

BUSINESS TRAINING

**MOTIVATION:
THE KEY FOR SUCCESSFUL
TRAINING**



Presentado por:





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Introduction

Nowadays, business training programs have gained great importance within organizations, since they are regarded as a strategic investment because the human capital of an organization is increasingly turning into its main competitive advantage. These training programs can be described in two different ways:

From the point of view of the organization: training consists of a set of planned activities aimed at training employees (Dubar, 2004). According to Guyot, the company wishes to reduce the difference between the current situation (available competences) and the desired situation (competences that are considered necessary for the company). J-L. and Mainguet C. (2006).

From the point of view of the individual: training is defined as the direct effort at a long-term made by employees to learn, and their desire to acquire knowledge and competences to apply them to their own benefit as well as to the benefit of the company where their work. In this case, individuals' own motivation is involved since, in the training process, they should be deemed active subjects rather than passive.

In my first e-book, *Business training: A Strategic Investment*, I dealt with the first point of view, which means that I discussed the topic of what trainings are, why they are important, and why companies should invest on them, focusing on the several advantages offered by Live Learning.

In this e-book, I will focus on trainings from the point of view of the individual, specifically addressing the issue of motivation, which becomes extremely important, since individuals should be considered as active subjects as far as their training is concerned. So, we will analyze that the factors that allow us to understand motivation can be both internal and external and the reader may be benefited from some pieces of advice on how to motivate employees to engage in training programs.

Motivation to Engage in Training

1. Definition and Importance of Motivation to Engage in Training

1.1 What is Motivation?

According to common sense, the term "motivation" represents "that which moves an action" (Carré *et al.*, 1999). From a scientific point of view, motivation can be defined as "a hypothetical intra-individual force which may have multiple internal or external determinants and facilitates the explanation of the direction, persistence and intensity of the behavior or action." (Fenouillet, 2011, p. 19; Vallerand & Thill, 1993, p. 268). This indicates that motivation is, above all, a psychological concept which can be explained through several internal and external variables. Thus, it is the result of complex processes that involve both the individual characteristics (related to affective, cognitive and social functioning) and the working environmental characteristics and, as a consequence, the individual-environment interactions (Levy-Leboyer, 1998). This way, Levy-Leboyer puts forward that motivation is not shortened to a simple personality aspect, but it also arises from economic, technological, organizational and cultural situations, and their interactions with individuals' needs, values and aspirations.

Since we are dealing with a hypothetical construction, we cannot directly notice motivation; instead, this one should be understood through behavior. In other words, we have to go beyond simple observation: in order to understand this, it is necessary to understand the purpose of individuals, who believe to know the outcome they are looking for (Fenouillet, 2011).

As regards the importance of motivation within an organization, Blais *et al.* (1993, Gillet *et al.*, 2010) believe that employees' motivation is a key element for the success and proper functioning of companies. Fenouillet (2011) reinforces this idea indicating that motivation is an essential condition to reach certain levels of performance, albeit it is not enough by itself. For motivation to really have an impact on the organizational performance, individuals need to carry out a strategy to be able to perform the activity and know how to act.

1.2 What is Motivation to Engage in Training?

As regards motivation within the environment of adult education, it is nowadays the object of two different issues (Fenouillet, 2011): one deals with commitment to engage in training, while the other refers to the learning itself. However, when talking about motivation to engage in training, the former seems to be more important than the latter.

According to Fenouillet (2011), Bourgeois and Carré are the ones who deal with this issue of commitment. The difference between them is





that the first one does not limit the topic to a motivation problem, while the second one deals with training specifically from that perspective. Thereby, Fenouillet (2011) affirms that there is only one model which particularly refers to the context of adult education, i.e., Carré's model (according to Motives for training commitment: P. Carré's model).

In agreement with Carré and Caspar (1999, 2001), the relationship between motivational process and training can be analyzed from two angles:

- The motivation to participate in training programs: it deals with the first expression of intent.
- The effective participation and motivational process throughout training (persistence or abandonment of training).

