

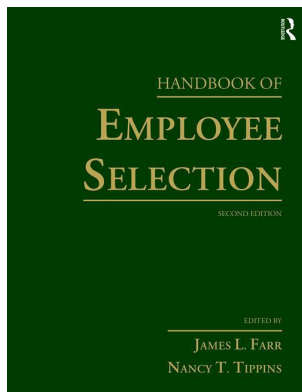
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VALUES, STYLES, AND MOTIVATIONAL CONSTRUCTS

DAVID CHAN

For several decades now, cognitive ability and personality traits are the two major types of predictors examined in employee selection research. Construct-oriented studies have focused on the structure and taxonomy of cognitive ability (see Chapter 11, this volume) and personality traits (see Chapter 13, this volume), as well as the validity evidence for these two types of constructs. In contrast, selection researchers have paid little attention to other types of individual difference predictors such as those in the domains of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs. To the extent that these individual differences are distinct from cognitive ability and personality constructs, and to the extent that they predict work-relevant attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors, there is a need in selection research to direct more attention to these “nontraditional” predictor constructs. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the major values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs that are likely relevant in employee selection research. In the following sections, I discuss each of these three construct domains with the objectives to (a) understand the basic conceptualizations of the focal constructs and their potential value in employee selection research and practice, (b) illustrate the variety of constructs and present the theory and research associated with their structure and validity, and (c) discuss the current concerns and emerging issues in the conceptualization and measurement of these constructs. I end the chapter with a discussion on practical considerations of the use of these constructs in employee selection and a proposed strategic agenda for future research directions.

VALUES

The interest in the psychological research on the concept of values may be traced back to the publication of Rokeach's (1973) influential book *The Nature of Human Values* and the Rokeach Value Survey, which he developed to measure the various value constructs described in his book. Subsequent researchers who examined the structure of values or criterion-related validities of values have tended to rely on Rokeach's conceptual definition of values, which refers to the individual's “enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). Although researchers have defined values in different ways, there appears to be a consensus from their conceptual definitions that values are the individual's stable beliefs that serve as general standards by which he or she evaluates specific things, including people, behaviors, activities, and issues. These standards of evaluation are also considered abstract goals, which are important guiding principles in life for the individual. There is also agreement that

values are more general than attitudes in that the latter are more referent-specific. Values are also differentiated from interests in that the former is scaled on relative importance, whereas the latter is scaled on relative liking.

Why Study Values?

The rationale for the study of values is primarily due to its criterion-related validity. Because values are assumed to occupy a central position in the individual's network of cognitive beliefs and attitudes, we expect values to be associated with and hence predictive of criteria such as specific beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors. Indeed, much of the early interest in empirical studies of values was generated by Rokeach's (1973) seminal research showing that rankings of the importance of values were predictive of a wide variety of attitudes and behaviors. Subsequent to Rokeach's work, the criterion-related validities of values were quite consistently demonstrated over the years for diverse criteria including attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (e.g., Kaikati & Torelli, 2010; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). For example, Ravlin and Meglino (1987) showed that achievement, concern for others, fairness, and honesty were major values that predicted various perceptions and decisions at the workplace.

A second reason for studying values is that value congruence, or similarity versus dissimilarity of values, is expected to lead to important outcomes. For example, studies have found that value congruence between managers and their organizations predicted the managers' success and intention to remain in the organization (Posner, Kouzes, & Schmidt, 1985), and value congruence between subordinates and supervisors predicted subordinates' ratings of supervisors' competence and success (Weiss, 1978). However, the inferences from the results of many value congruence studies tend to be less conclusive given the difficulty of interpretation associated with methodological problems in these studies (Cable & Edwards, 2009).

Structure of Values

Following his conceptual definition of values, Rokeach (1973) made two useful distinctions in the structure of values. The first distinction is between *instrumental values* and *terminal values*. Instrumental values are about modes of conduct, and they refer to the subjective desirability about the actions or conduct, such as being honest, obedient, or courageous, which are presumed as means that lead to certain desirable outcomes. Terminal values are about end-states of existence, and they refer to the subjective desirability of life outcomes such as equality or a peaceful world. The second distinction is between values about *well-being of the self* and values about *well-being of others*. On the basis of these two distinctions, Rokeach produced a useful taxonomy of four major types of values by factorially crossing the two independent distinctions. Instrumental values that are self-oriented are called *competence values* (e.g., being ambitious, independent), whereas instrumental values that are other-focused are called *moral values* (e.g., being altruistic, forgiving). Terminal values that are self-oriented are called *personal values* (e.g., a materially comfortable life, a well-respected person), whereas terminal values that are other-oriented are called *social values* (e.g., a peaceful world, a society with little or no inequality).

Schwartz (1992) argued that the conceptual distinction between instrumental and terminal values, although intuitively attractive, may not be necessary and may in fact create confusion because in many cases the same value may be construed as a means and an end. For example, pleasure may be construed as a terminal value, but it may also serve as an instrumental value in promoting other terminal values such as happiness. Also, instrumental values, such as being honest, could also be seen as a terminal value to be promoted by other instrumental values, such as being courageous.

Dissatisfied with the typology of values provided by Rokeach (1973), Schwartz (1992) proposed a new framework or structure of values that he believed to have universal content that can be applied across cultures. Schwartz presented respondents with items representing specific

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values and asked them to rate the importance of each value to their lives. On the basis of these importance ratings, from large and diverse samples of respondents, Schwartz organized the large variety of individuals' specific values into 10 value types (e.g., power, achievement, hedonism, self-direction). Schwartz further proposed that the 10 values may be organized at a higher level into two bipolar value dimensions—namely, openness to change versus conservation and self-enhancement versus self-transcendence. However, research using Schwartz's framework has focused almost exclusively on the 10 value types, probably because of the generic (and hence less useful) nature of the two bipolar value dimensions. In addition to the 10 value types at the individual level, Schwartz proposed seven value dimensions at the cultural level to allow for cross-cultural comparisons in value research. Examples of these cultural-level value dimensions are prosocial (active protection or enhancement of the welfare of others), restrictive conformity (restraint of actions likely to harm others or violate norms), and security (safety, harmony, and stability of the society of groups with whom one identifies).

