

I AM IN A GOOD MOOD, BUT DOES THAT AFFECT MY SELF-EFFICACY? AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY TO TEST THE MODERATION OF HEDONIC AND UTILITARIAN MOTIVATION

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Abstract: Mood and self-efficacy are widely researched areas in organizational cognition. However, the nature of relationship between these two variables has often been debated in existing literature. One set of studies suggest that mood influences self-efficacy, while a contrasting view contends that this relationship has not been conclusively established. We developed a four-quadrant framework, hypothesizing the influence of mood on self-efficacy with hedonic and utilitarian motivation moderating this relationship. The model was tested using an experimental design where three mood states were experimentally induced. Participants were randomly assigned to six groups (229 subjects) and self-efficacy was measured after sequential description of a cover-story. Results from the data supported the hypotheses, however, were not strong enough to draw conclusive remarks. We discuss the results, suggest directions for future research, and propose managerial implications.

Keywords: Mood, self-efficacy, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation.

It is fair to assume that people feel more capable and efficient when they are in a good mood as opposed to when they experience a negative or bad mood state. Besides, when individuals are in an induced state of mood, for instance, under the effect of alcohol, they are likely to have a feeling of an inflated self and believe that they can do anything merely because they are in a positive mood state. In clinical population, experiencing delusions of grandeur is an example of the effect of positive mood on one's own capabilities and status (Kavanagh & Bower, 1985). Depressed people are known to become self-critical and have a negative opinion about themselves (Beck, 1976). Similarly, an alcohol induced person who is in a negative mood state, would feel strikingly low and believe that he/she has extremely low abilities.

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The relation between emotions and performance has been well-researched in the organizational context (Ashkanasy, 2004; Chavez & Méndez, 2008; Chi, Grandey, Diamond, & Krimmel, 2011; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Murray, Muscatell, & Kensinger, 2011; Newman, Joseph, & MacCann, 2010; Spence & Goldstein, 1961; Van Kleef, Homan, Beersma, & van Knippenberg, 2010). Varying levels of performance are significantly affected by the individual's self-efficacy, defined as one's own judgments of his / her capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances (Bandura, 1982; Bandura, Reese, & Adams, 1982; Gist, 1987). Few studies have explored the linkages between mood and self-efficacy of an individual (Cervone, Kopp, Schaumann, & Scott, 1994; Kavanagh & Bower, 1985). Like emotion, mood is also an affective state, and the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably.

The study of self-efficacy is important, given that researchers have shown that self-efficacy judgments predict achievement even more closely than past performance of the same activity (Bandura, Adams, Hardy, & Howells, 1980; Bandura & Schunk, 1981). Besides this, effects of mood on self-efficacy have significant practical importance, as studies have also shown that emotional arousal that might interfere with performance is much lower when efficacy is high than when it is low (Bandura et al., 1982). More importantly, in an organizational context self-efficacy is seen as a generic concept that readily influences other organizationally relevant variables like performance (Bandura, 1982; Gist, Schwoerer, & Rosen, 1989; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Given this causal relation between self-efficacy and performance, we promulgate that the present study of self-efficacy shall have useful implications for practicing managers.

Extant literature provides two contrasting views about the relationship between mood and self-efficacy. Several studies found that mood influenced the perceptions about one's self-efficacy (Baron, 1990; Johnson & Tversky, 1983; Kavanagh & Bower, 1985; Masters & Furman, 1976; Salovey & Birnbaum, 1989; Wright & Mischel, 1982). Contrarian views proposed that mood has no effect on levels of self-efficacy (Cervone, 2000; Cervone *et al.*, 1994; Cunningham, 1988; Kavanagh & Hausfeld, 1986). Further, in a series of different studies (Cervone *et al.*, 1994) it was seen that there is, "... no evidence that transient moods influence self-efficacy judgments" (Cervone, 2000: 44). Thus, available literature regarding the relationship between mood state and self-efficacy remains conflicting, demanding further exploration.

From the studies cited above it seems that the literature is silent about the role of task motivation in the influence of mood on self-efficacy. We utilize this opportunity to argue and propose an advanced understanding of the causal influence of mood on self-efficacy; and further endorse that the nature of task motivation will moderate this relationship. The purpose of this paper is to develop

and test a four quadrant framework proposing that hedonic and utilitarian motivation moderate the relationship between mood and self-efficacy. This study focuses on the characteristics and factors that are important in motivating an employee. Since the exact categorization of motivating factors into hedonic and utilitarian does not seem to be available in extant literature, this is done by mapping the factors that motivate an employee with those that differentiate hedonic and utilitarian motives of a task.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Defining Mood in Relation to Affect and Emotion

The terms mood, affect and emotion are often used interchangeably (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008). Affect refers to a subjective feeling state (Powers, Welsh, & Wright, 1994) that incorporates long-lasting mood states, such as cheerfulness or depression, as well as more specific ones, such as happiness or anger (Frijda, 1993). 'Mood' and 'emotion' are generally seen as subtypes of affect (Baas *et al.*, 2008), where emotion is more strongly directed toward a specific stimulus – be it a person, an object, or an event (Frijda, 1993), for instance, discontentment caused by missing a deadline or anger at being stuck in a traffic jam. In contrast, mood(s) may not be object directed (Baas *et al.*, 2008); such that, a person in an irritated mood state is not necessarily angry about anything in particular, rather the person is generally feeling grumpy (Parrott, 2001).

Thus, mood is a relatively lasting emotional state (Morgan, King, Weisz, & Schopler, 1993) and differs from emotion in the sense that, mood is less specific, less intense, and less likely to be triggered by a particular stimulus or event (Batson, Shaw, & Oleson, 1992; Chavez & Méndez, 2008; McGeer & McGeer, 1980). Mood states generally have either a positive or negative valence, for instance, being in a state of good or bad mood. Some mood states have a positive tone (e.g., happy, cheerful, relaxed) and others have a negative tone (e.g., anger, anxiety, sadness). These two bipolar valences (also called as factors in case of positive and negative affect) have been identified on the basis of two major dimensions of mood (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Studies have identified these as: pleasantness-unpleasantness (terms such as *happy, enthusiastic, content* vs. *afraid, upset, sad*) and degree of arousal or activation (*excited, astonished, tense* vs. *relaxed, sleepy*) (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Thus, positive mood state is a function of a moderate level of pleasantness and arousal and negative mood state is a function of moderate level of unpleasantness and arousal. Further, recent studies have identified two sub-dimensions – valence (positive or negative) and tone (activated or deactivated) (Baas *et al.*, 2008; Heller, 1993). Some mood states are positive in tone and deactivating

(e.g. calm, relaxed), whereas others are positive in tone or valence yet activating (e.g. happy, elated). Likewise, some mood states are negative in tone and deactivating (e.g. sad, depressed), whereas others are negative in tone and activating (e.g. anger, fear) (Baas *et al.*, 2008; Heller, 1993).

