When Feelings Matter: Affect as a Mediator Between Motivational Regulation and Work Intentions

Robert W. Lion¹ and Tyler Burch¹

Abstract

The Problem.

Human resource development (HRD) scholars and practitioners alike are faced with the challenging task of accounting for the variables that influence the efficacy of the person in the workplace. Without a better understanding of the nature of the relationships between cognition and affect within the work domain, practitioners continue to struggle with accurately understanding how an individual’s motivational regulation impacts work intentions and organizational performance.

The Solution.

This study aims to provide new information on the mediating role state-specific affect plays in workplace-specific motivational outlooks to aid scholars and practitioners in more effectively diagnosing performance deficiencies, as well as influencing the selection and design of more-appropriate and sustainable performance improving interventions.

The Stakeholders.

Professionals in positions of power and influence are tasked with leading their people to meet organizational goals and outcomes. Without consideration of the various factors that may influence employee behaviors, such as motivational outlooks and state affect, leaders risk misappropriating valuable resources, such as time and energy.

Keywords

work intentions, affect, human resources, motivation, self-determination theory

¹Idaho State University, Pocatello, USA

Corresponding Author:
Robert W. Lion, Idaho State University, 921 S. 8th Street, Pocatello, ID 83209, USA.
Email: rwlion@isu.edu
The concept of motivation has received significant scholarly and practitioner attention over the past half century as organizations wrestle with how to best inspire, encourage, and support others to be more productive. Although there have been many competing motivational frameworks and theories, such as goal-setting theory (Locke, 1968), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977), and expectancy-valence theory (Vroom, 1964), self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), in particular, has emerged as a viable cross-domain framework. The value of the SDT framework has been evident in health care (Ng, Ntoumanis, Thogersen-Ntoumani, Deci, Ryan, Duda, & Williams, 2012), athletics (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2007), education (Ryan & Deci, 2013), and business (Sweeney, Webb, Mazzarol, & Soutar, 2014) as it provides a framework to better understanding basic-psychological needs and motivation of employees and consumers.

SDT is built upon the belief that humans thrive when three basic psychological needs are met (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Those needs are autonomy, which is the freedom of choice in one’s own actions (Gagné & Deci, 2005); relatedness, the belonging, affiliation, and connection with others through frequent and positive interactions (Baumeister & Leary, 1995); and competence, the need to feel sufficiently effective or a degree of mastery in tasks (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Meeting an individual’s basic psychological needs nurtures well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000), and the satisfaction of these needs provides the building blocks or “nutriments” for intrinsic motivation to occur (Gagné & Deci, 2005, p. 336).

The importance of better understanding SDT’s contributions to the study of motivation has bearing on the human resource development (HRD) practitioner. Motivation is a hot-topic in the world of work as workers continually succumb to organizational (as well as personal) stressors. Faced with the decision of eating the jelly-filled donut with the morning coffee, or arriving on time to work, people often conclude motivation (or lack thereof) is the reason why someone ate the donut, or could not get to work on time, oftentimes overlooking other internal and external factors.

Much of the dialogue concerning motivation in the workplace among practitioners is often a matter of two possibilities, and is most commonly referred to as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. There is a considerable history of scholarship focusing on this dualistic approach to motivation (see Latham, 2011). The terms intrinsic and extrinsic relate to the location of the source of the stimulus that leads to the desired behavior, or, as Ryan and Deci (2017) put it, “the intention to behave” (p. 190). For example, pay for performance or office rewards are forms of extrinsic stimuli, whereas the desire within one’s self to achieve an outcome is internally oriented, known as intrinsic motivation.

SDT provides an evidence-based framework concerning specific types or forms of motivation and challenges several of the assumptions concerning, specifically, extrinsic motivation (see Ryan & Deci, 2017). It also moves away from the binary and oppositional language of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. SDT’s motivational framework is organized into five different types of motivation (amotivation, extrinsic, introjected, identified, and intrinsic). These five forms can then be organized into three overarching groups: amotivation, controlled regulation, and autonomous regulation.
The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which an individual’s state-specific affect (how they feel about their work at a particular time) mediates motivational regulation and work intentions (see Figure 1). One of the beneficiaries of this study is the HRD practitioner. The findings will help practitioners better understand the role affect plays in workplace behaviors, with the goal of allowing them to more accurately diagnose and remediate performance-related issues.