So, motivation represents a dynamic dimension as far as training is concerned and is focused on three main aspects (Carré, 1999, 2001):

- Conative: this is about intention, will and projects within the framework of training.
- Cognitive: this is related to the representation, conception and perception of the training content.
- Affective: here, we deal with feelings and emotions, pleasure or lack of pleasure of taking part in a training program.

It is important to mention that, according to sociological studies, motivation to engage in training and commitment in training are not only subject to employees' will, but also depend on other independent characteristics, such as the size of the company, the level of qualification, genre, etc. (Fenouillet, 2011). This way, the motivation to engage in training is the result of an articulation of external requirements related to a situation, and internal desires that arise from the own path and subjective hopes of each personality (Dubar, 2004).

To conclude, such as Dubar (2004) points out, in order to correctly analyze motivation to engage in training, it is not enough to draft a list of motives, but it is necessary to start at the underlying motivational factors to really talk about individuals' motivation.

1.2.3 Motives for Training Commitment: P. Carré's Model

Founding Works on Motivation to Engage in Training

C. Houle (1961, Carré, 2001) developed founding works on the issue of adult motivation to take part in training programs. He differentiated three main motivational orientations that led adults to train: orientations towards an external objective, towards knowledge and towards training itself.



Thanks to these works, the following investigations helped to establish a list of motives expressed by adults when explaining their motivation to engage in training (Carré, 2001):

Authors	R. Boshier (en Merrian & Caffarella, 1991)	Beder y Valentine (1990)	Henry y Basile (1994)
Motives	Social relations	Personal development	General interest
	External pressure	Family responsibility	Professional reasons
	Community service	Search for distraction	Meeting with other people
	Professional progression	Need for competence	Distraction
	Distraction	Religious or community commitment	Recent personal change
	Cognitive interest	Change in life	
		Professional progression	
		Economic need	
		Acquisition of a diploma	
		External pressures	

Table1: List of motives given to explain the participation in training programs.

P. Carré's Model

Hence, we can state that Carré based on these researches to make a model that, as Fenouillet (2011) upholds, is characterized by focusing on the nature of the motives that individuals put forward to explain their presence in training programs.

First of all, two motivational orientation central points can be distinguished (Carré, 2001). In the first central point we can find two kinds of orientation:

- Intrinsic orientation: the expected outcome is mixed up with the training activity.
- Extrinsic orientation: the purpose of the training is to reach the objectives that are external to it.

The second central point illustrates an orientation:

- towards learning: here, we look for the acquisition of a training content (knowledge, skills, and attitudes), which means, we focus on the learning of knowledge.
- towards participation: enrolling in a training is related to the anticipation of an outcome, apart from the learning of knowledge.

Combining these two central points, we obtain a division into four specific "squares", in which we can insert the various motives for training commitment (three "intrinsic" and seven "extrinsic" motives that are not mutually exclusive).

The three "intrinsic" motives are the following:

Epistemic Motive

In this case, the motive is related to knowledge. Therefore, motivation depends on the training content. This is an issue of curiosity or even passion for learning or knowing, directed to a mental opening, towards metacognition.

Socioemotional Motive

In this case, individuals participate in training to obtain benefits from social contacts. Above all, this is about the pleasure of being with others. To face this enrollment motive, the training must offer opportunities of exchange with other individuals and allow for the development of new socioemotional relationships, integration in groups, communications, etc.

Hedonic Motive

This is about participating for the pleasure that the activity itself offers, notwithstanding the content (Houle, 1961, Carré, 2001). So, the environment and the comfort of the training places are the underlying factors of this motive.

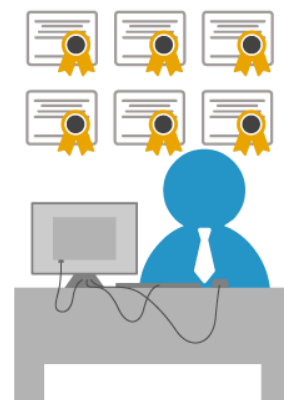
The seven "extrinsic" motives are the following:


Economic Motive

The reasons for which individuals participate in training programs are explicitly material, in other words, the mere fact of participating in a training action will give them economic advantages.