Self-Efficacy

Among the mechanisms of human agency, none is more central or pervasive than beliefs of personal efficacy (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Self-efficacy beliefs regulate human functioning through cognitive, motivational, affective, and decisional processes (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy theory maintains that, self-referent thinking is the fundamental factor of perceived control (Cervone, 2000). Similarly, it is argued that, despite whatever individuals evaluate as the causes of previous action-outcomes (Peterson & Seligman, 1984), it is unlikely that they would indulge in action if they are doubtful of their own capability to perform a requisite task.

Self-efficacy is an individual's expectation concerning his/her ability to perform various tasks (Baron, 2006). Simply put, it is an individual's belief that he/she can exhibit some behavior or perform a task successfully (Baron, 2001). Self-efficacy becomes an important variable because unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy as described by Bandura was related to performance, but is not an aspect of personality (Baron, 2001). Therefore, one can argue it is not 'hard wired' and thus can vary in accordance with situations, tasks and contexts. Such generalized beliefs about task related capabilities are stable over time (Baron, 2001)

Self-efficacy has wide explanatory power with respect to outcome variables (Bandura, 1982). Efficacy expectations are distinguished from response-outcome expectancies. An outcome expectancy is defined as a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes, whereas, an efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and adverse experiences. Stronger the self-efficacy, more active and stronger would be the efforts.

Three dimensions of efficacy expectations have been identified in the literature (Bandura, 1977); these are magnitude, generality and strength. Magnitude of efficacy expectations indicates that tasks with varying difficulty levels have varying efficacy expectations. Generality means that some experiences create circumscribed mastery expectations while others instill a more generalized sense of efficacy. Strength means that weak expectations are easily extinguishable by disconfirming

experiences while expectations of mastery will have strong efficacy (Bandura, 1977). According to the social learning analysis by Bandura (1977) there are four broad sources of self-efficacy: performance accomplishment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and physiological states. Performance accomplishment is the most influential source, primarily because it is based on personal mastery experiences, and hence, positively correlated with success. The second form of drawing self-efficacy is vicarious experience, for instance watching others perform a difficult task and resulting in success. Although weaker than the first two sources of self-efficacy, verbal persuasion plays a pivotal role in inducing the same; it comes in form of suggestions, influence, etc. The fourth source of self-efficacy, as suggested by Bandura (1977) is emotional arousal; task anxiety or stress generally elicits emotional arousal, which has informative value concerning personal competence.

Hedonic and Utilitarian Motivation

Literature on motivation provides us with different context based definitions, but the gist of all such definitions is that motivation is a driving force and psychologists have defined it as an internal process that activates, guides and maintains a behavior over time (Baron, 2001; Zimbardo, 2000). There are different views about the forms and conceptualization of motivation. The most popular version is that of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci, 1976). Intrinsic motivation gives immediate need satisfaction and an intrinsically motivated act is valued for its own sake and appears to be self-sustaining (Deci, 1976). Extrinsic motivation allows individuals to satisfy their needs indirectly by obtaining additional resources like money, promotion and other non-financial resources (Lam & Lambermont-Ford, 2010). Staw (1976) proposed two components depending on whether the value derived is intrinsic (hedonic) or extrinsic (utilitarian). Against this general view of the two component conceptualization of motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic, the literature also presents a three-component taxonomy of motivation (Lam & Lambermont-Ford, 2010; Lindenberg, 2001) where hedonic motivation is considered as the third component. Lindenberg (2001) has proposed that there are three basic frames of motivation: hedonic (linked to the goal to 'feel better'), a normative frame (linked to the goal to act appropriately) and the gain frame (linked to the goal in anticipation of some gain and improve one's resources). He has further said that, hedonic and normative are two forms of intrinsic motivation (Lindenberg, 2001). Using the same conceptualization in the context of knowledge management Lam and Lambermont-Ford (2010) have positioned hedonic as the third component in addition to intrinsic and utilitarian. Likewise Kruglanski *et al.* (2000) have suggested conceptualization of motivation as 'locomotion' and 'assessment'. Individuals who are high on the locomotion dimension have an inherent attribute simply to 'move'; and activities of high (vs. low) locomotors are motivated intrinsically (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2000). In

contrast, assessment refers to a determination of the rate, amount, size, value or importance of something (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2000). Thus, there is an independent assessment of the current and end state of utility of performing a particular task; which means if this has value, then it would create motivation. Unlike the locomotion dimension, assessment will be positively related to extrinsic task motivation. This categorization may be seen as parallel to hedonic and utilitarian task motivation. Further, it is also suggested that, the same stimulus/task can function as an intrinsic as well as an extrinsic source of motivation; i.e., it can be both content as well as the consequence of a particular task (Kruglanski *et al.*, 1975).

This stream of classification, as hedonic and utilitarian motivation, has emerged from the study of shopping and buying behavior in marketing (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Childers, Carr, Peck, & Carson, 2001; Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2008; Kivetz, 2000; Okada, 2005). Hedonic consumption connotes to those facets of consumer behavior that pertain to the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of one's experience with the product (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982) and utilitarian consumption is motivated by functional needs and typically involves products that are considered practical or necessary (O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001).

For the purpose of this study, the two component conceptualization of motivation as hedonic and utilitarian has been adopted. Specifically, if a task is said to be driven by its 'functional utility' then such driving force is referred to as utilitarian motivation. In contrast, when a task is driven by 'enjoyment or pleasure' such driving force is referred to as hedonic motivation (Childers *et al.*, 2001).

