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The mediating role of motivational climates: Performance management systems and (un)intended employee behaviors -

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Master of Science in Leadership and Organizational Psychology

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Have a good read.

The authors

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Abstract

This is a quantitative study investigating whether perceiving goals as invariable relates to taking charge behavior and turnover intention and whether the proposed relationship is mediated by employees' perceived motivational climate at work. Perceiving goals as invariable refers to the extent to which one considers goals, established through a performance management system, as absolute and specific standards that must be met without accounting for situational factors that are not associated with the goals. In support of our hypotheses, we found that perceived invariable goals positively relate to turnover intention and that a perceived mastery climate mediates this relationship. The relationship between perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior is labeled indirect-only. Further, a perceived performance climate was not found to mediate any of the hypothesized relationships. Our findings' theoretical and practical implications and future research directions are discussed.

Keywords: performance management, invariable goals, taking charge behavior, turnover intention, motivational climates

Introduction

Virtually all organizations in the 21st century have implemented a system to assess their employees and team performance (Aguinis et al., 2011). According to Cascio (2006), a study that included 278 organizations revealed that more than 90% implement formal performance management systems. Two-thirds of the organizations included in the study were multinational corporations from 15 countries. However, both research findings and employee surveys imply that performance management systems are not worthy of their popularity. Only three out of ten workers believe that their employers' performance management system helped enhance performance (Holland, 2006).

Prior research has provided important insights into goal-setting theory and its influence on aspects of organizational effectiveness, such as job performance, productivity, and efficiency. Our study aims to further increase the understanding of unfavorable consequences related to performance management systems in response to calls that have been made for research on the unintended effects of such systems (e.g., Franco-Santos & Otley, 2018).

The current study proposes that performance management systems might unfavorably yield behavioral outcomes for employees. In particular, we investigate how employees' perception of goals in performance management systems relates to taking charge behavior and turnover intention. Furthermore, our research pursues to view the abovementioned variables through the lens of mastery and performance climates, derived from traditional achievement goal theory (AGT).

In practice, performance management should provide direction of work and somewhat stimulate employee motivation. However, Kuvaas et al. (2016) argue that potential value through human resources could get lost in translation if employees perceive the goals of their performance management system as invariable. Perceiving goals as invariable refers to the extent to which employees conduct their work without accounting notably for ad hoc and situational factors (Kuvaas et al., 2016). According to Pulakos and O'Leary (2011), such a perception could prevent formal performance management systems from working as intended and turn them into predominantly administrative drills that encourage little value creation through human resources.

The changing dynamics of work have created a need for creative and proactive employees in today's global, decentralized, and performance-oriented organizations (Crant, 2000; Vadera et al., 2013). Our desire is to further extend

research on performance management and taking charge behavior by investigating whether perceiving goals as invariable negatively relates to employees' aspiration to challenge the status quo and bring about positive and constructive change in one's organization. The current study operationalizes such behavior as taking charge behavior in line with Morrison and Phelps' (1999) notions that it can significantly support organizational effectiveness. In line with Kuvaas et al. (2014), we suggest that perceiving goals as invariable is an obstacle to taking charge behavior. On the one hand, rigid compliance to goal performance might produce desirable attention to financial performance indicators and organizational goals (Kuvaas et al., 2016). This aligns with the so-called hard human resource management (HRM) approach, which focuses mainly on shareholder and employer interests (Aguinis et al., 2011). On the other hand, to support employee involvement and development, perceiving goals as invariable in partnership with prolonged goal-setting cycles may be particularly detrimental to taking charge behavior.

Furthermore, it is considered essential for HRM researchers to understand and predict human behavior in the workplace (O'Boyle Jr. & Aguinis, 2012). The current study investigates turnover intention, which is considered the most proximate and direct cognitive predictor of factual employee turnover. Research findings suggest that turnover is costly and expected to increase as turnover intention correlates with turnover and thus symbolizes the single best predictor of turnover (Lee & Bruvold, 2003; Nerstad et al., 2018a; Griffeth, 2000). Additionally, findings in a comprehensive meta-analysis by Griffeth (2000) illustrate that employee turnover represents the most extreme form of workplace withdrawal.

To extend the abovementioned areas of research, we seek to investigate whether the relationship between perceived invariable goals, taking charge behavior, and turnover intention are mediated by the achievement context (i.e., mastery and performance climate). By setting stretched goals, emphasizing communication, and close monitoring, goal-setting in performance management can be a robust theory for utilizing employees' potential. However, calls have been made for research on the relatively unexplored contextual factors of HRM practices, such as performance management (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006; Kraimer et al., 2011; O'Boyle Jr. & Aguinis, 2012). Hence, we seek to contribute to this line of research by investigating employees' perception of performance management practice at the micro level; because one can expect that mastery and performance climates either is favorable or unfavorable for the relationships explored in this study due to their characteristics (Ames, 1992; Nicholls, 1984).

Theoretical framework

The current study applies literature from numerous research areas in its theoretical framework. In the following, prominent research from the different areas is presented sequentially, in line with our research model (Appendix A) and hypotheses. Case in point, first, performance management and perceiving goals as invariable is covered. Second, prominent literature on taking charge behavior and turnover intention is emphasized. Finally, we draw attention to mastery and performance climate, our two mediating variables.

Performance management

Aguinis (2013, p. 2) defines performance management as "a continuous process of identifying, measuring, and developing the performance of individuals and teams and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organization". However, what most think of when asked to describe the performance management system of their employer, most portray performance appraisal (Aguinis, 2013). Therefore, clarifying the critical difference between the two is essential. Whereas performance management is a continuous process, performance appraisal is non-continuous and depicts employees' strengths and weaknesses, usually once a year (Aguinis, 2013). Performance management emphasizes individual and team progress and identifies potential areas that need improvement; performance appraisal is merely focused on measuring past performance (Aguinis et al., 2011).

Performance management systems have been given an extensive amount of attention in organizational behavior research for over 30 years (Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011). Nevertheless, Pulakos and O'Leary (2011) argue that the operational implementation of such systems does not work as well as research suggests that it should do. Top-level decision-makers in organizations and human resource professionals seem to flock to new approaches as long as they (i.e., performance management systems) promise to increase performance and boost employee effectiveness (Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011). On the one hand, done right, the system should implement the organization's strategy, communicate essential aspects of it, and drive employees towards achieving results. On the other hand, implementation and execution failure can damage relationships and undermine employee

confidence (Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011). The authors posit that "a significant part of the problem is that performance management has been reduced to prescribed, often discrete steps within a formal administrative system, the results of which are highly scrutinized" (Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011, p. 148).

Further, Pulakos and O'Leary (2011) claim that it is not the tools and processes (e.g., competency models and rating scales) that prevent formal performance management systems from working well. It is rather the absence of manager and employee training in how to engage in effective performance management behavior (e.g., specifying expectations and providing feedback). Daily engaging in these behaviors determine the effectiveness of performance management, not rolling out formal system tools and steps (Pulakos & O'Leary, 2011). Although tools and steps (i.e., processes) can facilitate effective performance management, it does not yield effectiveness alone. Thus, implying that employees are dependent on some form of follow-up.

