we propose the hypothesis;

H4: Individuals with a fixed mindset will not fit with a mastery motivational climate

Employee Achievement

The feedback and behavior of the leader will thus guide employees to achieve more or less. Dweck (2007) shows in her studies that by teaching individuals to have a growth mindset and praise effort rather than ability, individuals will turn into high achievers and live up to their full potential. Furthermore, the different mindsets have shown to have a dramatic impact on performance. Individuals with a growth mindset performed better than individuals with a fixed mindset over time, which shows that there is a relation between mindset and achievement (Dweck, 2007). The motivational climate will play an important part to individuals when demonstrating ability in achievement situations (Nerstad et al., 2013), where a mastery climate will promote effort and learning and better performance than a performance climate (Cˇerne et al., 2014).

Individuals with a growth mindset would view a challenging task or problem as an opportunity to learn. In contrast to individuals with a fixed mindset, individuals with a growth mindset will not think that they are failing even though confronted with difficult problems. Individuals with a growth mindset view challenges as something to be mastered through higher effort, not as a threat to their ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). The research done by Dweck and Leggett (1988) has shown that all individuals, with both fixed and growth mindsets, have the same abilities as a starting point to solve an identical task (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Actually, a person with a growth mindset would try to master a task even though he or she thought his or her abilities were low before starting the task (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). This shows that it is not the skill or ability that determines the success or failure, but what kind of mindset one has.

The motivational climate will decide how individuals interpret achievement (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999). The behavior in a mastery climate has proven to result in better performance, higher levels of work engagement, additional effort, persistence in the face of difficulty, and positive relationships with others (Nerstad et al., 2013; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Roberts, 2012;

Cˇerne et al., 2014). Individuals with a growth mindset are not afraid to face failures or admit mistakes, and believe in human development to achieve success. To achieve success, leaders with a growth mindset look at what skills are needed in the future for the organization to succeed, and build on these skills in employees. These leaders are not thinking about talent, but on learning (Dweck, 2006). Present achievement will tell you where the employee is today, but not where the employee can go (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a growth mindset believe that if you work harder, you will perform better, and these people are also shown to perform better over time (Dweck, 2006). Our next hypothesis is therefore;

H5: A growth mindset and a mastery climate will lead to high employee achievement

A performance climate has been found to promote several maladaptive outcomes, such as poorer performance, performance anxiety, lower persistence, controlled motivation, and turnover intentions (Abrahamsen, Roberts & Pensgaard, 2008; Nerstad et al., 2013; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1999; Cˇerne et al., 2014). Another negative side effect that can be developed in this climate is negative interdependence among employees, because performing better than coworkers is their goal (Ames & Ames, 1984; Cˇerne et al., 2014), which might also lead to poorer achievement.

Individuals with a fixed mindset appear to view challenging tasks or problems as a threat to their self-esteem. This is because these individuals would view a task that they cannot master immediately as their ability being inadequate. People with a fixed mindset see further effort as proving their inadequate ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals with a fixed mindset will focus on intelligence when facing difficulty, and will blame their own intelligence for not being able to solve the task (Dweck, 2006). These individuals view difficulty or failure as a threat and are afraid they will be looked upon as losers, and are afraid to learn and therefore focus on protecting their own ego. They protect their ego by not trying to solve the task, to avoid failure. This shows that individuals with a fixed mindset will exert less effort than individuals with a growth mindset when solving tasks (Dweck, 2006).