MOOD AND SELF EFFICACY: THE FOUR QUADRANT FRAMEWORK

Mood may affect self-efficacy perceptions by influencing the type of information that comes to mind when individuals appraise their capabilities (Cervone *et al.*, 1994). However, actual performance might be a function of other innumerable personal and situational variables (Cervone, 1989; Cervone & Peake, 1986). Thus, it is rightly contended that an individual's judgments about his or her self-efficacy may be based on relatively small amount of information that he/she recalls most readily, or is best available (MacLeod & Campbell, 1992; Schwarz *et al.*, 1991). Moreover, the individual is likely to pay more heed to positive information in case of positive mood state and vice-versa. Hence, it has been noted that "affective states that prime positive or negative self-relevant information will then exert a mood-congruent influence on self-efficacy" (Cervone *et al.*, 1994: 500).

Our rationale for proposing performance as an implication of the study of self-efficacy is rooted in the 'expectancy' component of the expectancy theory of work

motivation (VIE) and it is seen to be linked to expectancy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The VIE theory describes work motivation as a function of expectancy, instrumentality and valence (Behling & Starke, 1973; Mitchell, 1974; Vroom, 1964); here *expectancy* is the belief that one's effort will result in the attainment of desired performance outcomes; (Behling & Starke, 1973; Mitchell, 1974; Vroom, 1964). We can clearly see self-efficacy as a precedent of the expectancy component, as SE is an individual's belief about his/her ability to perform various tasks (Bandura, 1977; Baron, 2006) and expectancy is the belief that efforts will lead to desired performance goals. Hence this explains the translation of 'belief about ability' into 'belief about efforts'. This linkage between self-efficacy and performance gives us a strong reason to study self-efficacy. We propose self-efficacy as a function of an individual's mood state and the nature of task motivation.

Moderation of Hedonic and Utilitarian Motivation: Theoretical Evidences

It is proposed that motivation moderates the effect of an individual's mood-state on his/her level of self-efficacy. This argument is grounded in the mood-congruent processing theory. This theory asserts that mood has an important influence on cognitive processes, for example its role as a '*cue*' that facilitates similarly valenced (negative or positive) material from the memory (Blaney, 1986; Isen, Shalcker, Clark, & Karp, 1978). Thus, it has been argued, on the basis of the mood-congruent processing theory, that negative and positive mood both will act as cues and elicit related information from the memory that may reduce or enhance an individual's level of self-efficacy. Further, researchers have also argued that, the relation of positive mood to cognition is strongly moderated by goal-relevant features (Aspinwall, 1998). Similarly, where self-efficacy is a cognitive function and aspects of motivation are considered as goal-relevant features, it can be proposed that motivation will moderate the relationship between mood and self-efficacy.

According to the *cognitive capacity view* proposed by Mackie and Worth (1989) the presence of positive mood primes a large set of associations, which then distracts people from careful information processing (Mackie & Worth, 1989). As a result, people in a positive mood may process information less extensively than people in a negative mood (Aspinwall, 1998). Thus drawing support from this argument, a four-quadrant framework (Figure 1) is proposed. This framework explains the effect that mood exhibits on the levels of self-efficacy when the nature of task motivation varies from hedonic to utilitarian (and vice-versa). The framework is grounded in the mood congruence processing theory and the cognitive capacity view. Each quadrant is a section where the nature of task motivation moderates the effect that the two mood states would have on the levels of self-efficacy.

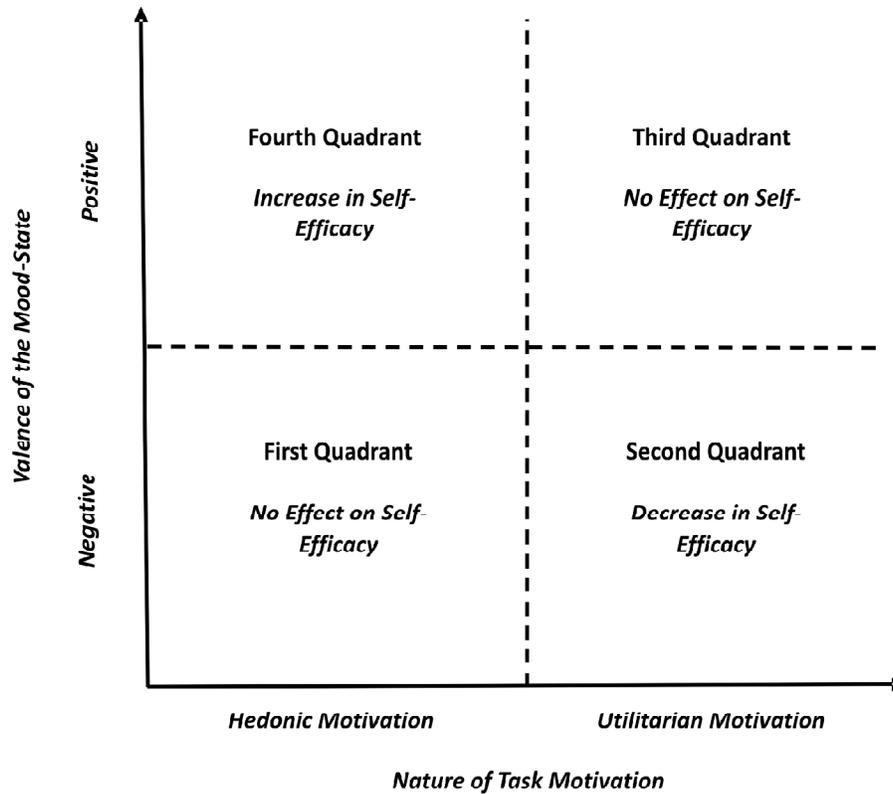


Figure 1: The four-quadrant framework identifying the role of hedonic and utilitarian as moderators of mood and self-efficacy relationship

We argue that when an individual is in a positive mood state and the nature of task is hedonically motivating the information processed, resulting from positive mood state, will be less extensive. However, the excitement and pleasure component of the hedonic task is likely to result in an increased self-efficacy (*for the fourth quadrant*). We posit this increase in self-efficacy using evidence from the mood-congruence processing theory; wherein the pleasure component of the hedonically motivated task will elicit positively valenced information. The sum total of positive valence due to the positive mood state and of the hedonically motivating task will result in enhanced levels of self-efficacy; this is because the impact of information on efficacy expectations depends on how it is appraised at the cognitive level (Bandura, 1977). Besides, the information thus retrieved is also indicative of the 'performance accomplishment' that the person has in context of the task in hand, as it is one of the four primary sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977).