Imposed Motive

This is the most extrinsic dimension of motivation, which is, in this case, the outcome of someone else's requirement. This motive may be analyzed in two ways; firstly, by means of a sober analysis





(the social conformity pressure, the hierarchy "advice", the intervention of someone with influence, etc.) and secondly, by means of an explicit analysis (the enrollment provided for by the law).

Derivative Motive

The individual is committed to the training to avoid uncomfortable situations or activities, such as an improper working environment, routine tasks, etc.

Professional Operative Motive

This is related to the acquisition of competences (knowledge, skills, attitudes) regarded as necessary to make specific activities in the working field. In these cases, there is always a precise performance objective. This is the classic function of continuous training: the development of competences.

Personal Operative Motive

This motive deals with the acquisition of competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) regarded as necessary to carry out specific activities outside the working field (leisure, family life, etc.).

Identity Motive

This motive is focused on the recognition of the environment and the social image of the individual. In this situation, the individual enrolls in a training in order to acquire the necessary competences to keep or transform their identity characteristics, to maintain or transform their social, professional or familiar status, or their role, etc.

Vocational Motive

This is about acquiring the competences (knowledge, skills, attitudes) regarded as necessary to obtain or maintain a job position, or even to trigger its evolution or transformation. In this case, we deal with a logic of professional orientation, career management, or job search.

The following figure offers a vision of the group of motives according to the different orientations:

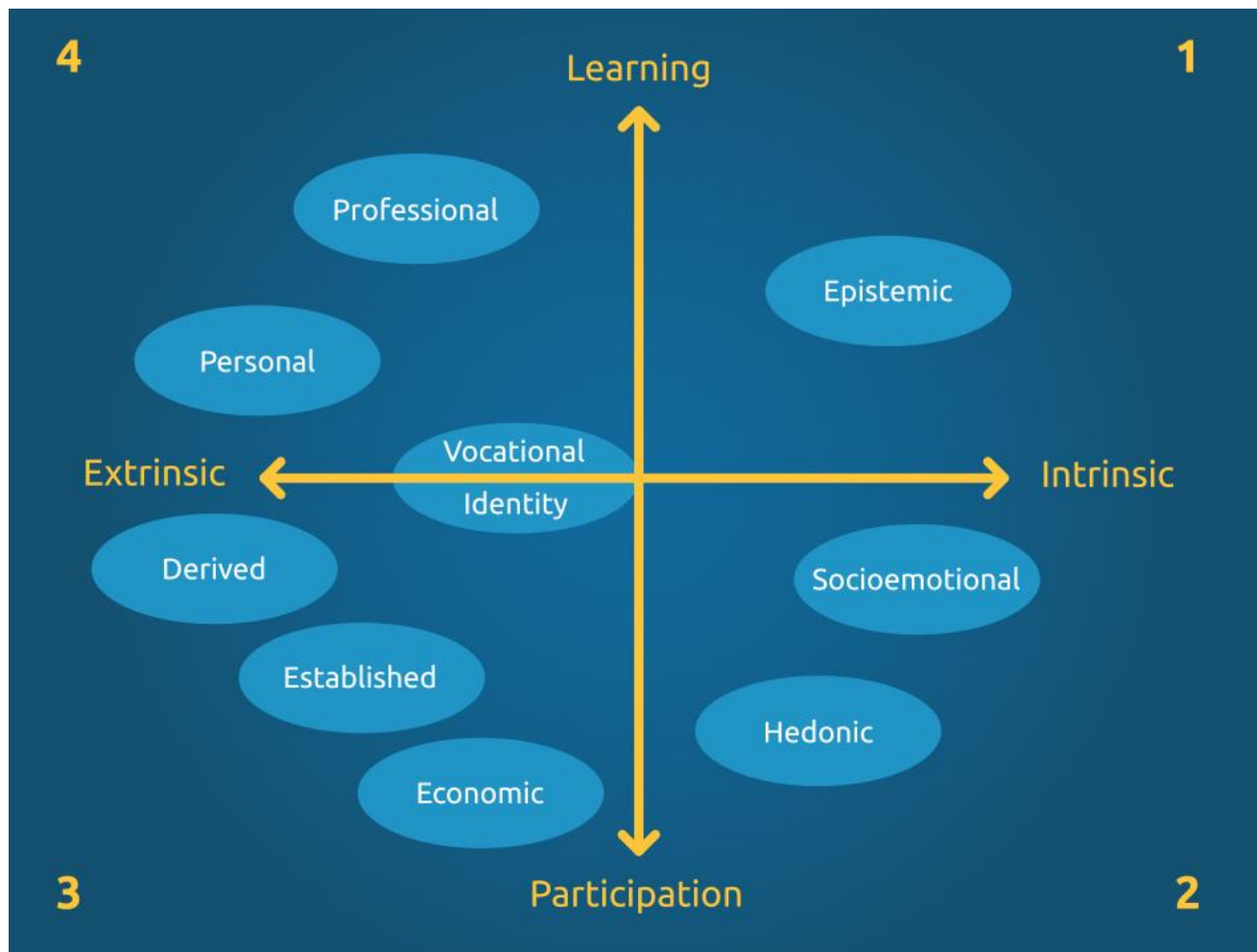



Figure 1: Commitment motives according to P. Carré.

1.3 Why is Motivation to Engage in Training Important?

As we have already mentioned, individuals are nowadays considered responsible for the management of their competences. Thus, there is a change of perspective towards giving value to individuals' autonomy, who must keep a role of an active learner. For this reason, individuals' motivation to engage in training constitutes the first psychological demand necessary for the success of the training. Therefore, individuals must get involved, mobilize and take part in the production and development of their competences. Dubar (2004) adds that this is very important



since, otherwise, the individual will end up staying apart. Not only will motivation turn the training more effective (Carré, 2001; Noe & Wilk, 1993, Kang, 2007; Fecteau, 1995), but also the organization in general (Carré, 2001).

Besides, it has been demonstrated that the motivation to engage in training is a predictive of:

- the decision of continuing a training (Colquitt *et al.*, 2000, Kraiger, 2002)
- the effort that the person makes to learn during training (Colquitt *et al.*, 2000, Kraiger, 2002) and the fact that they really learn during such training (Baldwin *et al.*, 1991, Fecteau *et al.*, 1995).
- the choice to apply the competences at work, which means, making the transfer (Quinones, Kraiger, 2002) ,and thus to have a better working performance (Mathieu *et al.*, 1992, Fecteau *et al.*, 1995).

For that reason, Kraiger (2002) holds that one of the conditions for a business training to be effective is that the employees need to be motivated. He also adds three aspects:

- to be willing to learn;
- to learn the content of the training program;
- to effectively and continuously transfer the content learned during the training to the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988, Kraiger, 2002; Haccoun and Saks, 1998, Laroche & Haccoun, 2000).

2. Cognitive Theories of Motivation

There are different theories that aim at explaining motivation from individuals' own characteristics. These theories enabled the determination of the possible individual factors that may influence the motivation to engage in training.

2.1 Theory of Human Motivation

According to J. Nuttin (Carré, 1999, 2001), human motivation is characterized by the intentional search for progress through the construction of personal objectives, plans and projects, in which the perspective of the future becomes fundamental.

The peculiarity of human motivation is based on two big characteristics:

- Self-development dynamism: according to the author, we all have a tendency, inherent in the human behavior, to progress towards personal objectives, which are more and more advanced each time. This means that we do not compulsorily need a stimulus to take action,



unlike animals' behavior, or computer's functioning, that reproduces necessarily pre-programmed cycles of actions.

- Directionality: J. Nuttin also makes reference to the difference between men and animals, holding that unlike the latter, men have the capacity to observe orientations and objectives with the purpose of executing, modifying and regulating their actions. Thus, there is a process of cognitive elaboration of the self-development dynamism that leads to the construction of personal objectives, plans and projects made up based on individuals' representation of the future. In other words, the self-regulatory process allows individuals to build their own criteria to reach their objectives and, thus, evaluate them.

As regards their relation with trainings, Nuttin (1987, Carré, 1999, 2001) holds that the insertion in a continuous training may be deemed to be a personal evolution, with the condition that individuals must incorporate the proposed training progress in their self-development project.