Moreover, people with a fixed mindset are very worried about how things appear to the outside world and how they look. An organization with a huge focus on talents will force its employees into a fixed mindset. Individuals with a fixed mindset do not accept their failures and build on their deficiencies, or take risks, and flaws are viewed as intolerable (Dweck, 2006). Studies by Dweck (2006) on students with fixed and growth mindsets show that up until a certain level of difficulty, the students will have grades that are indistinguishable. However, when the tasks get more difficult and the grading toughens, individuals with a fixed mindset will give up and think they are not smart enough, whilst individuals with a growth mindset will strive and eventually perform better (Dweck, 2006). This shows that up to a certain point, employees with a fixed mindset will perform well because of their talent. The fixed mindset will over time limit achievement, lessen effort and make other people into judges instead of allies (Dweck, 2006). Because people with a fixed mindset do not take risks and wish to perform known tasks, changes will lead to poorer achievement (Dweck, 2006). Additionally, because individuals with a fixed mindset believe that success is due to ability, they will not strive to perform over time (Dweck, 2006). Thus we propose a curvilinear relationship between the fixed mindset and the performance climate and achievement;

H6: A fixed mindset and a performance climate will lead to curvilinear employee achievement

Taking Charge

For employees to take charge, certain conditions in the organization should be in place. Taking charge is a type of extra-role behavior, where employees go beyond role expectations in a way that is organizationally functional (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). This type of behavior entails both voluntary and constructive efforts by employees within the context of their jobs. Taking charge is discretionary behavior, meaning a behavior that is not formally required. It is change-oriented and intended to improve organizations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

During the past decade, there has been a growing interest on extra-role behavior that goes beyond role-expectations in a way that is organizational functional. The most researched form of such behavior is organizational

citizenship behavior (OCB) and can be defined as "those organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantee or recompense" (Organ, 1990, p. 46; Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). Examples of typical OCB behavior can be to help colleagues with their workloads, not taking longer breaks than necessary, attending gatherings that are not required and alerting with others about work-related problems (Organ, 1988, Morrison & Phelps, 1999) Even though these type of extra-role activities are important, they may not be enough for ensuring a continued viability of an organization. Moreover, organizations also need employees who are willing to challenge the present state to bring out constructive change (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Taking charge is similar to other forms of extra-role behaviors in that it is not formally required from the organization, but taking charge is inherently change-oriented and aimed at organizational improvement (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The decision to take-charge is suggested to be affected by two judgments; first, as assessment of likely success and second, an assessment of likely consequences (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Taking charge has been shown to be related to felt responsibility, self-efficacy, and perceptions of top management openness (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). The research of Morrison & Phelps (1999) indicates that employees are more likely to take charge when they perceive top management as open to their suggestions and to employee-initiated change. Top management openness is defined "as the degree to which top management is believed to encourage and support suggestions and change initiatives from below" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406). This underlines the importance of a work-context that is supportive. Also, employees are more likely to take charge when they have high levels of self-efficacy (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Self-efficacy can be defined as "an employee`s estimate of his or her capacity to perform" (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406). Several studies have suggested that self-efficacy is the most important individual-level variable that predicts taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Self-efficacy has been found to increase personal initiative at work (Speier & Frese, 1997, Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Lastly, when the employees feel a sense of responsibility, they are more likely to take charge. Felt responsibility is "an individual's belief about whether he or she is personally obligated to bring about constructive change" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 406).

The results of high level of self-efficacy and a sense of felt responsibility show that the decision about whether or not taking charge is affected not only by the context, but also by individual characteristics. This indicates that within the same organization, some individuals, those with high self-efficacy and felt responsibility, may be more likely to take charge than others (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). It is therefore suggested that organizations should try to select employees with these attributes, or alternatively, try to develop those attributes among their employees (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). What have distinguished the better performing organizations from the others, are leaders that are self-effacing who ask questions, look failures in the face and remain a faith that they will succeed. These leaders have the growth mindset and thereby foster a mastery climate (Dweck, 2006). Individuals with a mastery-oriented pattern will strive to find a solution and focus on self-instructions and self-monitoring (Diener & Dweck, 1978). An organization that has a focus on growth mindsets and mastery climate will thus likely develop more individuals with the individual characteristics of taking charge. We propose that;

H7: A growth mindset and mastery climate will be positively related to employees taking charge