Mood influences self-efficacy (e.g., Baron, 1990; Johnson & Tversky, 1983; Masters & Furman, 1976) and positive mood influences self-efficacy positively

(e.g., Kavanagh & Bower, 1985). Thus, acting as a catalyst to this relationship, the hedonic nature of task which itself elicits interest, shall get translated into increased self-efficacy for the employee assigned with a creative job.

Similarly, when an individual is in a positive mood state, he/she will elicit positively valenced information from the memory (according to the *mood congruence processing theory*); but if the task on hand has mere utilitarian motive, which lacks the pleasure/interest component, it may not impact the individual's self-efficacy about that particular task (*for third quadrant*).

Consider for example the case of an employee, appointed as creative assistant, in an advertising agency. He holds a degree in creative designing and has opted for this job because it interests him (*the pleasure component*). He is part of a team responsible for designing the advertisement of a newly launched product and has been assigned to design a component of this advertisement. In the present scenario, this employee has some significant reasons to be in a good mood (most importantly the new job; and assuming that all other issues for him remain stable/neutral). Now given the positive state of his mood and a hedonically motivating task in hand, it shall translate in increased levels of self-efficacy for this particular task. This is because, we know that mood influences self-efficacy (e.g., Baron, 1990; Johnson & Tversky, 1983; Masters & Furman, 1976) and positive mood influences positively (e.g., Kavanagh & Bower, 1985). Acting as a catalyst to this relationship, the hedonic nature of task which itself elicits interest, shall get translated into increased self-efficacy for the employee assigned with a creative job. The above illustration and preceding review of the literature leads us to the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Nature of task motivation will moderate the relationship between mood and self-efficacy; such that, when the individual's mood state is positively valenced and the nature of task motivation is hedonic, self-efficacy is likely to increase compared to utilitarian task motivation where self-efficacy is not likely to be affected.

When an individual experiences negative mood state, he/she will process information extensively (according to the *cognitive capacity view*). The situation here is that of an individual having a task with a utilitarian motive and being in a negative mood state. In such a condition, the utilitarian motive, which itself does not contain any pleasure component, and the availability of extensive negative information due to the negative mood state, is likely to result in decreased perceptions of the levels of self-efficacy (*for second quadrant*).

In contrast, reckon a situation in which the individual is experiencing a negative mood state and the nature of task in hand is hedonically motivating. The negative mood state will cause extensive processing of information in order to attend to the

reasons that might have caused a negative mood (according to the *cognitive capacity view*). In addition, negative mood state will also cause to elicit similarly valenced cues from the memory (according to the *mood congruent processing theory*). Given this, self-efficacy for this task should decrease, because we know that, negative mood contributes to low self-efficacy (Kavanagh & Bower, 1985: 509). We argue, however that, the hedonic nature of task comes with an interest and pleasure component which in turn will mitigate the effects of negative mood state and will cause self-efficacy belief to remain unaffected (*for first quadrant*). Thus, a sum total of the effect of negative mood state and presence of a hedonically motivated task will bring about no effect in the self-efficacy of an individual.

Let's have a look at the second episode of our previously described example of a creative assistant in an advertising agency. Given the technical expertise and sincere interest in the previously assigned task, our creative assistant performed remarkably well. However, assume a case where owing to recessionary conditions in the advertising agency is hardly left with any projects and has decided to reduce on the number of employees. But since our creative assistant was the star performer, the company decides to retain him; nonetheless, due to project shortages he is redeployed to the back office and asked to account for the performance of various advertising projects executed by the firm. While, numbers do not fascinate our protagonist he still has to continue because he cannot quit the job under such recessionary conditions. Owing to personal considerations and good news from the family side he still has true reasons to be happy and enjoy a positive mood state. Such positive mood state will elicit positive cues from the memory, which should translate into increase in self-efficacy. Instead the presence of utilitarian task which lacks the pleasure or interest component will interact with positive mood state and will further mitigate its effect, thereby rendering self-efficacy to remain unaffected.

Hypothesis 2: Nature of task motivation will moderate the relationship between mood and self-efficacy; such that, when the individual's mood-state is negatively valenced and the nature of task motivation is utilitarian, self-efficacy is likely to decrease (compared to hedonic task motivation where self-efficacy is likely to have no effect).

METHOD

Given the 'difficult to capture nature' of mood and to check for its interaction effect with two other variables, we chose an experimental design as it allows for controlled manipulation of the independent variable (Grant & Wall, 2008). In addition, experimental design, banks on the available technology for the purpose of creating various manipulations in the study variable and the experimental set-

up (Grant & Wall, 2008). In the context of our model, thus, an experimental design seemed appropriate.

Design

We had 6 independent groups (a between-subject design), namely for 3 types of mood states (positive, negative, neutral) and 2 types of task motivation (hedonic and utilitarian); hence, a 3x2 factorial design. The assignment of participants to these groups was random.

Participants

We invited students enrolled in management course(s) at two business schools located in India. Both institutions, located in Tier-II cities, can be understood as affiliates thus ensuring sample homogeneity. Participation was on a voluntary basis, and those who participated received a complimentary food coupon, worth INR 100 (approximately USD 2), which is a moderately significant amount in the Indian context. 238 students participated in this study; 61 per cent participants were in the age group of 18-20 years, 28 per cent in 21-25 years of age group, and remaining (11 per cent) in the age group of 26-30 years of age group. 68 per cent were males and 84 per cent belonged to a nuclear family background (vs. joint family).

Mood Induction and Manipulation

Mood induction for all the three experimental groups was done in a common format, i.e., by screening a relevant mood inducing video. Three short videos were used to induce positive, negative, and neutral mood states. The positive mood inducing video featured a popular comedy act (7 minutes 32 seconds), negative featured a series of road accidents (4 minutes 4 seconds), and neutral video was informational in nature featuring *how jeans are made* (9 minutes 30 seconds). This method of mood induction has been used by many studies and was reported to be effective (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005; Hirt, Devers, & McCrea, 2008; Isen, Johnson, Mertz, & Robinson, 1985; Johnson & Fredrickson, 2005; Van der Stigchel, Imants, & Richard Ridderinkhof, 2011). All the videos were screened on a large projector screen attached with audio speakers.

We used the Modified Differential Affect Scale (MDAS, a 10-item scale) (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003) to assess the effectiveness of the mood inductions; these were administered pre- and post-video screening. MDAS is a state measure of mood.