Whereas J. Nuttin focuses his studies on individuals' perspectives on the future and their intentional search for progress, V. Vroom prefers to concentrate on the results and rewards taken into account, as discussed below.

2.2. "Expectancy-Value" Theories (VIE)

V. Vroom proposes a cognitive model of motivation in work affirming that each individual rationally and consciously decides to make efforts towards activities that are expected to provide the outcomes and rewards desired by the individual (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998). Thus, and as J. Nuttin also explained, he holds that we all know the results that we expect from our job.

For Vroom (1964, Carré, 1999, 2001), motivation is the force that arises from three elements that enable the explanation of the choices related to the job or the decision-making scheme.

Valence (V)

It represents the importance that the individual places on the fact of achieving the rewards of an action. So, this is an affective characterization (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998), whether positive or negative. It can change at any time and it is directly related to a person's hierarchy of values.

For example: in the case of a promotional training, valence is related to the value that the individual gives to the fact of obtaining the desired position. We may then say that promotion here has a positive valence.



Instrumentality (I)

It represents the relation that the person perceives between the performance (immediate outcome that Lévy-Leboyer (1998) qualifies as a first level outcome) and the final outcome of the action cycle, or, as Lévy-Leboyer (1998) points out, the second level outcome, for example: salary, promotions, etc. To put it in other words, if individuals are convinced that a high performance level will allow them to get desired second level outcomes, they will increase the efforts to achieve the necessary performance level. The same will occur if that allows them to avoid negative valence outcomes. For example: the instrumentality of the training action will be valued according to the possibility of obtaining a desired job position in case of passing the training.

Expectancy (E)

This is the belief that a certain performance may be achieved. Expectancy then represents the probability that individuals agree to successfully achieve the action undertaken with a specific objective (Carré, 1999, 2001; Lévy-Leboyer, 1998). As from this opinion, the individual will make more or less effort to carry out the task, which in our case means attending a training program. As Lévy-Leboyer (1998) points out, if individuals are not convinced of having the minimum abilities and competences required for the task, they will not be motivated to carry it out. This concept of Vroom refers to the concept of self-efficacy of Bandura, which will be explained afterwards. For example: in the case of a promotional training, we would be dealing with the probability of a person's achieving the entire performance for the training.

Based on the idea that motivation is a process in permanent renovation, Porter and Lawler completed Vroom's model integrating it to a line of events (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998). They believe that performance has other determinants besides motivation and that, consequently, we do not have to expect a strong relation between instrumentality, expectancy, valence and performance. They affirm that performance leads to enjoyment only if several conditions are met. For example, rewards (in instrumentality, second level outcomes) will be a source of enjoyment only if the individual regarded them as just and equal.

As we can see, Vroom's model presents some limits in the theoretical sense and has been completed or replaced by other concepts, besides Porter's and Lawler's, which will be presented as follows.

Their objective is to correct the simplifying aspect of the cognitive model, affirming that the treatment and the integration of the information are different according to the individuals and the different situations of one individual (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998).



2.3 The Personal Causation Models

These models refer to the causes that individuals give to the events that happen to them and their vision of their own role in their successes and failures. We can regard these models as a theory itself, which covers the system of convictions and perceptions that individuals have in relation to the context and causes of events (Skinner, 1995, Carré, 1999, 2001).

Within this category, we have four theories that are organized around the following concepts:

Locus of Control

The individual has an internal and external control. The former refers to individuals' tendency to interpret events as resulting from their own action. So, we could associate this concept to "self-determination" or "autonomy" concepts of Deci and Ryan (according to Competence and self-determination Theory). As regards external control, this is related to the tendency of attributing the onset of events to fate, destiny or to other people, to complicated and unpredictable events of life (Carré, 1999, 2001). We will specifically analyze the concept of autonomy and its connection with motivation to engage in training.

Causal Attributions

Weiner's theory comes to enrich the concept of locus of control. The word "attribution" means that we explain a behavior through certain causes (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998). According to this theory, the causes that individuals attribute to negative or unexpected events that happen to them are studied based on three factors (Carré, 1999, 2001; Lévy-Leboyer, 1998):

- the degree of inner nature, instead of causation or locus of control
- stability of outcomes: characterizes the way in which these outcomes are perceived as stable and likely to be repeated, or as random and likely to change in time.
- controllability: determines the degree according to which the outcomes are perceived as submissive to voluntary control.