Most decision-makers in modern organizations rely upon performance appraisal systems in some shape or form when making decisions about, for instance, career development and compensation (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989; Landy & Farr, 1980, as cited in DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006). According to DeNisi and Pritchard (2006), although dating back to the early 1920s, research has failed to increase practitioners' ability to design and implement systems of performance appraisal that yield improved individual performance. Pulakos (2004, as cited in DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006, p. 253) conducted a survey revealing that only one in ten employees "believe that their firm's appraisal system helps them improve performance". Hence, indicating a gap between the usefulness of existing research and the state of affairs in practice.

DeNisi and Pritchard (2006) argue that improving measurement has become the goal in appraisal research, rather than integrating towards more significant performance management issues. The gap between research and practice is somewhat widespread in the field of management. However, academic research in other areas (e.g., selection) has been able to inform practice. For that reason, the authors argue that one must look beyond the idea that research has provided answers but that practitioners simply do not utilize them (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006).

Invariable goals

Setting goals, evaluating goal attainment, and providing performance feedback are the three interrelated activities typically involved in performance management (Kuvaas et al., 2016). According to Aguinis et al. (2011), performance management should be implemented and perceived as a continuous process. However, when performance objectives (e.g., goals and key performance indicators) are set once or twice a year, Kuvaas et al. (2016, p. 244) argue that the chances are they will become "obsolete, redundant, or wrong". The question is whether employees should continue to strive toward goal attainment or adjust them during the performance cycle. The present study investigates how perceiving goals as invariable relates to taking charge behavior and turnover intention. Further, we explore if motivational climates (i.e., performance and mastery climate) function as a mediator of this relationship.

Perceiving goals as invariable refers to how employees, without exception, perceive goals (established through performance management systems) as absolute and specific standards that they must meet (Kuvaas et al., 2016). Combined with prolonged performance cycles, perceiving goals as invariable is a pitfall that organizations should prevent to sustain their competitive edge. Organizations presumably rely on their employees to continuously assess the validity of the assigned goals (Kuvaas et al., 2016). However, these expectations are arguably somewhat reciprocal.

Kuvaas et al. (2016) suggest that employees who perceive goals in a performance management system as invariable to a great degree will conduct their work without accounting considerably for ad hoc and situational factors. The extent likely varies between employees, Kuvaas et al. (2016) posit that one's competency may explain some of the variations. For the purpose of this study, the definition of competency provided by Kuvaas et al. (2016, p. 243) applies: "Having the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities, in addition to being proximate to the task and situation". Further, the authors suggest that by being competent, employees are most likely able to make decisions about when and whether other urgencies than austere goal attainment are warranted.

Kuvaas et al. (2016) found that perceiving goals as invariable is a practically relevant challenge associated with performance management and were the first to investigate the matter. Moreover, the authors found that it can negatively influence job autonomy and, thereby, job performance.

Taking charge behavior

Organizations in the 21st century have become more global, flexible, decentralized, and performance-oriented (Crant, 2000; Vadera et al., 2013). Consequently so, creativity, initiative, and proactivity have become critical behavioral determinants of organizational success. Crant (2000) posits that proactive behavior can be a high-leverage concept, opposing other management fads. Accordingly, employees may deviate from the norms and procedures of their employers. Although important research findings have claimed that such behavior can be harmful, Vadera et al. (2013) and Morrison and Phelps (1999) argue that it can significantly support organizational effectiveness. While Crant (2000, p. 436) posits that proactive behavior has been conceptualized and measured in numerous ways, he defines it as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones". Furthermore, rather than passively adapting to the current condition, Crant (2000) emphasizes that proactive behavior involves challenging the status quo.

Vadera et al. (2013) reason that proactive behavior may not always be perceived as constructively deviant. However, both Vadera et al. (2013) and Crant (2000) embrace taking charge behavior in their research. Although the authors conceptualize taking charge under somewhat different umbrella terms (i.e., constructive deviance and proactive behavior), we have decided to include both views in our study due to the conceptual coherence of taking charge behavior in research. In the present study, we investigate the extent to which perceiving goals as invariable relates to taking charge behavior. Taking charge behaviors, as used in this study:

... entail voluntary, and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the context of their job, work units, or organizations (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403)

Whereas most extra-role behavior research has focused on what Organ (1988) referred to as modest behaviors that sustain the status quo, Morrison and Phelps (1999) claim that extra-role behavior research underemphasizes the proactive component. According to Morrison and Phelps (1999), organizations are dependent on employees who challenge the status quo to engender constructive change. In response to calls for investigating the obstacles or inhibitors of these

behaviors (e.g., Vadera et al., 2013), we intend to contribute to this line of research by exploring if and to what extent performance management systems (i.e., perceiving invariable goals) relates to taking charge behavior. Morrison and Phelps (1999) posit that most extra-role behavior is limited by organizational citizenship behavior's (OCB) overly narrow conceptualization. Subsequently, McAllister et al. (2007) argue that taking charge behavior is conceptually and empirically distinct from OCB in that it is change-oriented to a higher degree. Furthermore, the increasing complexity of organizations has made them respond by, to some extent, redefining work roles and progressively relying on employee behaviors that are not prescribed in their job description (Chiaburu & Baker, 2006).

According to Hornstein (1986, as cited in Morrison & Phelps, 1999), it comes down to a conflict in everyday experience between those employees who loyally conduct their work. Hence, those who manage established routines and those who courageously challenge existing routines to ensure the successful functioning of their organization. We propose that employees who perceive goals as absolute and specific standards they must meet without exception to a lesser extent will go beyond the boundaries of their daily work to bring about positive change. Thus, to bring about constructive change concerning how one's job is executed, perceiving goals as invariable in combination with prolonged performance cycles is a pitfall organizations should prevent to cultivate their competitive edge. Moreover, Morrison and Phelps (1999) found that taking charge relates to individual characteristics such as self-efficacy. In conjunction with the assertion of Kuvaas et al. (2016) that competency may explain some of the variations in employees' perceptions of invariable performance management goals, we therefore hypothesize:

H1: There is a negative relationship between perceiving goals as invariable and taking charge behavior.

Turnover intention

Whereby turnover is the termination of one's employment with a given organization, Tett and Meyer (2006) posit that turnover intention is defined as a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization. The term is repeatedly used in research to describe the last sequence in withdrawal cognitions. The latter term is defined as "a set to which thinking of quitting and intent to search

for alternative employment also belong (e.g., Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978, as cited in Tett & Meyer, 2006, p. 264).

According to turnover intention, as defined by Schyns et al. (2007), the term further includes an element of voluntariness. Voluntary turnover is considered selfmotivated and studied as a workplace phenomenon (Schyns et al., 2007). Scholars regularly assume that the intention of terminating one's employment must be prevented because of its potential adverse consequences (e.g., costs related to recruiting and selecting new staff). However, Torka's (2003, as cited in Schyns et al., 2007) research findings suggest that low turnover can be problematic since it can relate to a lack of innovation. Moreover, Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) have recognized employee turnover as a significant managerial concern in contemporary work organizations.