Past studies suggest that too many repetitions of affect measures during the study might cause unwanted reduction in the influence of affect on cognitive

processes (Kehner, Locke, & Aurain, 1993; Spering, Frensch, & Funke, 2005). Taking this fact into consideration, mood was measured twice during the entire study. As a cover story, the participants were told that the video (positive, negative, neutral) is a leisure activity. As a check towards this, we asked participants whether they were able to consciously think of the video as positive or negative or neutral. The participants however indicated that they could not make any such identification and also that they were unable to link this with the scales administered.

Procedure and Task Material

Phase I: First phase was a basic step of identifying the relevant and effective mood induction stimuli. As indicated above we found that screening of mood-related videos is considered as an effective measure of mood induction. In this direction, five short videos in each of the three mood categories were identified. We then presented these to five independent judges, who chose the most relevant video in each of these categories. As a result of this stage, we got a unanimous conclusion for the negative and neutral mood-induction category. However, no such conclusion was arrived at in the case of positive mood inducing video; rather there was an identified tie between the two videos out of the presented five. Hence a next step was carried out to resolve this operational dilemma. We invited three groups of total 33 individuals and the two positive mood inducing videos were screened. Essentially, the participation was voluntary and these individuals belonged to the same demographic pool from which the main study sample emerges. A significant difference between the observed means of the two videos was found ($t=2.75, p<0.01$). As a result, one positive mood inducing video was selected (comedy genre compared to nature scenery) and is used in the subsequent phase of this study.

Phase II: Each experimental session consisted of seven stages: (1) briefing about the study, (2) assessment of trait affect and stress, (3) mood assessment prior to mood induction, (4) mood induction, (5) mood assessment post mood induction, (6) measure of self-efficacy, (7) debriefing. We began by sending email invitations to individual participants, inviting them to participate in a study that was designed to examine the impact of leisure on task performance. We neither measured (nor intended to measure) leisure or task performance. By naming and describing the study differently we created psychological separation, which makes it appear that the measured aspect is not related to the actual measurement of the criterion or the predictor variable (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Random time slots were created; these were available on an online spreadsheet. Individuals were able to allot themselves to a convenient slot; such a process was

also able to ensure randomness of the sample distribution. Maximum capacity of each slot was 15 participants. A large classroom, with a seating capacity of 90, was arranged as the venue for the study. Participants in all slots were seated at a significant proximal distance from one another. We intentionally chose a classroom six times bigger than the group size (15:90) so that there is essentially no transfer of induced mood from one participant to another. Towards the end, we collected a sample data of 229 participants; randomly spread across six experimental groups, i.e., approximately 38 participants in each group.

Even before the participants arrived at the venue, envelopes containing the cover letters were placed at appropriate locations in the classroom. The experimenter welcomed the participants (by introducing the purpose of the experiment) and requested them to read the cover letter and then fill in their demographic profile (along with an express instruction that name should not to be mentioned). Next, the experimenter introduced the study with the following cover story, *“At the outset we thank you all for participating in this study. The objective is to identify the effect of leisure on our cognitive skills. Leisure is any time period that we spend or enjoy without any preoccupation to one or more tasks, and in addition we are free from any task related stress. Further, cognitive abilities include our regular processes as learning, problem solving, etc. This study in no way tries to identify your IQ or aptitude. We are conducting this study subsequently at two locations in India and hence we would be using all your responses in an aggregate manner only by pooling the sample of respondents. Thus, by doing so we assure the confidentiality of your responses. As a part of this study we would request you to comfortably sit back and help us by responding to a couple of short questionnaires, we also have an interesting video for you in this duration. As we’ve already mentioned the primary objective of this study is to understand the effect of leisure on our cognitive skills, therefore towards the end of your participation in this study, we would request you to complete a task. The task is to prepare a template for a website for selling of management books”* (‘selling of management books’ was the instruction for the utilitarian group; for hedonic group it was for selling of any product or product category of the individual participant’s interest - here the experimenter stressed on the component of interest involved in the task - the experimenter also explained this by using certain examples as, interesting products like, electronics, mobiles, laptops, FMCG goods, cars, etc.).

After this, the first and second questionnaires were distributed; these are the trait measure of mood and the stress scale, respectively. The former was measured using PANAS (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule) a 20-item scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) while the latter was measured using Perceived Stress Scale, a 10-item scale (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983). All responses in this study are gathered on a 7-point Likert scale.

Once again, the experimenter briefly described the concept of leisure. Next, the Modified Differential Affect Scale was distributed (to assess the pre-mood induction state of the participants). Following this the relevant video was screened, with an explicit instruction that *“the purpose of this video is to take a break and create some leisure space during this exercise”*. Post-mood induction assessment was done using the same tool (the Modified Differential Affect Scale), which was distributed to the participants immediately after the video screening.

As the next step, experimenter again described the task to be performed (i.e., creating the website template). The repetition of the task description was intentionally done, allowing the participants to have an immediate and clear idea of the task before (and during) their response to the self-efficacy measure. In addition, the experimenter also emphasized the following instructions, *“first it is only about creating and not designing - so the idea is not to judge your creative skills and therefore it is completely acceptable if you do not have any formal training in website designing, second the objective is to create a website which creates a utility for the consumer (for utilitarian group only) OR! Choose a product for the website that mainly interests you (for hedonic group only)”*. With this, the experimenter distributed the self-efficacy measure, a 8-item scale (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001), mentioning that *“now we request you to kindly respond to this last questionnaire which is a brief eight statement survey, while addressing this please think of the website creation task that would follow after this”*.

When all participants completed responding to the questionnaire, the experimenter thanked them for their participation and informed that *“for the task of creating the website template, we’ll send you an email containing the instructions for the same. You’ll receive this email in next 25 days. This time-lag is mainly because the study is being carried out in two locations and hence only when this phase is over for all participants the task instructions will be sent at a common time”*. Further, the experimenter allowed debriefing by keeping the floor open for any questions about the conducted process. At the end, all envelopes (containing the cover letter and all questionnaires) were collected and participants were given the food coupon as a token of appreciation.

RESULTS

Manipulation Check

We performed one-way ANOVA to check the effectiveness of mood induction across positive, neutral, and negative group. Results show that the difference in experienced positive mood did not differ across groups before the mood induction, $F(2, 228)=0.09, p = .91$. Results of post mood induction shows significant difference

across groups in their experienced positive mood, $F(2, 228) = 249.29, p < 0.01$. Results show similar trend in case of negative mood exhibiting no significant difference pre-mood induction, $F(2, 228) = 3.35, p < 0.04$ whereas significant difference, $F(2, 228) = 225.28, p < 0.01$ across groups in their experienced negative mood.