Many studies (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Gagné et al., 2015; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010) have demonstrated the relationship between SDT’s basic psychological needs and workplace behaviors; however, few (Hagger et al., 2014; Zigarmi, Galloway, & Roberts, 2016) have examined the multidimensional aspects of motivation regulation, the influence of affect, and (volitional) oriented constructs, such as behavioral intentions or—in this particular study—work intentions.

**Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development**

The following is an overview of the theoretical background and logic behind the relationship of motivational regulation, affect, and work intentions, as demonstrated in Figure 1. Hypotheses follow the respective sections.

**Motivational Regulations**

According to Deci and Ryan (2000), “SDT maintains that an understanding of human motivation requires a consideration of innate psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence” (p. 227). Consistent with other motivational theories, the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are considered; however, the SDT literature provides a more nuanced and specific approach to motivation through the three specific regulatory processes—amotivation, controlled, and autonomous regulation. Amotivation is the absence of desire or intention to act; controlled regulation has some commonality with extrinsic motivation as it is concerned with the external forces or influences that are imposed on the person, consequentially influencing their behavior; and autonomous regulation is not synonymous with intrinsic motivation as aspects of autonomous regulation take into consideration some external forces, specifically identified.
The value in the motivational regulation framework is that it mandates an *internal frame of reference* to understand the reason for why someone chooses to act. The reason (or motivational outlook) has a great deal to do with the actor’s over-time health and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Referring to Table 1, the more internally oriented the regulation, the more we arrive at fully authentic experiences. (For more information, see “Perceived Locus of Causality” in Ryan & Deci, 2017). While the ideal or goal is to foster true autonomous regulation, employing performance-improving tactics that support an identified or an intrinsic motivational outlook may lead to increased personal satisfaction (i.e., “wholehearted endorsement,” Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 188). These outlooks have been found to correlate with wellness and performance over time and “an absence of conflict” between the person and the organization (Ryan & Deci, 2017). This framework of understanding motivation is important in practice as it helps us better understand what motivates or moves employees.

**Affective States**

Affect refers to emotions or feelings that have evolved through dealing with fundamental life-tasks (Ekman, 1992). A 2003 meta-analysis by Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, and de Chermont aimed to provide clarity around some misunderstanding and crossover between two specific affective structures—state versus trait affect. State-specific affect, which we are including as an independent variable in this study, is situational in nature, meaning that it is subject to both external and internal stimuli, whereas trait-specific affect is a stable personality dimension (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Chermont, 2003). If we consider the HRD practitioner’s role in the selection of a performance intervention, understanding a person’s state affect or the ability to influence state affect is quite important. For example, in health care, positive affect induction aligned with a health-specific intervention, such as medication compliance (Ogedegbe et al., 2012), has been shown to bolster intrinsic motivation and lead to positive behavioral outcomes (Moskowitz et al., 2012).
Prior research (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Roberts & Zigarmi, 2014) found that affect is necessary to forming behavioral intentions. In addition, Vallerand (2015), whose work on the dualistic model of passion, which is informed by much of the SDT works of Deci, Ryan, and others, has found that affect does mediate passion. Little is known about how motivational regulation yields work intentions. Accordingly, we hypothesize that affect acts a mediator between the two concepts (e.g., the effect of motivational regulation influences affect, which in turn influences work intentions). Specifically, we propose the following:

**Hypothesis 1a:** Autonomous regulation will be positively related to positive affect and negatively related to negative affect.

**Hypothesis 1b:** Controlled regulation will be negatively related to positive affect and positively related to negative affect.