On the one hand, organizations will arguably prefer underperforming employees to leave. In support of this assertion, Griffeth (2000) posits that low performers are more likely to quit as opposed to high-performing colleagues. On the other hand, however, top performers are also more likely to seek openings elsewhere, thus vulnerable to turnover intention (Schyns et al., 2007). For the purpose of this study, turnover intention is recognized mainly as an undesirable consequence for organizations. Although some scholars characterize constructive consequences such as replacing low-performing employees as desirable (e.g., Lee & Jimenez, 2011), we will focus on turnover intention primarily as an undesirable work phenomenon. All else equal, undesirable and adverse consequences such as increased costs through recruitment and selection; disruption of a team and organizational structures; and a potential decline in productivity will arguably make organizations struggle to obtain satisfactory performance levels over time (Collins & Smith, 2006; Trevor & Nyberg, 2008).

Arthur (1994, as cited in Kuvaas et al., 2016) distinguished between control and commitment HRM systems and found that steel mills operating with the former system had considerably greater scrap rates and turnover than steel mills with the latter system. By imposing employee compliance with rules and procedures and grounding employee rewards in measurable output criteria, the objective of a control HRM system is to decrease direct labor costs and increase efficiency (Arthur, 1994, as cited in Kuvaas et al., 2016). Case in point, perceiving goals as invariable may have a similar influence on turnover intention as surveillance and evaluation in control HRM systems. In a meta-analysis that collected data from 65 studies, Zimmerman and Darnold (2009) found support for the relationship between job performance and turnover intention. Although the current study does not investigate job performance, research findings display a negative relationship between perceiving goals as invariable and job performance (Kuvaas et al., 2016). Also, goals that do not account for eventualities or other situational factors are recognized as a potential pitfall (e.g., Latham et al., 2005) for performance. We therefore hypothesize:

H2: There is a positive relationship between perceiving goals as invariable and turnover intention.

Achievement goal theory

Motivation is one of the most prevalent constructs in organizational psychology and behavior literature. Roberts and Treasure (2012) define motivational processes as a psychological construct that energizes, directs, and regulates behavior. The conceptual motivational framework of the current study is termed achievement goal theory (AGT). Grounded in traditional AGT, motivation is a process whereby people will be either motivated or demotivated by the meaning of the achievement situation and assessing their capability when at work (Nerstad, 2012). Roberts and Treasure (2012) posit that traditional AGT emphasizes "the why" employees strive to achieve and utilize effort at work. Further, the authors argue that the objective of striving is to demonstrate valued competence to oneself or others.

Nicholls (1984, p. 328) defines achievement behavior as "that behavior in which the goal is to develop or demonstrate-to self or others-high ability, or to avoid demonstrating low ability". Further, the author distinguishes between two conceptions of ability: mastery orientation and performance orientation. According to Nicholls' (1984) AGT, individuals with a mastery orientation feel successful when striving to develop their ability through learning. In comparison, individuals with a performance orientation base their conception of ability relative to a normative reference group. Moreover, mastery and performance orientations are a function of the context (i.e., motivational climate), which refers to perceptions of the success or failure criteria in the environment (Ames, 1992). However, one should not confuse motivational climate with goal orientation (mastery and

performance orientation) or individual motivation (autonomous or controlled) (Nerstad et al., 2018b).

Mastery climate

According to Ames (1992), a motivational climate is represented by two different structures; a mastery climate and a performance climate. The former emphasizes learning and achieving mastery based on self-improvement through comparing one's current level of performance with one's past accomplishments (Ames, 1992). Ntoumanis and Biddle (1998) argue that perceptions of a mastery climate relate to a high intrinsic interest in activities and emphasis on effort. Furthermore, Ames (1992) posits that those placed in mastery climates predict more adaptive motivational outcomes than those in performance climates.

Research findings suggest that a mastery climate promotes persistence, better performance, additional effort, and higher levels of work engagement (Nerstad et al., 2018a; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998). Furthermore, research suggests that a mastery climate can predict important employee outcomes such as innovative work behavior, burnout, job engagement, turnover intention, incivility, and work performance (Birkeland & Nerstad, 2016; Černe et al., 2014; Nerstad, 2012). In an academic context, Ames and Archer (1988, as cited in Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998) found the two climates to be uncorrelated. However, Walling et al. (1993, as cited in Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998, p. 183) argued that the two dimensions "cannot be unrelated because it would have been a contradiction". In support of the former argument, Nerstad et al. (2013) found the two climate dimensions to be related but separate due to their negative correlation.

As defined by traditional achievement goal theory, the motivational climate at work refers to employees' mutual perceptions of the present criteria for success and failure emphasized by their work environment's procedures, practices, and policies (Nerstad et al., 2013). We propose that employees' perceptions of a mastery climate mediate the relationship between perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior and turnover intention. In line with the presented theory and empirical findings on taking charge behavior and turnover intention, individuals in a mastery climate could find improvisation and other priorities than strict goal attainment more important (Kuvaas et al., 2016). Therefore, although procedures, practices, and policies (i.e., goals) are perceived as absolute and specific, we propose that mastery climate characteristics (e.g., higher levels of work engagement) will mediate the relationships. Perceptions of the present criteria for success and failure will arguably emphasize learning and effort. Thus, employees in a mastery climate who perceive goals as invariable should, to a lesser extent, have intentions to leave and somewhat practice taking charge behavior. We therefore hypothesize:

H3: The relationship between a) perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior, and b) perceived invariable goals and turnover intention are mediated by a mastery climate.

Performance climate

Traditional AGT assumes that perceived mastery and performance climates are orthogonal (Buch et al., 2017). Therefore, one can perceive the motivational climate as both mastery and performance involving (i.e., highly performance involving and less mastery involving, or the other way around). Ames (1992) suggests that the two climates likely are two autonomous dimensions of the perceived motivational climate that interact to affect behavior and motivation. In contrast to a mastery climate, a performance climate fosters social comparison among employees and nurtures intrateam competition (Ames, 1992). According to Černe et al. (2014), employees in a performance climate are more likely to perceive colleagues as competitors, get recognized for demonstrating their ability, and be rewarded when performing better than others. Research findings suggest that a performance climate typically relates to less self-determined motivation (i.e., autonomous motivation), effort withdrawal, and decreased performance levels (Harwood et al., 2015; Parish & Treasure, 2003; Nerstad et al., 2013). Furthermore, a performance climate has been found to promote maladaptive outcomes such as turnover intentions, obstructing innovation, and performance anxiety (Abrahamsen et al., 2008; Nerstad et al., 2013; Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998).

In contrast to a mastery climate, a performance climate fosters a situation of negative interdependence among employees as it promotes egoistic motivation (Nerstad et al., 2013). We propose that employees' perceptions of a performance climate mediate the relationship between invariable goals and taking charge behavior and turnover intention. We assume that perceiving goals as invariable at work will enhance performance climate characteristics, especially the likes of intrateam competition and turnover intentions (Ntoumanis & Biddle, 1998). Because only the best achievers are acknowledged as successful, employees might

also refrain from taking charge as success requires rigid effort toward absolute and specific goals (Černe et al., 2014; Kuvaas et al., 2016). We therefore hypothesize:

H4: The relationship between a) perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior, and b) perceived invariable goals and turnover intention are mediated by a performance climate.