A major contribution of Schwartz's framework is that in addition to providing a categorization of values at the individual level, it offers a conceptual guide for us to understand and compare cultures in terms of value dimensions. There is considerable empirical evidence that the framework, including the 10 value types and seven culture dimensions, can be used on a global basis to identify and understand the content and structure of values across diverse cultures (e.g., Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). To date, Schwartz's framework represents the most comprehensive typology of values at the individual and culture levels of analysis, and there is also a relatively large research literature on the results of the Schwartz Value Survey administered in diverse cultures.

Another large-scale value survey project is the well-known World Values Survey, which was developed from the original European Value Survey. The first World Values Survey, conducted in 1981, contained only 22 countries, with 14 of them outside of Europe. The second wave, which contained 42 countries, was conducted 10 years later. Subsequent waves, containing increasingly more countries, were conducted at approximately five-year intervals. Results on the World Values Survey are available at www.worldvaluessurvey.com. One of the most well-known interpretations of the results of the World Values Survey is that the many values across countries may be factor-analytically summarized into two global dimensions of cultural variation labeled as "traditional versus secular-rational" and "survival versus self-expression." Given the large-scale results on diverse cultures available on the World Values Survey and the Schwartz Value Survey, the utility of these two value frameworks is likely to continue for many years.

Current Concerns and Emerging Issues

The scientific defensibility and practical usefulness of values for employee selection are dependent on the extent to which values are adequately conceptualized and measured. The following list highlights some of the current concerns and emerging issues associated with conceptualization and measurement in the study of values:

1. *An adequate structure of values clarifying taxonomy and typology issues (i.e., number, level, and type of values) is fundamental for the study of values to contribute to the science and practice of employee selection.* In employee selection, the criterion constructs of interest are primarily work-relevant attitudes and behaviors. The structure of values is important because it provides the conceptual organizing principles to relate these work-relevant attitudes and behaviors to value constructs. Although we now have several conceptual frameworks that provide researchers with a working structure of values, it remains unclear what degree of comprehensiveness and level of specificity we would require of a values structure for the purpose of employee selection research and practice. A structure is nonparsimonious and impractical if it specifies a large variety of specific values organized into many different types, domains, and levels of conceptualization. On the other hand, a structure with a few generic values is likely to lead to studies with misspecified models because of omitted value variables. There has been a proliferation of value measures that are rarely reconciled with earlier measures in the literature, and this makes comparison of studies problematic and accumulation of knowledge difficult. An adequate structure of values is needed to guide researchers and provide more precise and theory-driven operationalizations of value constructs.

2. *Even when multiple values are examined in a single study, researchers tend to study each value in isolation as opposed to the effects of an individual's actual profile of values.* Note that this goes beyond studying joint effects of multiple values at the aggregate level of analysis (e.g., incremental validity of conformity over tradition, interaction effect of power and achievement), which could examine only a small number of values. The study of interindividual differences in intraindividual profiles of values is important because it is unlikely that an individual's attitude or behavior is determined by a single value in isolation. Intraindividual analyses also directly address the issue of intraindividual value conflicts, which should be most relevant in work situations involving moral dilemmas. The study of interindividual differences in intraindividual profiles of values and intraindividual changes in values over time involves difficult measurement and data analysis issues, but recent methodological advances provide useful tools for conceptualizing and assessing these differences (see Chan, 1998a, 2002).
3. *The study of individual values and cultural values raises important levels of analysis issues that need to be addressed.* For example, does a value construct change in meaning when it is composed from the individual level to the cultural level of analysis? The functional relationships between the same value construct across different (individual vs. cultural) levels of analysis need to be carefully specified in a composition model. Failing to adequately address these multilevel issues could lead to critical conceptual, measurement, analysis, and inferential errors (see Chan, 1998b, 2005a).
4. *Two increasingly important areas in employee selection are recruiting teams (see Chapter 37, this volume) and selection of employees for expatriate assignments (see Chapter 36, this volume).* In these two areas, as well as the ongoing area of interest relating to person-organization fit, the critical issue in the study of values concerns value congruence. Advancement in these areas of employee selection research and practice is dependent on advancements in person-environment fit research, particularly in issues relating to the different conceptualizations and measurements of fit (e.g., objective fit vs. subjective fit; supplementary fit vs. complementary fit). For example, value fit is almost always conceptualized as supplementary fit defined in terms of similarity of values between the person and the environment. Are there situations in which value fit is better conceptualized as complementary fit defined in terms of the environment meeting certain value needs/demands of the person? In other words, value congruence may not always mean or imply value similarity. A different conceptualization of the type of value congruence or fit could open up new and useful areas for research and practice in employee selection. These issues on value congruence apply not only to person-environment fit but also to person-person fit.
5. Given the research dependence on large-scale international surveys, which are largely western in origin, applications of research findings on individual- and cultural-level values to nonwestern cultures will need to pay careful attention to validity concerns associated with methodological issues in cross-cultural measurement.

COGNITIVE STYLES

Cognitive styles refer to the characteristic mode, typical method, habitual patterns, or preferred ways of processing information that are consistent over time and across many areas of activity. So, we can speak of cognitive styles in terms of thinking styles, problem-solving styles, learning styles, and so forth.

As noted by Sternberg and Grigorenko (1997), cognitive styles should be distinguished from strategies. The latter refers to the operations that individuals use or follow to minimize errors in problem solving and decision making. The use of strategies involves the conscious choice of alternative operations, whereas cognitive styles typically function without the individual's awareness. In addition, strategies are used in task- or context-specific situations, whereas cognitive styles refer to more stable characteristic modes of information processing that the individual uses consistently across a large variety of task situations or contexts.