**Hypothesis 1c:** Amotivation will be negatively related to positive affect and positively related to negative affect.

### Work Intentions

With a variety of work outcome measures and constructs within both scholarship and practice (i.e., job satisfaction, work engagement), few are as reliable of an indicator of action or volition as behavioral intentions (see Tett & Meyer, 1993). A meta-analysis by Webb and Sheeran (2006) found qualified evidence of behavioral intentions leading to change in behavior with the greatest amount of change occurring when individuals have greater control over their own behavior without social or coercive pressure. The practical implications behind work intentions as they relate to individuals include, but are not limited to, a better understanding of intentions such as organizational citizenship behaviors, discretionary time, retention, willingness to endorse the organization, and performance. HRD practitioners can turn to work intentions to more accurately understand where employees are, psychologically, at a given time.

As intentions, which are the behaviors a person plans to manifest (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), are noted as reasonably accurate predictors of behavior (Azjen, 1991), the work intention variable plays an important role in studying the relationship between motivational regulation and prospective behavior. Our interest in the role affect plays in this decision-making process is twofold. One, it helps us strengthen our understanding of the role affect plays in moving through a decision-making process to arrive at an intention/behavior or volition (an action of freewill). Second, affect, commonly regarded as feelings or emotions in the workplace, is a regular workplace-specific individual variable that should not be overlooked by the HRD practitioner when considering domain-specific variables, such as teamwork and organizational citizenship behaviors (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). By investigating how affect may or may not influence the motivation-to-intention chain, this research can help practitioners better understand and manage the role feelings play in the workplace.
Hypothesis 2a: Positive affect will be positively related to work intentions.
Hypothesis 2b: Negative affect will be negatively related to work intentions.
Hypothesis 3: The relationship between motivational regulation (autonomous regulation, controlled regulation, and amotivation) and work intentions (intent to perform and intent to use discretionary effort) will be mediated by positive and negative affect.

Method
Sample and Procedure
The sample for this study \((n = 418)\) is a data subset from a larger international data collection effort via an online questionnaire. The industry professionals, identified through a marketing listserv, were invited to complete the questionnaire. The target audience represented a wide range of fields and industries including manufacturing, education, government, not-for-profit, and so on, and company size ranged from fewer than 50 employees to several thousand employees. The entire dataset yielded 2,072 responses, approximately a 10% rate of response. Of the responses, 1,654 were retained to study a different phenomenon. The remaining 418 responses used in this study have not been reported or included in any other studies and comply with the expectations of the American Psychological Association specifications concerning data use (American Psychological Association, n.d.).

Measures
Motivational regulation. Measures for controlled, autonomous, and amotivation regulation were all adapted from Gagné et al.’s (2015) Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale. Controlled regulation was measured with 10 items \((\alpha = .86)\). A sample item is “[I put effort into my current job] because others will respect me more (e.g., supervisor, colleagues, clients . . . ).” Autonomous regulation was measured with six items \((\alpha = .92)\). A sample item is “. . . because putting efforts in this job aligns with my personal values.” Amotivation regulation was measured using three items \((\alpha = .84)\). A sample item is “I don’t [put efforts into this job] because I really feel that I’m wasting my time at work.” Responses to the items ranged from 1 \((not at all)\) to 7 \(completely\). The items for each regulation type were averaged to form three composite scores.

Measure of state affect. Positive and negative affect were measured using items from the International Positive and Negative Affect Schedule–Short Form (Thompson, 2007). Respondents were asked to consider the extent to which they felt 10 different affective descriptors while at work over the previous 6 months. Five descriptors were positive (e.g., active, inspired) and five were negative (e.g., upset, ashamed). Responses ranged from 1 \((never)\) to 5 \(always\). The responses to the five negative \((\alpha = .79)\) and positive descriptors \((\alpha = .79)\) were then summed separately to form two composite scores.
Despite a variety of work done on intentions, for parsimony sake, we used two of the five work intention subscales from the Work Intention Inventory (WII, Nimon & Zigarmi, 2015). The two subscales were Intent to Perform (e.g., “I intend to achieve all of my work goals”; α = .89) and Intent to Use Discretionary Effort (e.g., “I intend to spend my discretionary time finding information that will help this organization”; α = .76). The selection of these two subscales was based on two factors: (a) concern with the length of the questionnaire and (b) the perception of the other intentions (intent to remain, intent to use organizational citizenship behaviors, and intent to endorse) as being less work-task related, more organization-centric.