Research methodology

Procedure and participants

To ensure compliance with ethical guidelines, the Norwegian Social Service Data Services (NSD) approved our research and data collection methods. In hindsight, approval from NSD was unnecessary, but it assures that we comply with ethical standards. Hence, the questionnaire distributed maintains participant confidentiality. Further, employees working full-time and incorporated in performance management systems were asked and eligible to participate. This method for screening participants is not bulletproof, therefore, certain respondents could be outside the intended target group for the study.

This is a quantitative study, with data being collected through a web-based questionnaire. The design is cross-sectional, meaning that data was collected at a single point in time, allowing us to identify patterns of association (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The survey was distributed through professional networks, via email and LinkedIn, directing them to our survey developed in a web-based tool (i.e., Qualtrics). Regarding email distribution, we contacted a selection of relevant organizations with, as a minimum, a human resource, finance, and IT department. We assume that most of the respondents in this study work in finance, consultancy, information technology (IT), and human resources (HR).

Concrete estimations of distribution are challenging, considering we also distributed through social media platforms, like LinkedIn. However, a realistic estimation is that approximately 2000 potential respondents were provided with the opportunity to participate. Hence, we ended up with a response rate of around 8% (i.e., 250 respondents), while data cleaning led to 138 responses fit for analysis. We acknowledge that the final sample is relatively small and struggle to conclude why the completion rate is at the current level. We notice that most incomplete responses are defectors when asked about turnover intention, which may be considered a sensitive question. However, this is merely speculative.

terms of the demographic variables demonstrating sample In representativeness for the population we aim to study, we have no concrete or specific indicators of this. However, our measurement of managerial responsibility (do you have managerial responsibility: yes/no) implies that our sample is somewhat realistic, considering we have more respondents with no managerial responsibility (60%) compared to those with managerial responsibility (40%). The distribution of age might also function as an indicator of sample representativeness, due to most respondents being aged between 18-45 years old (80%), representing the majority workforce in Norway (SSB, 2022). It should be mentioned that this is a fair representation of our professional networks, assuming the majority of our contacts are within this range and the abovementioned sectors. Moreover, within our assumed sectors (i.e., finance, IT, HR, etc.), our education variable indicates that the majority of respondents have achieved a master's degree (42%). Finally, our demographic variable on gender provides a close to 50% representation of both males and females, even with respondents being able to acknowledge themselves as a third gender.

Measures

All respondents were exposed to the same variables and questions, measured through 33 items, resulting in nine variables. In order to ensure that our constructs measured what they were supposed to, we performed a Cronbach's a test for internal reliability. Especially considering that we calculated an average score of the constructs, we had to assure internal reliability by relating pre-assumed items to an overall construct (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The Cronbach's a scores for multiple item measures were well above the minimum requirements for acceptable internal reliability, which is typically around 0.7-0.8 (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Gripsrud et al., 2016).

All scales and measures were translated to Norwegian, for the sake of data collection. We applied previously used and translated scales, provided by our thesis supervisor. Additionally, multiple item measures were collected using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Perceived invariable goals

Perceived invariable goals ($\alpha = .85$) was measured using the validated scale of Dysvik et al. (2016) for the measurement of the concept, inspired by Hinkin (1998). A total of five items (e.g., I find the goals/key performance indicators

specific and absolute; and that they give little room to focus on other important aspects of the job than what is measured) were measured to ensure that we captured the entire construct.

Motivational climates: mastery and performance climate

The motivational climate at work was measured using Nerstad et al. (2013) Motivational Climates at Work Questionnaire (MCWQ), deriving from a longitudinal study. A total of 13 items were validated to operationalize the concept of a twofold motivational climate. Mastery climate ($\alpha = .83$) was measured through six of these items (e.g., In my department/work group, one of the goals is to make each individual feel that he/she has an important role in the work process), which make up approximately half of the operationalization for motivational climates. The remaining seven were measured using items related to performance climate ($\alpha =$.80) (e.g., In my department/work group, rivalry between employees is encouraged).

Taking charge behavior

Taking charge behavior ($\alpha = .88$) was measured with the application of Morrison and Phelps's (1999) measurement of the taking charge behavior construct. Their operationalization of taking charge behavior proved both discriminant and construct validity through analysis. In line with Morrison and Phelps' (1999) scale development, we measured ten items (e.g., I often try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective). However, to be aligned with the purpose of this study, minor modifications were made. That is, respondents answered from a first-person perspective, which our thesis supervisor approved.

Turnover intention

Turnover intention (α = .91) was measured using Kuvaas' (2006) expansion of Khatri et al. (2001) previous measure of the turnover intention construct (e.g., "I often think about quitting my job" and "I will probably look for a new job in the next year").

Control variables

We controlled for socio-demographic differences to rule these out as alternative explanations. For example, we suspected that age, managerial responsibility, and educational level could significantly affect taking charge behavior. Supported by the findings of Hobfoll (2002, as cited in Kuvaas et al., 2016) and Nerstad et al. (2013), among others, education and hierarchical status may have a decreasing effect on perceiving goals as invariable.

Age was collected on an ordinal scale (i.e., coded as 11 = 18-25 years, 12 = 26-35 years, 13 = 36-45 years, 14 = 46-55 years, 15 = 56-65 years, and 16 = 66 + years), mainly to secure anonymity and enhance distribution. The gender variable was collected at a nominal level and coded; 1 = Male, 2 = Female, and 3 = Non-binary/Third gender. No participants defined themselves as a third gender. Managerial responsibility was coded 1 = Yes and 2 = No, while those unaware of their responsibilities were neutralized with the coding 0. The variable for education was collected as an ordinal variable, whereas 1 = Elementary school and 5 = Ph.D./Doctoral degree. We had three participants that had not completed either of the provided alternatives. They were coded with the value 0 to avoid them influencing the variable score. To ensure the coding had the intended effect, we conducted an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test differences between categories in SPSS. The ANOVA test proved significant differences between levels of education, suggesting that the higher educated respondents scored higher on taking charge behavior.

Analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS and SAS JMP. All the results presented in the current study are retrieved from SPSS. SAS JMP was only used to confirm and strengthen SPSS' findings. Initially, we retrieved descriptive statistics and correlations, as illustrated in Table I. Due to our relatively small sample size, the best alternative to initiate analysis was computing average scores on each of our multiple items measures. Our results indicate that internal reliability is high and that we can use the computed scores in further analysis.

In order to test the study hypothesis, Baron and Kenny (1986) recommended performing a stepwise multiple regression analysis, initially inspired by Judd and Kenny (1981). When testing for mediation in a regression analysis, there are certain prerequisites: 1) Regressing the mediator on the independent variable, 2) regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable, and 3) regressing the dependent variable on both mediator and independent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Further, significant relationships should be found for 1), 2), and 3) to establish mediation. Throughout our analysis, we set the level of significance to 0.05 (95% confidence interval).

In stepwise regression, analysts introduce additional variables to the regression model to see their effect, how they relate, and how the inclusion of our mediator variables influences the model (Weisberg, 2014). We interpreted skewness and kurtosis statistics to check for normal distribution, indicating a sufficient normal distribution. Regarding multicollinearity, we looked at the variance inflation factor (VIF) and collinearity diagnostics, following Craney and Surles' (2002) suggestions for VIF cut-off values. Neither multicollinearity nor kurtosis challenged further analytical progression.