Cognitive styles refer to a set of preferences or habits and hence should be distinguished from cognitive abilities. We can construe cognitive abilities as the "can do" aspect of cognition and cognitive styles as the "tend to do" aspect of cognition. Because styles are not abilities, they should not be inherently better or worse in an absolute or context-free sense. Instead, cognitive styles may differ in their goodness of fit to different environments or situations, and the degree of fit could lead to different extent of positive or negative consequences. Cognitive styles are also distinct from personality traits. Although personality traits such as conscientiousness and extraversion also refer to individual differences in stable characteristic modes of behaviors, they

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tend to be construed as generic behavioral tendencies or predispositions, whereas cognitive styles refer to typical modes of information processing.

Why Study Styles?

Conceptually, the rationale for studying cognitive styles is fairly obvious because an individual's habitual or preferred ways of processing information would affect the individual's perception, learning, and performance. Hence, employee selection researchers and practitioners should be interested in cognitive styles as potential predictors for various work-relevant criterion outcomes. Given the centrality of information processing in learning and skill acquisition, cognitive styles should also be of great interest in training research.

Because cognitive styles affect information processing and are distinguished from cognitive abilities and personality traits, they provide another potential source of predictor constructs for employee selection. In addition, it may be useful to relate cognitive styles to the maximum-typical performance distinction in employee selection. Cognitive abilities are most relevant to maximum performance, and personality traits are most relevant to typical performance. Cognitive styles refer to the "tend to do" aspect of cognition and therefore provide a potential bridge between cognitive ability and personality traits for investigating how these two traditional types of predictors may interface.

Varieties of Styles

The idea of cognitive styles as an interface between cognitive ability and personality was very popular in the 1950s and 1960s, and numerous types and measures of cognitive styles were developed during this period. However, not all of the purported cognitive style constructs are in fact assessing cognitive styles. For example, Witkin and colleagues introduced the style construct called *field independence* to refer to the degree to which individuals are dependent or independent on the structure of the surrounding visual field when perceiving objects. The Rod and Frames Test (Witkin, Dyke, Faterson, Goodenough, & Karp, 1962) and the Embedded Figures Test (Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, & Karp, 1971) are the two most widely used measures of field independence. In these measures, the individual's task is to locate a true vertical (in the Rod and Frame Test) or an object/figure (Embedded Figures Test), which can be accomplished only by ignoring the surrounding visual field. The problem with the purported style construct of field independence is that it most likely represents a cognitive ability as opposed to a cognitive style. The way the construct is conceptualized and measured clearly involves objectively right and wrong answers, and it assesses the ability to objectively obtain the right answer. Contrary to the conceptualization of a cognitive style construct as not inherently adaptive or maladaptive, high field independence appears to be inherently more adaptive than low field independence. It is difficult to think of situations in which field dependence is better than field independence. Rather than a preferred way of processing information (i.e., a style), high field independence refers to a specific type of information-processing ability.

Whereas some measures of cognitive styles are in fact assessing cognitive abilities, others are probably assessing personality traits or multidimensional constructs that are composites of styles and personality traits. For example, Myers built on Jung's (1923) theory of psychological types and developed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI; Myers & McCaulley, 1985) as a cognitive style measure consisting of four factors, each containing two categories (i.e., thinking vs. feeling, extraversion vs. introversion, intuition vs. sensing, judgment vs. perception) that are combined to form 16 possible types of individuals. Although widely used in business and education settings, there are numerous validity problems with the MBTI (e.g., Druckman & Bjork, 1991). Moreover, conceptually and empirically, each of the 16 types in the MBTI is clearly a composite of personality traits (extraversion-introversion) and other individual difference constructs that may be cognitive styles (e.g., intuition-sensing) or the degree to which personal values versus impersonal logic are used as the basis for making judgment and decisions (thinking-feeling).

There are legitimate cognitive style constructs. For example, several researchers introduced (differently labeled) constructs that all refer to the degree to which individuals see things as similar or different. These include constructs such as categorizing behavior (Gardner, 1953), conceptual differentiation (Gardner & Schoen, 1962), and compartmentalization (Messick & Kogan, 1963). These constructs refer to the tendency to separate ideas or objects into discrete categories. Clearly, any two ideas or objects are similar in some ways and different in other ways. Depending on the problem or situation, the similarities (or differences) may be task-relevant or task-irrelevant. Hence, consistent with the conceptualization of a cognitive style construct, the tendency to see things as similar or different is not inherently adaptive or maladaptive—the adaptive value of any given level on the construct is dependent on its fit with the problem situation.

Other examples of legitimate cognitive style constructs are the preference for abstract versus concrete information (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961), the adaption versus innovation cognitive style (Kirton, 1976), and the tolerance for contradiction cognitive style (Chan, 2004). In two different studies, Chan demonstrated that a cognitive style is not inherently adaptive or maladaptive and that it may interact disordinally with the style demands of the work context (Chan, 1996) or practical intelligence (Chan, 2004) to produce positive or negative consequences. Using Kirton's (1976) conceptualization of adaption versus innovation approach to problem solving, Chan (1996) showed that the degree of cognitive style mismatch between the individual's problem-solving style and the style demands of the work context predicted actual turnover over the predictability provided by job performance. In Chan (2004), construct validity evidence for the cognitive style construct of tolerance for contradiction were provided in terms of convergent and discriminant validity with an established set of external constructs. Using a sample different from the validation sample, Chan (2004) then showed that tolerance for contradiction positively predicted job performance among individuals with high practical intelligence but negatively predicted job performance among those with low practical intelligence.