### Results

Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, alpha coefficients, and correlations for each variable, are contained in Table 2. Using path analysis to test our hypotheses, we analyzed the structural model from the three types of motivation regulation variables to the affect variables and, finally, from the affect variables to the work intentions variables. Anticipating partial mediation (i.e., some of the relationship between motivation regulation and work intentions was due to affect, but not all as in the case of full mediation), we modeled direct paths from each of the motivation regulation variables to the work intentions variables. Using Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2007) to test the model, we found that it fit the data well, χ²(1) = 0.717, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .005, root mean square error approximation (RMSEA) = .000 (90% confidence interval [CI] = [.000, .122]), comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00. To further explore the plausibility of the partial mediation model, we also ran a fully mediated model that eliminated the direct paths from the motivation regulation to work intentions variables. Note that the disturbance terms of the two work intentions variables were correlated and the three motivation regulation variables were not correlated. Results indicated that the full mediation model, χ²(7) = 71.413, SRMR = .058, RMSEA = .148 (90% CI = [.118, .181]), CFI = .920, had significantly weaker fit when compared with the partial mediation model, Δχ²(6) = 70.696, p < .001.

### Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficients, and Correlations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intent to perform</td>
<td>15.98</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Intent to use discretionary</td>
<td>12.08</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effort</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Autonomous regulation</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Amotivation</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>-.45</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-.45</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Positive affect</td>
<td>19.41</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.47</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Negative affect</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>-.29</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. All correlations greater in absolute value than .09 are significant at p < .05.

Work intentions. Despite a variety of work done on intentions, for parsimony sake, we used two of the five work intention subscales from the Work Intention Inventory (WII, Nimon & Zigarmi, 2015). The two subscales were Intent to Perform (e.g., “I intend to achieve all of my work goals”; α = .89) and Intent to Use Discretionary Effort (e.g., “I intend to spend my discretionary time finding information that will help this organization”; α = .76). The selection of these two subscales was based on two factors: (a) concern with the length of the questionnaire and (b) the perception of the other intentions (intent to remain, intent to use organizational citizenship behaviors, and intent to endorse) as being less work-task related, more organization-centric.
The standardized coefficients for each path in the partial mediation path model are found in Figure 2. For the sake of brevity, we do not report the coefficients within the text itself. We found, consistent with Hypotheses 1 to 3, statistical support for the majority of our hypothesized paths suggesting that the relationship between motivation regulation and work intentions was mediated by affect. However, we did note a few deviations from our hypotheses. Specifically, we found that the paths between autonomous regulation and negative affect and between controlled regulation and positive affect were both not significant statistically. In addition, the path between negative affect and intent to use discretionary effort was also statistically not significant.

To further explore affect’s mediation of the relationship between motivation regulation and work intentions, we calculated the standardized estimates of the specific and total indirect effects of motivation regulation on work intentions variables through both positive and negative affect using 1,000 bootstrapped samples (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). See Table 3 for the estimates of these indirect effects. Note that autonomous regulation had a statistically significant positive indirect effect on both measures of work intentions via positive affect, but not via negative affect. Controlled regulation had a statistically significant negative indirect effect on intent to perform, but not via positive affect. In addition, controlled regulation had no significant indirect effects on intent to use discretionary effort. Amotivation had statistically significant negative indirect effects on intent to perform via both positive and negative affect. However, only amotivation’s indirect effect via positive affect was significant when predicting intent to use discretionary effort.

**Discussion**

Based on the findings of this study, we observe the role affect plays in partially mediating motivational regulation and the two work intentions. Thus, when practitioners care
to explore the connection between an employee’s motivational regulation and intent to perform or intent to exert discretionary effort, they should consider the quality (positive or negative) of that employee’s affect—without assuming affect is the only variable influencing the phenomena of interest. This means that state-specific affect should continue to be monitored and evaluated against the position and organizational goals and functions. However, there is a risk of overvaluing the role state-specific affect plays in influencing behaviors and outcomes; overestimating the significance of affect as a mediator (due in part to only being a partial mediator) could possibly result in new and unintended workplace issues through poorly selected or designed interventions.