Descriptive analysis and correlations

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for all variables included in our analysis, with mean, std. deviation, correlation, and Cronbach's α on the diagonal. Our data do not indicate multicollinearity between the included variables (highest VIF-value = 1.5). If our data indicated multicollinearity, we would have had problems explaining that, for example, a positive effect on turnover intention was due to one of our variables as they are explaining the same variation. Moreover, to exclude the possibility of non-normality, kurtosis values of -1/+1 would indicate that our variable distributions are either too peaked or flat. This was not the case with our variables, but our measure for taking charge behavior came close with 0.75, which indicates a small peak in the distribution. As taking charge indicated some peaks in distribution, we performed a Shapiro Wilks test for normality. The Shapiro Wilk test for normality indicates that some sample values deviate from normality, but not enough to conclude on non-normality.

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	6	б	4	S	9	2	8
1. Turnover Intention	2.44	1.11	(101)							
2. Taking Charge Behavior	3.74	0.56	08	(88)						
3. Performance Climate	2.38	0.79	.35**	18*	(08.)					
4. Mastery Climate	4.03	0.65	36**	.30**	33**	(.83)				
5. Perceived Invariable Goals	2.40	0.84	.47**	08	.51**	41**	(.85)			
6. Managerial responsibility	1.61	0.51	.12	40**	.11	27**	60.			
7. Education	3.27	0.92	12	.16	19*	.12	13	12		
8. Age	12.29	1.20	01	.20*	05	14	01	15	01	
9. Gender	1.48	0.50	.02	02	14	.10	23**	.11	04	01

*P < 0.05; **p < 0.01

The first hypothesis we tested assumed a relationship between perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior, and that this relationship is negative. Although the coefficients indicate a negative relationship (Table II), we are unable to claim significant results ($\gamma = -.023$, *n.s*). Hence, we receive no statistical support and reject the alternative hypothesis. Hypothesis 2 contended that our independent variable, perceived invariable goals, would positively predict the turnover intention of our respondents. In this regression model, approximately 24% of the variance is explained by the variables included and provides us with significant regression (R² = .242, *F* = 8,449, *p* = 0.01). Hence, due to a significant positive relationship between perceived invariable goals and turnover intention (Table II), we receive support for our second hypothesis stating that, in our sample, there is a positive relationship between perceived invariable goals and turnover intention ($\gamma = .485$, *p* = 0.01). Additionally, this is the most influential relationship we are able to discover in the proposed model.

Following the requirements of Baron and Kenny (1986), analyses indicate that a perceived mastery climate is no valid mediator in the relationship between perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior. Although the introduction of mediators influences the model (e.g., higher explained variance), our faulty hypothesis 1 leads to indirect-only mediation (Zhao et al., 2010). As the previous implies, the relationship between perceived invariable goals and mastery climate (γ = -.374, *p* < 0.01), and mastery climate and taking charge behavior (γ = .247, *p* < 0.01), reflects the indirect-only mediation (Zhao et al, 2010). Mediation would require a significant direct relationship between perceived invariable goals and taking charge behavior. Hence, due to an insignificant relationship between the independent and dependent variable, we reject hypothesis 3a.

Regarding hypothesis 3b, mastery climate is a valid mediator of the relationship between perceived invariable goals and turnover intention, fulfilling all the requirements of Baron and Kenny (1986). Additionally, the mediation is by Baron and Kenny (1986) considered adequate, due to the diminishing strength of the relationship between perceived invariable goals on turnover intention compared to when there was no mediator added (i.e., for step 1 χ = .485 and *p* < 0.01; for step 2 χ = .358 and *p* < 0.01). It should be mentioned that in order to claim full mediation, the initial direct relationship should go from significant to non-significant when the mediators are added (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Conclusively, regarding hypotheses

3 a) and b), we only receive partial support for mastery climate mediating the relationship between perceived invariable goals and turnover intention.

Regarding our final hypothesis, related to the mediating role of performance climate, we are unable to claim support for the hypothesis. While there is a significant relationship with perceived invariable goals ($\gamma = .474$, p < 0.001), no other significant relationships derive from respondents' perception of a performance climate. Therefore, we receive no support for using performance climate as a mediator variable in this model.

On more general terms, the control variable for age significantly influence mastery climate ($\gamma = .181$, p < 0.05) and the full regression model for taking charge behavior ($\gamma = .193$, p < 0.05). Additionally, managerial responsibility has a significant relationship with mastery climate ($\gamma = .267$, p < 0.01) and taking charge behavior (Step 1: $\gamma = ..365$, p < 0.01; Step 2: $\gamma = .293^{**}$, p < 0.01). Moreover, similar to the findings of Nerstad et al. (2013), the perceptions of mastery and performance climate correlate (r = ..33, p < 0.01), implying that they are related but separate. Regarding the fit of the full regression models, the variables included explain a higher variance in turnover intention ($R^2 = .283$, F = 3.687, p < 0.05), compared to taking charge behavior ($R^2 = .252$, F = 4.926, p < 0.01).

	Mastery Climate	Performance Climate		Turnover Intention		Taking Charge Behavior
			Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Gender	.040	043	.124	.137	.024	.01
Age	181*	031	.01	02	.151	.193*
Education	.044	124	046	023	.112	.089
Managerial Responsibility	267**	057	.06	.004	365**	293**
Perceived Invariable Goals	374**	.474**	.485**	.358**	023	.115
Performance Climate				.121		097
Mastery Climate				186*		.247**
Adjusted R ²	.233**	.250**	.214**	.245**	.165**	.212**
ΔR^2	.261**	.277**	.242**	.041*	.195**	.057**
Table 2 Notes: $N = 138$. We report standardized regression coefficients. Step 1 & 2 reflects a stepwise regression model equated in SPSS.	standardized regression ession model equated in	coefficients. SPSS.				

Table 2: Regression model for direct relationships and full multiple stepwise regression including mediators

p < 0.05; p < 0.01.

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Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to investigate whether there is a positive relationship between perceiving goals as invariable and turnover intention, as well as a negative relationship between the former and taking charge behavior. And if so, whether the perception of motivational climates derived from traditional AGT, function as mediators in these relationships. Our ambition was to investigate malfunctions of performance management, its functionality towards relevant organizational outcomes, and how organizational environments may be of importance. To our knowledge, no previous research has applied a similar approach within the area of organizational behavior and psychology.

Our findings suggest that when goals are perceived as invariable, the respondents' perception of mastery climate may diminish its influence and essentially prevent turnover intention from increasing. Similarly, as the perception of goals as absolute and specific arguably is unpreferable, in our research model, its relationship with a mastery climate is negative. One central assumption of the current study is that the perception of goals as invariable is neither smart nor productive. Aligned with the findings of Kuvaas et al. (2016), our mean value (M = 2.40, S.D = 0.84) is an indicator of the relevant challenge in association with performance management systems. Our contribution does not necessarily deliminate its relevance, but it allows for additional perspectives toward dealing with the perception of goals in organizational contexts.