Current Concerns and Emerging Issues

Similar to the study of values, basic conceptualization and measurement issues need to be adequately addressed for the study of cognitive styles to contribute to the science and practice of employee selection. The following are some major concerns and emerging issues:

1. *Unlike the structure of values, there are no widely used or commonly accepted frameworks/taxonomies of cognitive styles.* Sternberg and Grigorenko (1997) classified some of the styles available in the literature into three broad categories: cognition-centered, personality-centered, and activity-centered. However, this classification is not very useful for various reasons. First, only a few examples are given in each category. Second, several of the constructs are very closely related conceptually and may even be identical. For example, it is unclear if cognitive complexity, compartmentalization, conceptual differentiation, and conceptual integration are four distinct styles or if some of these are simply different labels for the same construct. Third, the cognition-centered category includes some cognitive styles that are clearly cognitive abilities and others that more closely fit the conceptualization of cognitive styles. Fourth, the only two examples [the MBTI and Gregorc's (1985) Energic Model] given in the personality-centered category are models or typologies in which individuals are classified into composite types simply obtained from a combination of several factors that appear to include cognitive styles, personality traits, and other types of individual difference constructs. Fifth, the activity-centered category, which consisted of learning and teaching styles, is simply a description of the learning or teaching contexts in which various types of cognitive styles, personality traits, and motivational constructs may be applicable. An adequate taxonomy of typology of cognitive styles is needed to organize the extant style constructs and measures; reduce the proliferation of different construct labels, which in fact represent the same construct; provide meaningful comparisons of results across studies; and aid the meta-analysis of cognitive styles.
2. *Although cognitive styles are conceptually distinct from cognitive abilities and personality traits, the literature on cognitive styles contains numerous conceptualizations and measures of styles that are highly related to or even indistinguishable from cognitive abilities or personality traits.* On the other hand, there are examples of cognitive styles with empirical evidence suggesting that they are distinct from cognitive ability and personality traits

(e.g., Chan's [2004] tolerance for contradiction style; Harvey et al.'s [1961] abstract-concrete preference; Kirton's [1976] adaption-innovation style). When studying a cognitive style in the context of employee selection, it is important to provide clear theoretical arguments and empirical evidence for the cognitive style vis-à-vis the traditional predictor space containing cognitive ability and personality traits (an adequate taxonomy of cognitive styles will provide a useful conceptual basis). When carefully studied, cognitive styles could provide important contributions in terms of incremental validity or interaction effects involving other individual difference constructs or situational variables (e.g., Chan, 1996, 2004).

3. *Given the basic definition that cognitive styles are not inherently adaptive or maladaptive, it is important to validate new cognitive style constructs by identifying and showing, in theory-driven ways, the boundary conditions under which the cognitive style is adaptive and those under which it is maladaptive.*
4. *Cognitive style constructs are often conceptualized, and probably correctly so, as continuous variables.* However, many studies measure and analyze cognitive styles as categorical variables in which individuals are classified into discrete types. This is not merely an issue of loss of statistical power to detect an effect due to artificial categorization of a continuous variable. It concerns mismatch in theory, measurement, and analysis, which are likely to lead to erroneous substantive inferences. For example, dichotomizing the abstract-concrete style continuum into the abstract type or concrete type (hence ignoring the degree of abstraction) makes it impossible to conceptualize and empirically test the hypothesis that degree of abstraction is curvilinearly related to a criterion variable of interest, such as task performance.

MOTIVATIONAL CONSTRUCTS

Motivation is often defined in terms of three features: it directs (i.e., goal-oriented), it energizes (i.e., activation and activity), and it perseveres (i.e., effort). Clearly, motivation is necessary for accomplishing many tasks. Many researchers would agree with the conceptualization of job performance as a function of ability and motivation (e.g., Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Yet, in terms of the non-ability predictor construct space, the past three decades of employee selection research have largely focused on personality traits rather than motivational constructs, such as trait goal orientations and need for achievement. Some personality traits (e.g., conscientiousness) are more easily construed as motivational constructs than others (e.g., extraversion and neuroticism). Given that personality may overlap with motivation, and even if we assume that personality is a subset of motivation (and I suspect not many of us would make this assumption), a large part of the motivational construct space still is not captured by personality traits.

Although motivational constructs may be captured in selection methods such as interviews, accomplishment records, biodata measures, and situational judgment tests, we must not confound these methods with constructs (see Chan & Schmitt, 2005). These selection methods may be used to assess a wide range of constructs including cognitive ability, personality traits, and motivational constructs. Employee selection has focused much on cognitive ability and personality constructs but paid relatively little explicit attention to motivational constructs, although some motivational constructs may in fact be assessed together with ability and personality in the variety of selection methods used. The purpose of this section is to highlight the fact that many established motivational constructs are available in the literature, and they deserve more attention from employee selection researchers than is currently received.

Why Study Motivational Constructs?

Research on motivational constructs is easily justified by the assumption that motivation is necessary for job performance and the fact that the motivational construct space may overlap but is certainly not exhausted by personality constructs. In addition, values and cognitive styles, as defined and illustrated in this chapter, do not appear to possess all three features of motivation. Specifically, most value and cognitive style constructs do not seem to have to be goal-directed, activation- or activity-oriented, and effortful. Motivation should be critical in learning and skill acquisition and therefore should predict work-relevant outcomes associated with newcomer adaptation and training. Motivation is also central in the conceptual definition of typical

performance, in which the basis is the “will do” aspect of performance. Finally, motivation is clearly the central conceptual feature in work-relevant criterion outcomes such as organizational commitment, withdrawal behaviors, and turnover.

In short, the study of motivational constructs is important because some of these constructs are likely to provide incremental prediction for important work-relevant criteria over the predictability provided by cognitive ability, personality traits, values, and cognitive style constructs.