As suggested by the most practically significant indirect effects results, the effects of autonomous motivation flow through positive affect to explain variance in intent to perform and intent to use discretionary effort. More specifically, practitioners should embrace the value of high autonomous motivation in employees and the positive affect it tends to be connected to, when it comes to explaining favorable work intentions in employees. Less optimal kinds of motivation evaluated in this article did not show as impactful results as autonomous motivation, when it came to accounting for the role of affect and its connection to work intentions. This is consistent with much of the work of others that demonstrates the importance of autonomy and autonomy support (Gagné, 2003; Muraven, Gagné, & Rosman, 2008) and nurturing an environment that allows autonomous motivation to flourish. Furthermore, it reinforces what SDT posits as the relationship between autonomy and optimal motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

These findings may provide helpful clues for practitioners addressing performance-related issues in the workplace. Given the wide range of performance-improvement interventions available, these findings can direct the practitioner to specifically hone in on interventions that build or nurture the increase in autonomous motivation in employees and positive state-specific affect. Such interventions could include shared decision making, appreciative inquiry, innovative job design, or career development opportunities. In this special issue, Rigby and Ryan, and Fowler have outlined a wider range of possible interventions such as compensation and leadership behaviors.

### Table 3. Standardized Estimates of Indirect Effects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivational outlook</th>
<th>Intent to perform via positive affect</th>
<th>Intent to perform via negative affect</th>
<th>Intent to perform Total indirect effect</th>
<th>Intent to use discretionary effort via positive affect</th>
<th>Intent to use discretionary effort via negative affect</th>
<th>Intent to use discretionary effort Total indirect effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autonomous regulation</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled regulation</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.05*</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>-.08*</td>
<td>-.06*</td>
<td>-.13*</td>
<td>-.04*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.06*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.
Limitations and Future Research Directions

As with all studies, this one includes its share of limitations. First is the cross-sectional research design. This limits our ability to make conclusions about cause and effect concerning variables of interest. Another limitation is the generalizability of the findings due in part to the fact that we did not observe full mediation of state-specific affect. Full mediation means that, in this situation, state-specific affect would be completely responsible for the relationship between motivational regulation and work intentions. We feel it is important to point out that there was not a full mediation and in no way should practitioners believe that state-specific affect is anything more than partially mediating these variables. This is an important distinction as performance improvement initiatives should be sensitive to the role of affect, but remaining cautious of not being overly generous as to the role affect plays in the mediation.

Future Research

This study was a first attempt to better understand how state-specific affect mediates motivational regulations and work intentions. Continued research on these constructs as well as additional related constructs including various behavioral and work intention scales will help to improve understanding of the impact of affect. Future studies could also include broadening the research beyond state-specific affect, to include trait affect. This could help HRD practitioners and scholars better navigate the context of affect. Studies demonstrate the difference between the two affective states (George, 1991; Thoresen et al., 2003; Watson & Pennebaker, 1989); however, without further examining these states simultaneously, we risk misunderstanding the affect we observe and its impact on motivational regulation and behavior.

This study demonstrated the importance of affect as a partial mediator between employees’ motivational regulations and work intentions. Consistent with previous organizational studies (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Fox & Spector, 2000; George & Bettenhausen, 1990), affect has a direct and significant impact on desirable organizational behaviors.

This study also contributes to the growing body of literature on motivational and self-determination theory because it provides us with new information concerning the influence of state affect as it relates to motivational regulation. Furthermore, it provides researchers and practitioners additional clarity in understanding how accounting for affect and motivation can influence desirable organizational behaviors or not. Further study is needed.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.
References


**Author Biographies**

**Robert W. Lion**, is an assistant professor of human resource development (HRD) at Idaho State University, Pocatello, Idaho. His research interests focus on individual and organizational performance dynamics, issues related to management accountability and decision making, and the exploration and testing of popular culture’s assumptions concerning work.

**Tyler Burch**, is an assistant professor of organizational behavior in the Idaho State University College of Business. His primary research interests include employee motivation, turnover, and work–family conflict.