Post hoc comparisons show that positive group ($M = 26.67, SD = 5.53$) experienced significantly greater positive mood as compared to negative ($M = 10.55, SD = 5.45$) group after experimental manipulation (Figure 2). The neutral group ($M = 27.73, SD = 4.88$) did not differ from the positive group in their experienced state of mood. This could be attributed to the concept of 'positivity offset'. One major reason for this non-significant difference could be the phenomenon of 'positivity offset' (Diener & Diener, 1996), which states that even in neutral state a person is mildly positive and have similar effects on cognitive phenomena. Further, the neutral group showed significant difference from negative group in experiencing positive mood after experimental manipulation. This suggests that positive video successfully induced positive mood in the target group.

Post hoc comparisons further show that the negative group ($M = 21.71, SD = 6.78$) experienced significantly greater amount of negative mood as compared to positive group ($M = 7.97, SD = 3.67$) after experimental manipulation (Figure 3). Comparison

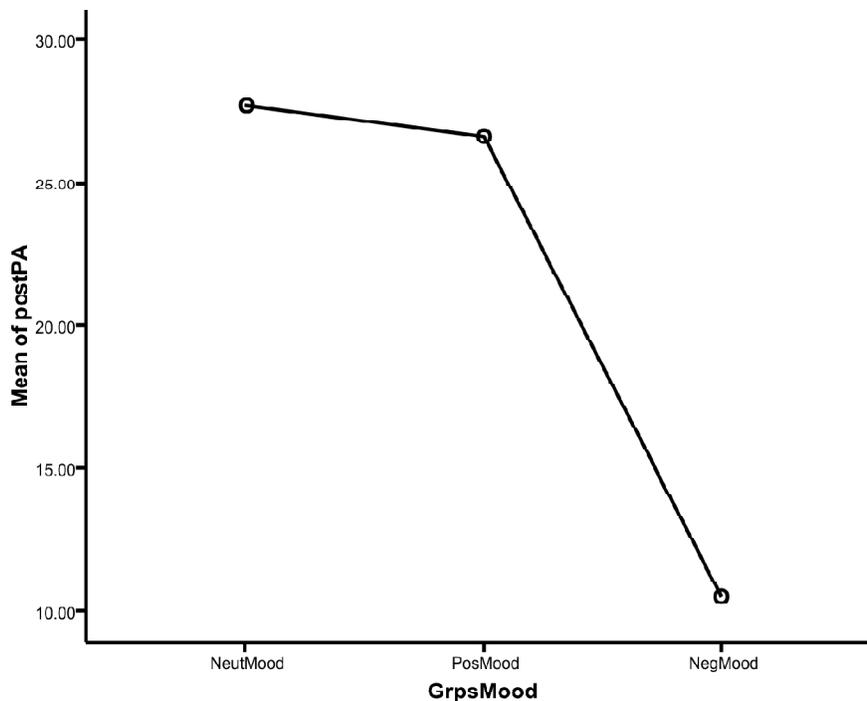


Figure 2 :Manipulation Check: Positive Mood

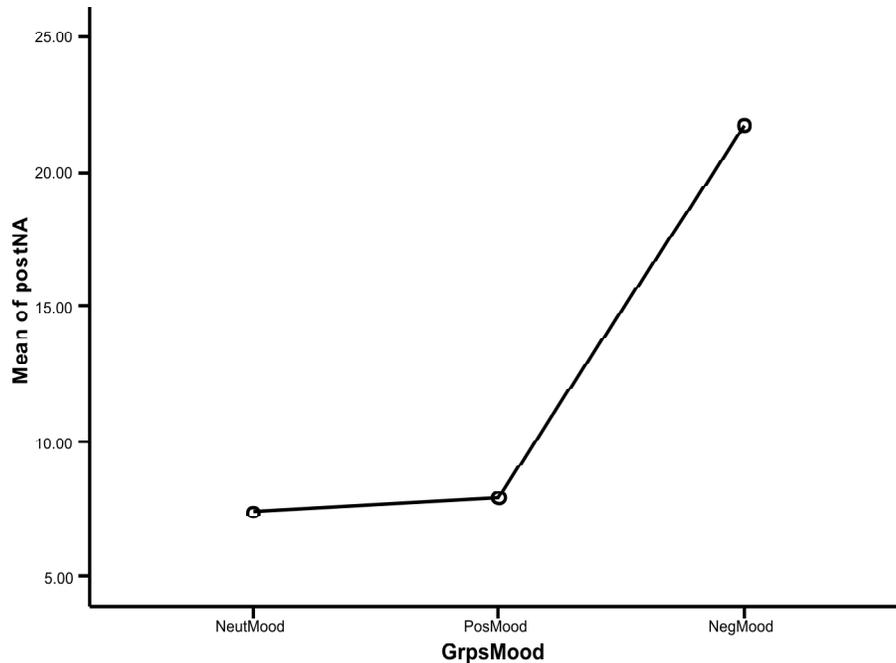


Figure 3: Manipulation Check: Negative Mood

with neutral group reveals that the difference between positive and neutral ($M=7.43$, $SD=2.79$) group did not differ significantly in their experienced negative mood after experimental manipulation. In contrast, neutral group significantly differed from negative group in their reported negative mood after mood induction.

Overall, the results suggest that the mood induction (short video clips) used in the study effectively induced desired mood states across positive, negative, and neutral groups.

We performed one-way ANCOVA to see the difference across mood groups in terms of trait affectivity and stress (preliminary check performed using questionnaires 1 & 2). The results revealed that after controlling for the impact of trait affectivity, the impact of mood on self-efficacy was significant $F(2,225)=3.93$, $p<0.05$. Similarly after controlling the effect of stress, the effect of mood on self-efficacy, $F(2,225)=3.56$, $p<0.05$ remained significant. Thus, both the variables did not have an influence on the concerned linkage.

Hypothesis Testing

Our experimental design had two specific objectives, first, to examine the moderating role of task motivation in the influence of mood on self-efficacy, such

that when an individual's mood state is positive and the nature of task motivation is hedonic, self-efficacy is likely to increase (in comparison to utilitarian task motivation). Second, to examine the role of task motivation in the influence of mood on self-efficacy, such that, when the mood state is negative and the nature of task motivation is utilitarian, self-efficacy is likely to decrease (in comparison to hedonic task motivation). For testing these objectives we designed an experimental study (3x2 design) and carried out a process described above. Hence, a 3x2 factorial design for the impact of 'mood x motivation' on self-efficacy; with 3 mood states (positive x negative x neutral) x 2 types of nature of task motivations (hedonic x utilitarian). Following results were identified in this endeavor.