Examples of Motivational Constructs

Instead of attempting a review of the numerous motivational constructs in the literature, which is beyond the scope of this chapter, this section will briefly describe three types of motivational constructs: trait goal orientations, achievement motivations, and interests. The three types are clearly nonexhaustive—the purpose is to illustrate how the study of motivational constructs may contribute to employee selection in various ways.

Trait Goal Orientations

The motivational construct of trait goal orientation originated from Dweck (1986), who proposed a theory of motivation that posited that individuals exhibit different response patterns according to stable differences in their goal orientations. Two types of goals are distinguished—learning goals and performance goals. Individuals who are high in *learning goal* orientation are motivated to learn something new or increase their competence in a domain. They exhibit a “mastery-oriented” response pattern characterized by seeking challenging tasks, treating their performance errors as useful feedback, and persisting to arrive at solutions in the face of repeated failures and difficult task conditions. Individuals who are high in *performance goal* orientation are motivated to seek favorable or avoid unfavorable evaluations of their performance or competence. They tend to attribute performance errors and failures to low competence and hence avoid challenges or difficult situations that are “error-prone.”

The bulk of the research on goal orientation is found in the educational literature. In the 1990s, several researchers noted that goal orientation is potentially useful in organizational research, including studies on design and implementation of training programs, performance appraisal systems, cultural diversity efforts, and task performance in general (e.g., Farr, Hofmann, & Ringenbach, 1993; Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, & Van Dierendonck, 2013). Consequently, there has been strong interest in applying goal orientation in several areas within the employee selection and organizational behavior domains (e.g., Van de Walle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999). Due to the potential value of goal orientation in organizational contexts, it is likely that the interest in trait goal orientations will continue.

Fundamental issues of construct validation need to be better addressed to guide substantive studies of goal orientation in organizational settings. The works of Dweck and colleagues appear to treat goal orientation as a single bipolar continuum with learning goal orientation at one end and performance goal orientation at the other. However, subsequent researchers have argued that learning goal and performance goal orientation are distinct factors. Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996) reviewed the conceptualizations of goal orientation and argued for an uncorrelated two-factor model in which learning goal and performance goal orientations are distinct and independent.

Although there is agreement with the conceptualization of learning goal orientation (LGO), previous research has not distinguished or paid sufficient attention to two important, distinct, and relatively independent dimensions of performance goal orientation. As noted by Van de Walle (1997), goal orientations can be conceptualized as a three-factor model because performance goal orientation can be construed (and assessed) in terms of either an avoid performance goal orientation (APGO) or a prove performance goal orientation (PPGO). Individuals high on APGO strive to avoid unfavorable judgments about their ability. Given this conceptualization, APGO individuals are less likely to be high on LGO because they tend to perceive error-prone

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and difficult situations as threatening and are vulnerable to negative evaluation rather than learning opportunities for increasing job performance. Individuals high on PPGO strive to gain favorable judgments by demonstrating their ability and competence to others through their performance. Unlike APGO, which is conceptualized as negatively associated with LGO, PPGO is conceptually independent of LGO.

Previous research has produced mixed findings on the association between LGO and performance goal orientation, with studies reporting zero, positive, and negative correlations (see Button et al., 1996). The failure to distinguish the notion of performance goal orientation into its two relatively independent dimensions (APGO vs. PPGO) may be one reason for the apparently mixed findings in previous research. Conceptually, we would expect LGO to be negatively and substantially related with APGO but unrelated with PPGO. Given this differential pattern of associations across the two performance goal orientations, the “mixed findings” in research may not be surprising because the magnitude and direction of the correlation between LGO and performance goal orientation would be dependent on the relative extent to which the performance goal orientation measure was loaded with APGO and PPGO. Because previous performance goal orientation items were not designed to assess two independent dimensions, some of the items are likely to be bi- or multidimensional rather than pure markers of APGO or PPGO.

Achievement Motivations

The most well-known construct of achievement motivation is McClelland's (1961) *Need for Achievement*. Individuals with high need for achievement have a strong desire for significant accomplishments. They tend to be approach-oriented, and they work harder and spend substantive efforts in striving to achieve success. In addition, they tend to be medium risk takers and select tasks with intermediate level of difficulty so that they have more than a 50% chance of achieving success (McClelland, 1985). According to McClelland, individuals high in need for achievement have a greater need to achieve success and, conversely, avoid failure. That is, high need achievement individuals tend to also have a high fear of failure and therefore tend to be avoidance-oriented when it comes to tasks with high risks of failure.

McClelland's conceptualization of need for achievement has dominated motivational constructs from the 1960s to the 1980s. Since the 1980s, the concept of need for achievement has evolved in important ways with regard to the way the concept of achievement is construed. A major advancement came from researchers in cross-cultural social psychology. These researchers distinguish between the individualistic notion of achievement, which is based on an independent view of the self as originally conceived by McClelland, and a different notion of achievement that is based on an interdependent view of the self and more characteristic of individuals from collectivistic cultures (e.g., East Asian) in which group harmony, interconnectedness, and social relationships are emphasized (e.g., Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Cultural models of self and need for achievement provide important conceptual bases for addressing challenging cross-cultural issues of construct equivalence, measurement invariance of responses to measures, and comparisons of criterion-related validity involving achievement motivational constructs and achievement-related criterion contexts. Advances in these areas will directly contribute to the employee selection research on issues related to staffing cross-cultural teams and expatriate assignment. Another major advancement in the construal of need for achievement is the distinction of different achievement domains in terms of the type of goal striving. Trait goal orientation, as described above, is essentially a multidimensional view of need for achievement according to the type of goals that one is striving to achieve.