Arguably, taking charge behavior may contribute to organizations and decision-makers looking beyond goal achievement itself due to its supposed indirect relation to organizational effectiveness (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Consequently, we suggest that organizations should, to a higher degree, facilitate for taking charge behavior through learning and cooperation, rather than solely focusing on goal attainment. However, indirect-only mediation does not necessarily support the supposed relationship between perceived invariable goals, mastery climate, and taking charge behavior. Closer interpretation still allows us to enlighten some interesting findings regarding the relationships and their relevance. It is evident that the conceptualizations of motivational climates and their potential mediating effect should be further investigated due to the differing outcomes of the two. Although we are unable to claim that this is a fully mediated relationship, results imply that there exists an indirect relationship between the variables.

Specifically, the perception of goals may influence how the motivational climates are perceived. Further, the relationship between mastery climate and taking charge behavior is found significant. In particular, the study findings suggest that a mastery climate may ensure positive change that facilitates improved processes in a job, work unit, or organization.

Our findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between mastery climate and both perceiving goals as invariable and taking charge behavior. However, the insignificant relationship between the latter variables makes us unable to assert that the former has a mediating effect. Additionally, in the case of a performance climate's relation to the independent variable, our results reveal that it is significant. However, a perceived performance climate did not significantly relate to either of the dependent variables. Accordingly, the former cannot be argued to be a valid mediator of the relationships. Moreover, this implies that even though a performance climate has an apparent negative relationship with taking charge and a positive relationship with turnover intention, we are unable to discover significance. Thus, as an example, Nerstad et al. (2013) claimed a significant relationship between performance climate and turnover intention, but our results are not able to support her findings.

Hopefully, this study will add value to research on organizational phenomena by applying new perspectives on conceptual relations while also investigating these in a context they have not been before. Exemplified by Morrison and Phelps' (1999) call for additional research on counterintuitive or novel predictors that could relate to taking charge behavior. Moreover, the approach of Nerstad et al. (2013) was innovative in an organizational context, as motivational climates were predominantly investigated in sports and educational settings, leading us to further explore these variables and their role in organizational settings. However, not being entirely successful in establishing the same relationships.

Although there are contrary explanations for how to interpret a mediator variable, our study's results indicate mediation for one of our mediator variables (i.e., mastery climate). However, our third hypothesis is only partially accepted due to the requirements of Baron and Kenny (1986). Contradictory, Zhao et al. (2010) suggest that the strength of mediation should be measured by the size of the indirect effect (i.e., perceived invariable goals \rightarrow mastery climate \rightarrow taking charge behavior). Additional tests would then probably be required, exemplified by Preacher and Hayes (2004) applying a bootstrap method to determine the strength

of indirect relationships. Hence, both Preacher and Hayes (2004) and Zhao et al. (2010) contest Baron and Kenny's (1986) understanding that a direct relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be present.

Thus, we find our results somewhat paradoxical because hypothesis 3 b) fulfills the mediator requirements of Baron and Kenny (1986) but not hypothesis 3 a). Subsequently, our impression is that Baron and Kenny (1986) appear ambiguous when stating that perfect mediation occurs when the independent variable does not affect the dependent variable, after controlling for mediators. This ambiguity allows us to argue for indirect-only mediation when evaluating how a mastery climate relates to other constructs.

Implications and suggestions for future research

On a general note, explanations for non-significant effects in this chapter are merely speculative. However, some of our initial predictions remain an interesting subject of discussion. We believe that our findings present relevant reflections to digest, especially for HR professionals working with performance management.

Grounded in prominent taking charge behavior research, Morrison and Phelps (1999) called for exploration of employee-driven change and motivating factors that ensure organizational effectiveness. Although the current study does not directly address such motivating factors, we consider performance management systems and one's perception of the achievement context as essential aspects of the working environment that could encourage taking charge behavior. Upholding the argument of Kuvaas et al. (2016), we agree that organizations should emphasize the importance of abbreviated performance cycles to limit the detrimental effects of perceiving goals as invariable. In practical terms, one could neutralize the chances of goals becoming obsolete, redundant, or wrong by continuously accounting for ad hoc and situational factors. Related to obstacles and inhibitors of taking charge behavior, we believe that the former suggestion somewhat counterweights the effect of perceiving goals as invariable.

Further, our results imply that managerial responsibility correlates significantly with taking charge behavior. Although it may appear evident that employees with a particular hierarchical level have legitimate power and authority to initiate change, shortened performance cycles are suggested to develop attributes such as self-efficacy among subordinates (Kuvaas et al., 2016; Morrison & Phelps,

1999). At a practical level, Latham et al. (2005) posit that supervisors should act as performance coaches through a cyclical year-round process rather than prolonged performance cycles, which refers to performance appraisal instead of performance management. Furthermore, abbreviated performance cycles could also act as a platform for establishing mastery climate principles in a way that they adjust and increase the developmental focus. Practically, we suggest that leaders could act as performance coaches and that learning and development (i.e., mastery climate principles) serve as the basis for measuring performance.

We consider it reasonable to argue that independent of how goals are perceived, work-related outcomes are somehow related to perceptions of the achievement context. Specifically, our assumption is that even if employees perceive goals as invariable, turnover intention could be influenced by a mastery climate perception. In practice, performance management systems that rely on rigid, specific, and quantitative goals (e.g., a sales call center) could benefit from promoting HR practices internally aligned with mastery climate characteristics. Previous research findings by Nerstad et al. (2018a) further support our assertion by stating that a lack of internally aligned HR practices may be unfavorable in terms of increased turnover intention. Performance management systems and other HR practices aligned and consistent with the achievement context may assist the workforce in strategic goal achievement by collectively adopting the desired attitudes and nurturing employee motivation (Nerstad et al., 2018a).

In opposition to the extensive focus in prior research on individual motivation characteristics, we suggest that more future empirical attention should be directed toward leaders and managers in achievement contexts. However, mastery criteria of success in the workplace have yet to establish its relevance within organizational research (Nerstad et al., 2013). Whereby prior empirical attention is mainly dedicated to sports and educational contexts, practical and theoretical implications could potentially derive from research on how figures with legitimate power in organizations can enhance mastery orientation and climates with their employees. Similar to schoolteachers in a classroom and coaches in sports, leaders and managers in modern organizations are front figures and ought to instill values of a mastery climate in their strategy implementation.

Lastly, this study contributes to substantiate the concerns of Nerstad et al. (2013) related to how motivational climates may be found and consolidated in an organizational setting. Without depreciating previous research within the fields of

sports and education, the current study may contribute to the further theoretical development of the climates in additional settings. Considering the amount of resources devoted to ensuring that employee performance constantly increases, we assume that the contexts in which goal achievement is desirable are relevant across research areas. Additionally, no previous research of our awareness has investigated the mediating role of these climates. Although significance and validity should be claimed carefully, our approach illustrates that the relevance of both perceived performance and mastery climates at work may be relevant to organizational practitioners.