Individuals pursuing a helpless pattern would spend little time on overcoming obstacles and failures (Diener & Dweck, 1978), so these individuals will probably take less charge. Findings suggest that individuals will take charge if they feel support from the organization. However, if they feel too much or too little support, this can lead to less taking charge (Burnett, Chiaburu, Shapiro & Li, 2015). This is similar to children with overly nurturing parents and students with overly nurturing teachers, who are found to be less confident and weaker in problem solving (Burnett et al., 2015). Employees might see the costs of taking charge as them being replaced because of inability (Burnett et al., 2015). This shows that both the motivational climate and mindset of the employee will play a part in the employee taking charge, and in particular employees with a fixed mindset having focus on ability might lead to less taking charge. Thus, we propose the hypothesis;

H8: A fixed mindset and performance climate will be negatively related to employees taking charge

Preliminary Research Model

This theory leads to the research model presented in figure 1. The hypotheses are illustrated with the assumed directions of relationships.
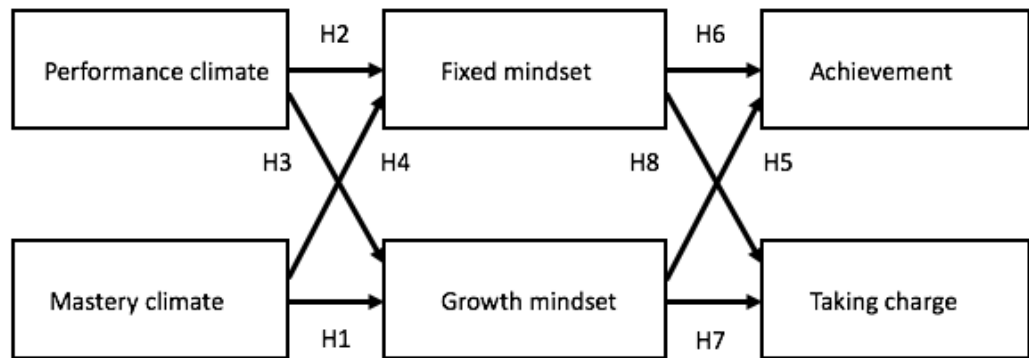

Figure 1: Preliminary Research Model

Proposed Methodology

Procedure and Sample

A quantitative cross-sectional study will be performed to complete this study. A cross-sectional approach is preferred for the results to be as generalizable as possible. The survey will be in Norwegian and will be sent out by e-mail to several companies in order to obtain at least 150 responses. Data will be collected from leaders and this leaders´ employees in order to find out whether the leader´s behavior and feedback will impact the motivational climate and employee mindset, and thereby affect achievement and taking charge. The leader will answer questions about the employee's´ achievement and taking charge, whilst the employees will answer questions concerning motivational climate and mindset.

Measures

The motivational climate will be measured from the employee perspective using Nerstad et al.´s (2013) Motivational Climate at Work Questionnaire.

Mindsets will be measured from the employee perspective using Dweck's (1999) Theory of Intelligence.

Achievement will be measured by Dysvik and Kuvaas´ (2011) measures on the leader's view on employee effort and work quality.

Taking charge will be measured from the leader's perspective using Morrison and Phelps´ (1999) measures on employees´ taking charge behavior.

Additionally, we wish to control for individual self-efficacy in employees. The measures will be taken from Schyns and von Collani (2002).

All measures will be assessed using a 7-point Likert scale, from Agree to Disagree.

Analysis

The analysis will be presented in the final thesis.

Tentative Plan for Completion of Master Thesis

Timeframe	Key Activities and Milestones
February 2016	Send out surveys in companies and find more companies to collect data from
March 2016	Collect data and send out more surveys
April 2016	Collect data, analyze data and write first draft
May 2016	Continue analyzing data and write first draft
June 2016	Review and edit
July-August 2016	Finalization of thesis
31st August 2016	Hand in final thesis

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