Interests

Interest measures have been used more frequently in vocational guidance situations than in employee selection, but the goal of selection, most broadly, is to find a person who has the

characteristics that best fit the requirements or offerings of the job, organization, or occupation. Interests in certain type of work or careers certainly could be one type of these characteristics, and they are therefore relevant to employee selection. The primary reason for considering and measuring interests in employee selection lies in the assumption that a person will be happiest and most productive when he or she is working in a job or occupation in which he or she is interested (Schmitt & Chan, 1998). Dawis (1991) summarized research indicating that interest, and personality measures are correlated relatively lowly. Although there are no reviews examining the correlations between interests and values or cognitive styles, the notion of interests is conceptually distinct from the values and cognitive styles. Interests are scaled in terms of liking, whereas values are scaled in terms of importance and cognitive styles are scaled in terms of preference in information processing. Interests may be construed as primarily motivational constructs insofar as interests tend to have the three motivational features—namely, goal orientation, activation and activity, and effort.

Holland (1985) focused on the similarity between an individual's interests and the degree to which an environment provides for engagement in activities of interest to the individual. According to Holland's (1985) framework, which is the most well-known taxonomy of interests, individuals and environments could be characterized along six major dimensions: social, enterprising, conventional, realistic, investigative, and artistic. For example, high scorers on the realistic dimension are usually interested in dealing with concrete things and relatively structured tasks, and realistic occupations include such occupations as engineers, farmers, and carpenters. Individuals who score high on the social dimension are interested in working with and helping others, and these individuals are attracted to such occupations as teachers, social workers, flight attendants, and mental health workers.

According to Holland, the interest patterns are organized in a fashion explained by a hexagon. Interest areas next to an area of primary interest are also likely to be of interest to an individual, whereas those interests opposite to a primary area on the hexagon are unlikely to be of much interest. Holland's structure of interests, measured by The Strong Vocational Interest Blank, has received considerable corroborative support (see Tracey & Rounds, 1993).

Holland's framework for the structure and understanding of interest dominates the field of counseling and vocational guidance. The framework has potential for employee selection (for a review, see Van Iddekinge, Putka, & Campbell, 2011), although its direct use is surprisingly limited. However, some of Holland's interest dimensions are probably captured in biodata measures.

Current Concerns and Emerging Issues

The following are some areas of concerns, and addressing these issues would contribute to the study of motivational constructs in employee selection research:

1. *With the emergence of new motivational constructs, basic construct validation efforts are necessary.* Specifically, clarifying the dimensionality of a motivational construct is critical because it affects our theorizing and directs our hypothesis formulation and our interpretation of findings regarding the motivational construct. Consider the research on trait goal orientations. If a three-factor model is correct, then future meta-analytic studies have to take into account the type of performance goal orientation being assessed when coding each primary study. The research on dimensionality of trait goal orientations also highlights the importance of explicating the role of goals in a motivational construct, including the content and structure of goals and the goal striving process.
2. *An important issue in the conceptualization and hence measurement of motivational constructs concerns the level of specificity.* Although the appropriateness of the level of specificity of a motivational construct is likely to be dependent on the particular research question or practical use, we need to ensure conceptual clarity as we move up or down the ladder of specificity. For example, when a motivational construct is conceptualized at a very general level, it is likely to be multidimensional and made up of multiple constructs that may be motivational or nonmotivational constructs. This is best illustrated in the study of interests. Although the concept of interest has the elements of motivational constructs, the interest dimensions in Holland's structure are descriptive categories of individuals or environments

rather than unitary individual difference motivational constructs. In fact, each interest dimension probably reflects multiple personality traits and cognitive styles, in addition to motivational constructs. For example, the artistic dimension describes a category of individuals who are likely to also score high on personality traits such as openness to experience and cognitive style constructs such as preference for abstraction. In addition, individuals' knowledge and skills (e.g., artistic "talent"), as well as their education, opportunities, and experiences, are likely to shape their interests. In short, interests are probably better understood in terms of descriptions of individuals or environments in composite terms reflecting motivational constructs but also a variety of knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs), such as personality traits and cognitive styles.

3. *Motivation is a process.* Hence, to understand how motivational constructs affect behaviors, we may require conceptualizations of motivational constructs that are more dynamic than the static conceptualizations that are typical of personality traits, values, and cognitive styles. To begin, studies on motivational constructs need to relate the individual differences in motivation to the larger literature on motivation, particularly the literature on theoretical models of work motivation (for review, see Mitchell & Daniels, 2003). A theoretical model of work motivation specifies the motivational processes or mechanisms by which motivated individuals select specific goals and pursue them through allocating effort, monitoring progress, and responding to obstacles and feedback. In each of the established models in the work motivation literature, what is the role of individual differences in motivational constructs? Specifically, where in the work motivational model do we locate the motivational construct(s)? A theory-driven framework for including motivational constructs in employee selection would require us to specify the appropriate direct effects and interaction effects linking motivational constructs and the focal variables in the particular work motivation model.
4. *As illustrated in the above discussion on cultural models of need for achievement, studies on motivational constructs need to be sensitive to cultural differences in the conceptual definition of the motivational construct.* Even if construct equivalence exists across cultures, culture effects may operate in other ways. For example, it is possible that culture may moderate the relationship between a motivational construct and a criterion variable. Consider the motivational construct of APGO, which has almost always been construed and empirically demonstrated to be negatively associated with job performance in western samples. It may be possible that in cultures (or task settings) in which there is low tolerance for performance errors and high emphasis on speed and accuracy, individuals high on APGO may not necessarily be rated as poorer performers than those low on APGO, and they may even be rated as better performers.

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH CHALLENGES

In this chapter, I have discussed the basic conceptualizations of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs. Using various specific examples in each of these types of constructs as illustrations, I have raised several concerns and issues with regard to fundamental conceptualization and measurement issues that need to be addressed as we incorporate these constructs in employee selection. There are some commonalities in the critical issues associated with the study of each of the three types of constructs that will impact employee selection. In this final section of the chapter, I will discuss several practical considerations in the use of these constructs in employee selection and propose a strategic agenda for future research directions.