Limitations

Our findings and results should be considered a subject of possible limitations. The cross-sectional study design is a prominent limitation of this study as it, among other things, limits the generalizability of findings and its ability to explain longitudinal effects. The current data collection method and study design were initially assumed to be beneficial in terms of their ability to increase the sample size. Additionally, self-criticism is eligible regarding screening of participants because it is vulnerable to participation from outside the intended target group, which could have increased the sample size. Although the mentioned fragilities could influence this study's sample size, its relatively small size (N = 138) indicates that it did not. Hence, neither reliable nor valid findings should be claimed from this study. Furthermore, although a small sample size led to certain analytical constraints, we utilized the data we had. We have exemplified this by computing variable average scores for multiple-item measures, instead of conducting inadequate factor analysis. Regarding the reliability of variable measures, Cronbach's a is considered statistically sufficient compared to the original measures. Hence, our measures diminish certain adverse effects.

This study is in no position to rule out causality issues between the included variables. For example, it may be reasonable to assume that constructive deviant behavior influences an organization's perception of control in a negative direction. Hence, they implement stricter performance management systems to ensure performance progression. As the previous implies, reversed causality may be present in several of our relationships. However, to test this, we performed a simple regression indicating that taking charge behavior does not relate to perceived invariable goals ($\chi = -.11$, *n.s*). Though, a simple regression indicated reversed

causality between taking charge behavior and mastery climate ($\gamma = .34$, p < 0.01). Thus, it could be that taking charge behavior leads to strengthened employee perceptions of a mastery climate. To deliminate the abovementioned causality issues, future research will likely benefit from applying a different study design to test our hypothesis and better establish causality. Specifically, manipulating the variables and improving sample representativeness in an experimental setting may remedy some of the present shortcomings. Thus, a different research approach may prove higher reliability and validity.

The data we have collected and the study itself are likely to contain biases. Regarding data collection, the self-reported measures and methods used in this study allow for common method variance. Even though it is reasonable to assume its presence, certain biases are virtually impossible to demolish (Clarke, 2005). Further, Clarke (2005) elaborates on the implications of omitted variable bias (OVB) being present. OVB relates to variables that are "excluded" from the model, implying possible unknown predictors (Clarke, 2005). Regarding the current study, the presence of OVB manifests itself in the form of a relatively considerable proportion of the residual sum of squares in the regression models (i.e., the model contains a relatively big error term). Thus, the variables in our model explain a relatively small proportion of variance in the dependent variable. Although it remains a subject of speculation, it is reasonable to assume that included variables correlate with omitted variables in this error term. Therefore, future research is recommended to reduce these biases by collecting objective assessments of the variables that allow it and evaluating potential variables that could be relevant to the dependent variables.

Subsequently, our self-reported measures imply that respondents may answer questions that they perceive others consider as positive or warranted. Especially, the low average score of turnover intention and performance climate and opposingly high scores for taking charge and mastery climate give us this impression. Hence, we are unable to interpret and conclude upon the actual directional influence of the relationships and variables in the current study. For example, the average score for taking charge behavior indicates that the characteristics of this behavior are something our respondents familiarize themselves with. Consequently, taking charge behavior should be carefully interpreted as something exclusively positive as we suspect that too much of it may jeopardize essential aspects of a job. Therefore, future research may find interesting results in objective measures, in addition to exploring outcomes of the behavior that compromises organizational effectiveness.

Although previous scale development streamlined the process of tailoring our research model together, the translation process was not correspondingly efficient. When translating the items belonging to performance climate, we lost one of the original eight items belonging to the concept. The consequences of this were, however, not that extensive. Nerstad et al. (2013), the original validator of the scale, obtained a Cronbach's a at 0.84 compared to ours at 0.80. Although we suggest that future applications of the scale follow the original, the outcome of our sloppy mistake was not determinant. In hindsight, sticking with the original scales of measurement in English would arguably have provided us with similar results, as the ambition of the translation was to increase the sample size.

There are several potential reasons as to why we are unable to receive perfect mediation for all our original assumptions. We take responsibility for not passing this along to future researchers without elaborating on its complexity. As our theoretical audit illustrates, the climates' orthogonal and co-existing nature makes it more relevant to investigate with a different study design. We recommend that future research choose their design wisely and that the sample size is significantly increased compared to ours. Additionally, the ambiguity related to the treatment of a mediator could inspire future research in a direction that deals with it accordingly (Zhao et al., 2010).

Conclusion

This study set out to further paint in words the state of affairs in performance management literature and practice and focus attention on important organizational aspects. Specifically, this study presents direct and indirect relationships between the perception of goals as invariable and the two dependent variables; taking charge behavior and turnover intention. Furthermore, prominent throughout this study is our interpretation of two mediator variables deriving from traditional AGT; mastery and performance climate. Although this study is subject to plausible limitations, some implications deriving from the study are relevant perspectives to further consider in future research and practice.

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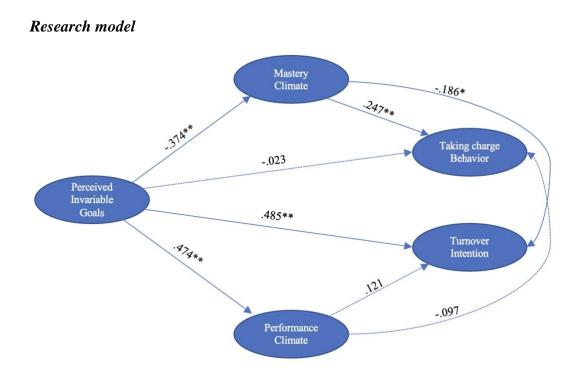
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Appendix B

Survey layout

Introduction

Resultatene fra denne spørreundersøkelsen vil fungere som datagrunnlaget for masteroppgaven vår ved Handelshøyskolen BI og Institutt for Ledelse og Organisasjon.

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Hensikten med studien

Med denne undersøkelsen ønsker vi å utforske forholdet mellom absolutte mål og ekstrarolleatferd, hvor også ulike motivasjonsklimaer er til stede. Våre opprinnelige antakelser bygger på at organisasjoner kan dra nytte av å i større grad fostre mestringsklimaer på arbeidsplassen, med hensikt i at det legger til rette for positiv ekstrarolleatferd.

Hvorfor vi ønsker din deltakelse

Vi ønsker at du skal delta fordi du jobber/har jobbet fulltid og samtidig omfattes av et performance management-system, herunder målsettingssystemer.

Deltakelse

Detkakelse i dette prosjektet er fullstendig frivillig og anonymt. Svarene dine vil bli behandlet deretter. Vi kan forsikre deg om at data blir samlet inn, lagret og behandlet i tråd med krav fra Norsk Senter for Forskningsdata (NSD), samt gjeldene retningslinjer tilknyttet GDPR. Dette er en web-undersøkelse som behandler dine svar tilknyttet opplevelse av organisatoriske fenomener. Svar blir innhentet elektronisk og deltakelse er som nevnt frivillig.

Informasjon om hvordan undersøkelsen fylles ut er tilgjengelig på Qualtrics. Det er verdt å merke seg at ditt opprinnelige svar på et spørsmål eller utsagn som regel er det mest presise. Som deltaker er det ikke nødvendig med noen forkunnskaper for å kunne delta i undersøkelsen.

Estimert tid for å fullføre undersøkelsen: 5-10 minutter.