There is a statistically significant main effect of mood $F(2, 223)=3.07, p<0.05$ and, task motivation $F(1, 223)=6.77, p<0.01$ on self-efficacy (Figure 3). The positive group reported highest amount of self-efficacy ($M=44.49, SD=0.77$) as compared to the neutral ($M= 42.94, SD=0.73$) and negative groups ($M=41.78, SD=0.78$) (Figure 3). Statistical analysis (using ANOVA) shows that there is no significant interaction effect, $F(2, 223)=0.46, p=0.63$. Post hoc comparisons show that self-efficacy was higher with hedonic motivation ($M= 44.21, SD=0.62$) as compared to utilitarian task motivation ($M= 41.93, SD=0.62$).

Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD show that positive hedonic ($M= 45.97, SD= 6.52$) and positive utilitarian ($M= 43.00, SD= 8.94$) groups did not differ on their self-efficacy scores. An inspection of mean scores suggests that despite the non-significant difference, the mean scores of positive hedonic group is higher as compared to positive utilitarian group. This provides partial support to hypothesis 1. Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD further show that negative hedonic ($M= 43.50, SD= 5.48$) and negative utilitarian ($M= 42.38, SD= 6.20$) groups did not differ on their self-efficacy scores. An inspection of mean scores suggests that despite the non-significant difference, the mean scores of negative utilitarian group is less as compared to negative hedonic group. This provides partial support to hypothesis 2.

Overall, the results show that hedonic task motivation enhanced self-efficacy as compared to utilitarian task motivation. In addition, positive mood also resulted in increased self-efficacy as compared to neutral and negative mood. But the interaction effect of mood and task motivation was not significant on self-efficacy in the present study. Hence, we conclude that the results obtained from this data partially supports the four-quadrant framework for the moderating effect of motivation in the influence of mood on self-efficacy. Based on the results, we propose that extended analysis with alternative manipulation checks may be necessary to strengthen the support for this framework.

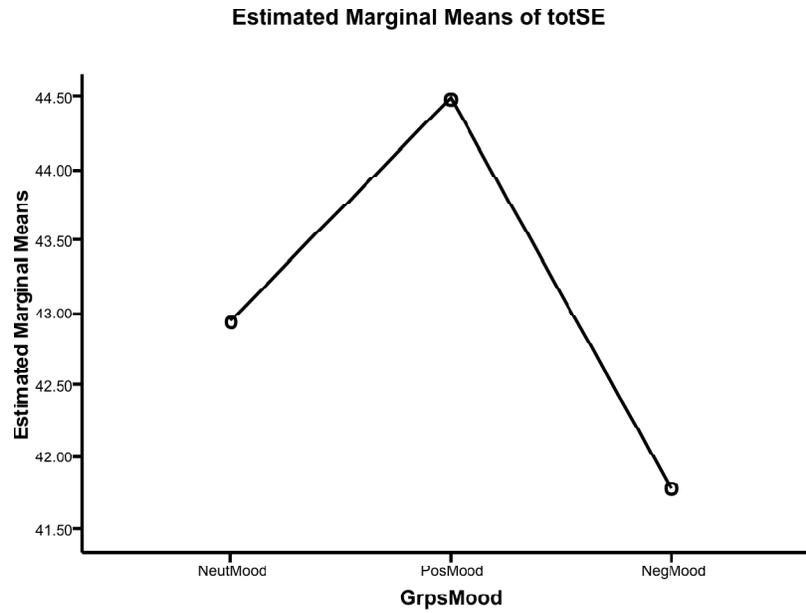


Figure 4 : Main Effect of Mood on Self-Efficacy



Figure 5: Main Effect of Motivation on Self-Efficacy

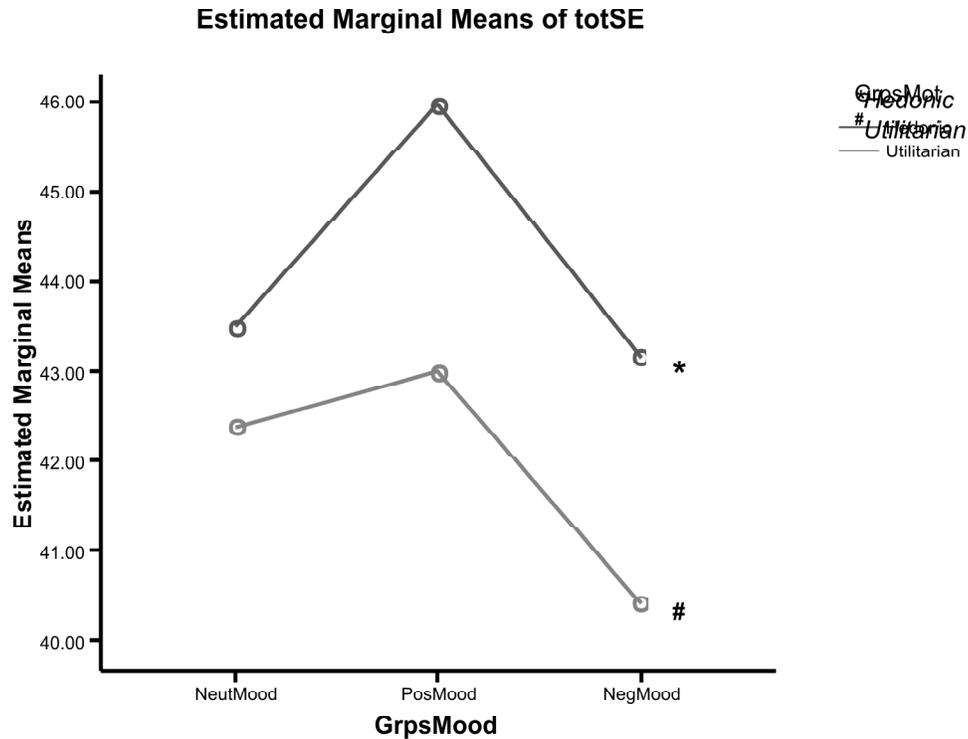


Figure 6: Interaction Effect of Mood on Self-Efficacy in Presence of Motivation

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

While motivation is generally categorized as intrinsic and extrinsic (Staw, 1976) this paper uses the labels hedonic and utilitarian motivation for the purpose of the four-quadrant framework. Hedonic nature of task motivation is characterized by pleasure giving and enjoyment; the utilitarian nature is characterized by its utility and functionality (Childers *et al.*, 2001). When people are primarily motivated by their interest in the work and the enjoyment of that activity, they are more creative than when they are when primarily driven by some goal imposed on them by others (Stenmark, 2000). It is contended that, when employees' are intrinsically motivated, they will be productive, generate knowledge and share this knowledge with others in the organization. In contrast, when they are extrinsically motivated they would tend to generate less knowledge (Amar, 2004) and thus would be low on productivity.