Practical Considerations in Employee Selection

The following four types of practical considerations in the use of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs in employee selection will be considered: legal and social issues, subgroup differences, cultural differences, and problems with self-report data.

1. *Legal and social issues.* We need to consider the legal and social constraints when recommending the use of individual difference measures of values, cognitive styles, or motivations for the purpose of making employee selection decisions. Virtually all of the legal and social issues involving the use of

cognitive ability and personality tests (see Part VI of this volume) are applicable to the use of values, cognitive styles, and motivational measures, although the importance of each issue is dependent on the specific measure and situation of use. Examples of these issues include the legal determination of job relevance, which may or may not overlap with psychometric validity; allegations of discriminatory hiring practices; affirmative action and equal employment opportunities; applicant reactions; and the distinction between psychometric test bias and nonpsychometric fairness perceptions (for review, see Schmitt & Chan, 1998). In practice, legal and social issues are often closely related, as evident in the issue of adverse impact. In addition, the extent to which it is appropriate or acceptable (whether legally or socially) to assess a construct for employee selection decisions may be tied to the selection procedures used and the extent to which the construct is explicitly assessed. For example, values may be assessed in some biodata items and interviewers' assessment of applicants' values is probably captured, although mostly not in an explicit manner, in the interview scores. The measurement of values as a component of biodata or interview scores may not attract as much legal or social attention as the use of an inventory designed specifically to measure values. The last two decades of employee selection research have focused much attention on applicant reactions, including its importance and the various ways to engender favorable reactions. When adequately developed, measures of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs can lead to positive applicant reactions (see Chan & Schmitt, 2004; Schmitt & Chan, 1997).

2. *Subgroup differences.* A practical problem faced by many organizations is the use of selection tests (particularly cognitive ability tests) that are valid predictors of job performance for majority and minority applicants but that show large subgroup differences in mean test scores favoring the majority subgroup. This situation leads to a conflict between the organization's need to use a valid test and the goal to hire a diverse workforce for legal and social reasons. In general, measures of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs are probably more similar to personality tests than cognitive ability tests in that there is no evidence of substantial subgroup differences between majority and minority applicants. However, this may not be true of some specific measures even if the measures do not assess cognitive ability constructs. For example, it has been argued and there is some empirical evidence showing that Black Americans, as compared to White Americans, tend to perform better on a test that is loaded with socially interactive and visual information than on a test loaded with written and verbal information (Chan & Schmitt, 1997). Hence, using a cognitive style measure to assess the preference for processing visual versus verbal information is likely to result in Black–White subgroup difference in test scores, leading to adverse impact problems in employee selection. But in general, adding measures of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs to cognitive ability tests is likely to reduce subgroup difference in the composite test scores and hence adverse impact. Including these nonability measures also increases criterion-related validity to the extent that the criterion space is expanded from the narrow focus on ability-based maximum and technical job performance to the nonability-based typical and contextual job performance.
3. *Cultural differences.* Issues of possible cultural differences in test validity (in terms of content, criterion-related, and construct validity evidence) need to be considered whenever we use a selection measure in a culture different from the culture in which the measure is developed and validated. Discussions on methodological issues in cross-cultural measurement, such as response sets and measurement invariance, are readily available in the literature and will not be repeated here (for a recent review, see Chan, 2008a). Note, however, that cultural differences may affect the conceptualization and measurement of constructs in substantive ways that go beyond the technical issues of cross-cultural measurement. This is particularly relevant to values and motivational constructs given that cultures may differ qualitatively in their conceptualizations of certain values (e.g., freedom, happiness) and motivations (e.g., need for achievement).
4. *Problems with self-report data.* In the assessment of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs, the large majority of the measures used are in self-report format. Similar to the use of personality inventories, issues related to the validity problems of self-report data are relevant when self-report measures of these three types of constructs are used in employee selection, especially given the high stakes involved in actual employee selection contexts. Some values (e.g., honesty) and motivational constructs (e.g., LGO), given the evaluative nature of their content, may be particularly susceptible to social desirability responding problems. In general, cognitive styles are probably less likely than values and motivational constructs to suffer from social desirability responding given the nonevaluative nature of cognitive style items. Finally, although self-report data problems do occur in the measurement of values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs, many of the purported problems are often overstated (see Chan, 2008b).

Strategic Agenda for Future Research Directions

On the basis of the previous discussions on values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs, I propose the following strategic agenda for future research directions:

1. *Dimensionality.* Construct validation efforts that specify and test the dimensionality of a construct are fundamental when examining a value, cognitive style, or motivational construct. Specifically, it is important to determine if the construct of interest under study is a single, “pure” factor or a composite construct consisting of multiple factors. Composite constructs are particularly difficult to deal with. First, we will need to identify the number and nature of the various factors. Second, we will need to establish the different contributions of the various factors to the composite construct. Third, failing to accurately identify the number, nature, and weights of the factors making up the composite construct will result in substantive inferential errors, or at least confusion, about values, cognitive styles, or motivational constructs. A purportedly motivational construct may in fact be a composite label reflecting not only multiple motivational constructs but also various nonmotivational constructs such as knowledge, skills, abilities, personality traits, values, and cognitive styles. Conceptual clarity of the nature of composite constructs is critical to advance the theory and application of the constructs. One example is the composite construct of core self-evaluation (CSE) proposed by Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) to refer to individual differences in the fundamental appraisals that people make about their own self-worth, competence, and capabilities. CSE is construed as a higher-order construct composed of four constructs: emotional stability, self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, and locus of control. These four constructs are established individual difference traits in the personality, motivation, and thinking style domains. With increasing research and applied interest in CSE, researchers have called for more efforts to examine the theoretical foundations and construct validity of the construct (e.g., Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan, 2012). My view is that the fundamental conceptual issue for CSE is about dimensionality and the nature of the inter-relations among the four traits. Specifically, is CSE best conceptualized as an underlying common factor variance construct that saturates each of the four traits (as suggested by Judge and his colleagues) or as a composite construct indicated by a summation of the four traits? In psychometric terms, the former implies a reflective factor model of CSE, whereas the latter implies a formative model of CSE. Some of the unresolved debates and apparent inconsistencies in the literature about CSE may be due to the failure to distinguish these two representations of the relations linking CSE to the four traits.
2. *Level of specificity.* Closely related to the issue of dimensionality and composite constructs is the issue of level of specificity of a construct. Depending on the particular research question, researchers need to ensure that the level of specificity of the value, cognitive style, or motivational construct is appropriate, and this requires clear conceptual definitions of the constructs and appropriate matching between predictor and criterion constructs. Broader constructs (e.g., individualistic vs. collectivistic values, need for achievement) may be more useful for obtaining better prediction of a general criterion (e.g., organizational commitment, overall job performance) in a parsimonious and generalizable manner. More narrowly defined constructs may be more useful for increasing understanding of the criterion space and the predictor-criterion relationships, including possible mediating mechanisms (e.g., linking specific trait goal orientations to specific dimensions of job performance). The issue here is not about any inherently optimal level of specificity of the construct. Any general statement on the relative value of broad versus narrowly defined constructs is unlikely to be useful, because it is the clarity of conceptual definition of constructs and appropriate matching between the predictor and criterion spaces that will lead to higher validities and better explanations.
3. *Adaptive value.* Studies on the three types of constructs, particularly with respect to their use in employee selection, need to explicate and test the adaptive value of the construct. As noted in this chapter, cognitive styles are not inherently adaptive or maladaptive in an absolute and context-free sense. Consider a measure that was designed to assess a cognitive style. Let us suppose high scorers on this measure perform better in tasks across many domains, and it is very difficult or impossible to conceive of two different situations in which the high scorers are adaptive in one and maladaptive in the other. In this scenario, the measure is likely to be assessing cognitive abilities or some other construct that is inherently adaptive rather than a cognitive style. On the other hand, motivational constructs are inherently adaptive in nature in that they should correlate positively rather than negatively with a criterion in which higher scores represent higher adaptive value. It is difficult to think of generalizable situations in which higher-motivated individuals, as compared to lower-motivated individuals, will experience less positive or more negative consequences. Whether or not a value

construct is adaptive or maladaptive is dependent on the nature of the construct. Values with higher evaluative content such as honesty and fairness are likely to be adaptive in many situations, whereas those with lower evaluative content such as individualism–collectivism may be adaptive or maladaptive depending on the nature of the situational demands. In addressing the adaptive value of a predictor construct, it is important to examine possible nonlinear relationships linking the predictor construct and the criterion construct. For example, in certain work situations, collectivism (a value construct) or need for achievement (a motivational construct) may be related to a job performance construct by an inverted-U function rather than a linear association. The specific functional form of the predictor-criterion relationship has clear implications for employee selection. If the function is an inverted U, then individuals with moderate scores on the value or motivational construct are more likely than those with low or high scores to be better performers on the job.

4. *Person-environment fit.* Another challenging and important future research direction is to study individual differences in values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs in the context of person-environment fit. For example, Chan (1996) showed that a misfit between the individual's cognitive style and the commensurate style demands of the work environment predicted actual turnover beyond the predictability provided by job performance. Such findings have potential practical implications for employee selection for various work environments. Similar fit studies could be conducted for various values, cognitive style, and motivational constructs by carefully mapping the individual difference construct to the environmental construct. One promising area is to study the effects of fit between trait goal orientations and the goal orientation demands of the work environment. Clearly, studies of person-environment fit will require construct-oriented approaches that explicate dimensionality and predictor-criterion relationships (Chan, 2005b). Fit is generally construed as adaptive, whereas misfit is construed as maladaptive. However, advancements in fit research are likely to occur if we can show when and how fit may have negative effects, as well as when and how misfit may have positive effects. Examples of possible negative effects of fit include homogeneity of individuals in an environment leading to groupthink and cognitive style fit between individuals and the culture leading to failure to consider alternatives. Examples of possible positive effects of misfit include diversity of individuals leading to new ideas and value misfit leading to whistle blowing.
5. *Interconstruct relationships.* Any individual difference construct cannot be considered in isolation. Future research should examine interconstruct relationships within and across the three types of constructs. There are at least two ways to examine interconstruct relationships. The first way is to examine the incremental validity of one construct over another in predicting a criterion. For example, Payne, Youngcourt, and Beaubien (2007) examined trait goal orientations and found that these motivational constructs predicted job performance above and beyond the prediction provided by cognitive ability and personality. It is practically important to examine if a value, cognitive style, or motivational construct offers any incremental validity in the prediction of job performance or other work-relevant criteria over the predictability provided by the traditional predictor constructs, such as cognitive ability and personality traits. The second way is to examine trait-trait interaction effects on work-relevant criteria. For example, Chan (2004) found a disordinal interaction effect between a cognitive style construct (tolerance for contradiction) and practical intelligence such that the cognitive style positively predicts job performance among individuals high on practical intelligence but negatively predicted job performance among those low on practical intelligence. Studies on trait-trait interactions are important because they clarify and validate the nature of the individual difference constructs and identify the boundary conditions for their criterion-related validities and adaptive effects.

CONCLUSION

Given the modest amount of criterion variance typically accounted for in employee selection, it is understandable that researchers and practitioners seek to expand the predictor construct space by going beyond cognitive abilities and personality traits to include values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs. I have provided an overview of the nature of these three types of constructs, their potential usefulness, issues relating to conceptualization and measurement, practical considerations to take into account in the use of these constructs for employee selection, and a strategic agenda for future research directions. It is hoped that this chapter will provide an effective springboard for fruitful construct-oriented research on values, cognitive styles, and motivational constructs.

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