Mer informasjon?

Dersom du lurer på noe eller har spørsmål knyttet til undersøkelsen kan du nå oss på:

På forhånd, tusen takk for hjelpen!

Samtykke

Jeg har lest og forstått informasjonen knyttet til prosjektet og har fått muligheten til å stille spørsmål relatert til prosjektet eller min deltakelse.

O Jeg gir mitt samtykke (ved å trykke på denne boksen) til å delta i denne nettbaserte undersøkelsen

- 🗌 Kjønn
 - Hva er ditt kjønn/hvilket kjønn identifiserer du deg som?
 - Mann
 - Kvinne
 - Ikke-binær eller tredje kjønn Ønsker ikke å svare

Alder

- Hvor gammel er du?
- 18-25 år 🔿 26-35 år
- 🔾 36-45 år

1

- 46-55 år
- 🔿 56-65 år
- 🔿 66+ år
- -

Utdanning

Hva er din høyest oppnådde/fullførte utdannelse? Velg ett av alternativene

- Barne-ungdomsskole (ca. 10 år)
- Videregående skole (ca. 13 år)
- Bachelorgrad fra universitet/høyskole
- O Mastergrad fra universitet/høyskole
- O Doktorgrad/PhD
- Ingen av de nevnte

Ledelse

Har du ledelsesansvar i din nåværende jobb? Dersom du har ledelsesansvar er du blant annet ansvarlig for planlegging, målsetling og overseelse av opensjonelle prosesser innenfor en avdeling, eller deler av en avdeling. Dersom du har

- ⊖ Ja
- 🔿 Nei
- O Vet ikke

Absolutte mål

Dette spørsmålet utforsker hvordan du som ansatt opplever mål, hovedsaklig etablert gjennom et performance management-system, og hvorvidt disse målene er absolutte og konkrete. Rangent på en skala 1 (Svært uenig) - 5 (Svært enig).

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Jeg opplever målene/nøkkelindikatorene i målstyringsystemet som spesifikke og absolutte;

	1 - Svært uenig	2 - Uenig	3 - Verken eller	4 - Enig	5 - Svært enig
og mangel på måloppnåelse aksepteres ikke selv om jeg har gode begrunnelser for det	0	0	0	0	0
og jeg kan ikke prioritere andre forhold enn det å nå målene selv om situasjonen skulle tilsi det	0	0	0	0	0
og jeg kan ikke fritt improvisere og gjøre ting annerledes enn det som fremgår av målene/målekortet selv om jeg mener det er nødvendig	0	0	0	0	0
og de gir lite rom for å fokusere på andre viktige aspekter ved jobben enn det som måles	0	0	0	0	0
og målene står ofte i veien for nødvendig fleksibilitet for at jeg skal kunne gjøre jobben min på en best mulig måte.	0	0	0	0	0

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Turnover-intensjon

De 5 utsagnene under handler om i hvilken grad du tror du kommer til å fortsette å jobbe i din nåværende organisasjon, eller om du vurderer å skifte arbeidssted:

Ta stilling til uttalelsene under på en skala fra 1 (Svært uenig) - 5 (Svært enig).

	1- Svært uenig	2 - Uenig	3 - Verken eller	4 - Enig	5 - Svært enig
Jeg tenker ofte på å slutte i min nåværende jobb	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg kan komme til å slutte i min nåværende jobb i løpet av året	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg vil sannsynligvis lete aktivt etter en ny jobb det neste året	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg oppfatter mine fremtidsutsikter i denne organisasjonen som dårlige	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg vil trolig lete aktivt etter en ny jobb i løpet av de nærmeste 3 årene	0	0	0	0	0

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Ekstrarolleatferd

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Dette spærsmålet er relatert til ekstrarollearferd på arbeidsplassen og kan gi indikasjoner på hvordan du, som ansatt, gjør en innsats for å forbedre og bidra til organisatorisk endring. Konseptet vi måler er også relatert til et begrep som kalles "organizational citzenship behavior", en konseptualisering som innebærer at ansatte gjør mer enn hva som opprinnelig kreves av dem eller stillingen i seg selv. Rangert på en skala 1 (Svært uenig) - 5 (Svært uenig)

	1- Svært uenig	2 - Uenig	3 - Verken eller	4 - Enig	5 - Svært enig
Jeg prøver ofte å ta i bruk forbedrede måter å gjøre jobben min på	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å endre måten jeg utfører jobben min på for å gjøre den mer effektivt	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å forbedre måter å gjøre ting på for min enhet eller avdeling	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å innføre nye måter å gjøre jobben min på som er mer effektive for organisasjonen	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å gjøre om på organisatoriske regler eller bestemmelser som er ineffektive eller hemmer produktiviteten	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg kommer ofte med konstruktive forslag til hvordan ting bør gjøres bedre i organisasjonen	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å rette opp i mangelfulle eller ufullstendige bestemmelser eller praksiser	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å fjerne overflødige eller unødvendige prosedyrer	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å løse viktige problemer i organisasjonen	0	0	0	0	0
Jeg prøver ofte å innføre nye former for organisering, teknologi, eller fremgangsmåter for å forbedre effektiviteten i organisasjonen	0	0	0	0	0

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Rivaliseringsklima

Disse utsagnene knytter seg til en teori som kalles "achievement goal theory" og omhandler motivasjonsklimaer på arbeidsplassen.

I min avdeling/arbeidsgruppe;

	1- Svært uenig	2- Uenig	3 - Verken eller	4 - Enig	5 - Svært enig
måles arbeidsprestasjoner på grunnlag av en sammenligning med kollegaers prestasjoner.	0	0	0	0	0
motiveres det til rivalisering mellom ansatte.	0	0	0	0	0
oppfordres det til interne konkurranser for å oppnå best mulig resultat.	0	0	0	0	0
fremheves (kun) de arbeidstakerne som oppnår de aller beste resultatene/prestasjonene.	0	0	0	0	0
eksisterer det et rivaliserende konkurranseforhold blant arbeidstakerne.	0	0	0	0	0
blir man oppmuntret til å prestere optimalt for å ha muligheten til å oppnå pengebelønninger.	0	0	0	0	0
er det viktig å prestere bedre enn andre.	0	0	0	0	0

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Mestringsklima		

Disse utsagnene knytter seg til en teori som kalles "achievement goal theory" og omhandler motivasjonsklimaer på arbeidsplassen.

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I min avdeling/arbeidsgruppe;					
	1- Svært uenig	2 - Uenig	3 - Verken eller	4 - Enig	5 - Svært enig
oppfordres det til samarbeid og gjensidig utveksling av tanker og ideer.	0	0	0	0	0
legges det vekt på den enkeltes læring og utvikling.	0	0	0	0	0
oppfordres det til samarbeid og gjensidig kunnskapsutveksling.	0	0	0	0	0
blir arbeidstakerne oppmuntret til å prøve nye løsningsmetoder i arbeidsprosessen.	0	0	0	0	0
har alle en viktig og tydelig oppgave i arbeidsprosessen.	0	0	0	0	0
er et av målene å få den enkelte til å føle at han/hun har en viktig rolle i arbeidsprosessen.	0	0	0	0	0