Lyubomirsky *et al.* (2005) stated that, people in positive mood are more likely to have richer associations within existing knowledge structures, and thus are likely to be more flexible and original. Those in a good mood will excel when the

task is complex and past learning can be used to complete the task more efficiently or when creativity and flexibility is required (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). It can be said that when the nature of the task is appealing and pleasurable it functions as a source of hedonic motivation.

As the major proposition of this study, we argue that assignment of tasks according to the employees' identified nature of task motivation renders a significant tool in the hands of a manager. Such control can be exercised to influence employees' self-efficacy when in situations the organization ought to have almost no influence over employees' mood state (e.g., family matters, physical illness, etc.). Second, by means of a four-quadrant framework we emphasize on a specific categorization of the nature of task motivation. Unlike other popular categorizations, hedonic and utilitarian concepts of human motivation have a simplistic understanding from a managers' perspective. For instance, now mere uni-dimensional identification of tasks into pleasure/interest (i.e., hedonic) or utility driven (i.e., utilitarian), makes the job for a practicing manager relatively easy. He/she can now use this understanding to selectively assign the appropriate task to the employees', depending on their nature of task motivation. Such structural changes may focus on creating an ambience that can induce good mood states.

In context of managing the employees', our findings suggest that, although the mood-state (i.e. predictor variable) cannot always be controlled by the organization the nature of task motivation (i.e. the moderating variable) can be controlled by assignment of particular tasks to particular knowledge workers. The organization can manage those attributes of the organizational climate which contribute to a conducive work environment, which in turn affects the employee's mood states. Since the main objective here is to have an enhanced self-efficacy by an employee, it can be seen that both variables (mood as well as nature of task motivation) significantly influence the former, therefore in an ideal condition the organization would aim to maintain both these.

Together, the model suggests that assignment of tasks which are hedonically motivating for an employee may provide a potentially useful means for enhancing the overall efficiency of work outcomes, and hence the attitudes and performance of employees. On basis of the model we also contend that if pleasant mood can be artificially simulated it may relate to enhanced self-efficacy of employees. Such self-efficacy, since it is positively influenced by the hedonic nature of task, will result in overall effectiveness for the organization as well as for the individual employee.

It is contended that the nature of task motivation, whether hedonic or utilitarian, shall moderate such influence. Such moderating influence has significant implications for managing employees in organizations. However, it is necessary

to state a few assumptions that define the scope of this model. For instance, the proposed model assumes that individual mood will have positive and negative valence; and that such valence may arise due to various intra- and extra-organizational level variables, which cannot always be controlled by organizational level mechanisms. Therefore, this limitation carves the way for motivation to influence the effect of mood on self-efficacy. Second, the model also assumes that, an individual will have at least one kind of motivation, hedonic or utilitarian, when he/she chooses to perform a particular task. This contention is also in congruence with the popular literature on motivation which says that, motivation is the driving force (Zimbardo, 2000). Therefore, there would be either kind of driving force for an individual, hedonic or utilitarian. Third, the level of self-efficacy shall vary given the nature of task motivation and it may increase or decrease. This also means that self-efficacy cannot be considered as an all or none phenomenon; certainly it varies from low to high. Fourth, it seemed appropriate to state explicitly that the framework talks about self-efficacy and not about actual performance. This, however, should not be seen as a limitation, because self-efficacy has been positioned as an antecedent of performance in extant literature (Gilson, Chow, & Feltz, 2012; Raub & Liao, 2012; Yang, Kim, & McFarland, 2011). Based on the above, we believe that the model has significant implications for human resource practitioners.

First, from our perspective and as already indicated on the basis of literature, mood is non-stimulus specific (Batson *et al.*, 1992; Chavez & Méndez, 2008; McGeer & McGeer, 1980) and is a relatively lasting emotional state (Morgan *et al.*, 1993). Given these properties of mood, it implies that the organization and managers may not be able to exert significant control on an employees' mood-state. However the managers can exert significant control on the nature of task that is assigned to a particular employee; and thus through this the influence of mood-state (mostly in case of negative mood) on self-efficacy can be moderated. This will enable managers to overcome, to some extent, the detrimental effects of negative mood states. Furthermore, as noted, self-efficacy has numerous implications for training and organizational development (Gist, 1987). This framework suggests a step-ahead of the traditional ways to enhance employees' self-efficacy. Reposing on some of the previous works that simply identify antecedents of self-efficacy (Kavanagh & Bower, 1985; Lee & Bobko, 1994; Tierney & Farmer, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007), we contend that, identification of the preferred task motivation of an individual employee shall render a critical tool in the hands of managers, as an intervention to enhance self-efficacy. This contention also has theoretical implications, as it identifies the nature of task motivation as an underlying mechanism for explaining the influence of mood-state on self-efficacy.

In conclusion, this paper confirms the four-quadrant framework, which suggests that the nature of task motivation (hedonic or utilitarian) moderates the relationship between mood and self-efficacy. Hence, it implies that for an employee to perceive an increase in self-efficacy he/she should be in a positive mood state and the nature of the task motivation should be hedonic (the fourth quadrant), this would be the best situation out of the available four conditions. The second best conditions available would be the “no effect condition”, i.e. (a) when hedonic nature of task motivation moderates between negative mood state and self-efficacy; and (b) when utilitarian nature of task motivation moderates between positive mood state and self-efficacy. The third condition is negative and is strictly avoidable, i.e. when utilitarian nature of task motivation moderates between negative mood state and self-efficacy. It is hoped that the model will provide practical insights to the managers grappling with performance related issues of employees.

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