We also find a relation between the different ways of attributing causes to the outcomes and how expectations evolve (according to "Expectancy-value" theories for the definition of "expectancy"): if failure, for example, is attributed to stable causes, as incompetence, expectancy will be strongly affected. On the contrary, if failure is perceived as likely to be controlled, it will neither alter self-esteem nor reduce expectancy, the hope of achieving success in other occasions. The same thing happens if failure is regarded as random, since in this case, the cause will not be placed on individuals' competence and, thus, the motivation will remain intact (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998).

Learned Helplessness

Whereas the aforementioned theories deal with motivation, this theory focuses on the state of helplessness, that is to say, in the loss of motivation.

M. Seligman (1975, Carré, 1999, 2001) evidenced that when individuals repeatedly experiment negative events, they gradually learn not only to avoid any reaction, but also to think that reactions are helpless. The person then undergoes a state of learned helplessness. As regards control, investigations on learned helplessness show that if individuals think they cannot control the outcome of their actions any longer, then they stop acting and resign to continue (Maier & Seligman, 1975, Fenouillet, 2011). So, to motivate individuals to engage in training programs, a mere objective or motive is not enough; instead, that objective must have a future. If individuals believe that they will not be able to accomplish the objective, then they will lose all motivation (Peterson *et al.*, 1993, Fenouillet, 2011).


Self-Efficacy (Bandura)



Previously, we have given an outline of what may be the definition of the feeling of self-efficacy (according to the "expectancy-value" theories). Now, we will deal in detail with what it is all about.

This feeling of self-efficacy or personal efficacy has been the object of a great amount of investigations (Galand & Vanlede, 2004), thanks to, among other things, the great predictive capacity of motivation (Carré, 2001). A. Bandura (2002, Carré, 1999, 2001) put forward this concept to illustrate the role of convictions that social individuals shape in connection with their competences to successfully carry out a task (Miller *et al.*, 1996, Galand & Vanlede, 2004). Besides, as regards their efficacy, individuals' beliefs have an influence on nearly all their activities, not only on their way of motivating, but also on their way of thinking, feeling and behaving (Lecompte, 2004). Lecompte clarifies that this feeling is not related to the amount of abilities that individuals have, but to the things that individuals believe they can carry out with their abilities in different situations. So, it can be deducted that the feeling of self-efficacy shows a contextual relatively flexible nature: the beliefs of efficacy change from one activity field domain to another, and from one moment to another (Galand & Vanlede, 2004).

Self-efficacy presents four main sources of information (Galand & Vanlede, 2004; Lecompte, 2004):

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- **Control active experiences or personal control** (previous performances, success, and failure): success indicates skills and enables the building of a solid belief of personal efficacy, whereas the contrary takes place with failure.
 - **Vicarious experiences or social learning** (modeling, social comparison): those individuals whose characteristics, such as age and gender, are closer to us are the most likely to be our source of information. In this way, the fact of observing the success or failure of these individuals during the development of a task can influence our feeling of self-efficacy towards such task.
 - **Other's persuasion** (evaluating feedback, stimulus, and meaningful persons' opinions): when facing certain difficulties, it will be easier to keep a feeling of personal efficacy if other meaningful individuals express their confidence in our skills. However, it is important to point out that this effect is possible if individuals already believe that they can act efficiently.
 - **Psychological and emotional states**: this source of information is generally studied when the activity is related to health, psychic activities and stress management.

The Feeling of Self-Efficacy and its Relation to the Motivation to Engage in Training

According to Kraiger (2002), the feeling of self-efficacy describes the belief that individuals have as regards their own capacity to successfully learn the content of the training. This way, it has been proven that individuals with a low level of self-efficacy are less predisposed to new situations, limiting their ability to directly benefit from the training (Hill *et al.*, 1987, Switzer *et al.*, 2005). On the other hand, individuals that have a high level of self-efficacy present a positive attitude towards the usefulness of the training (Guthrie & Schwoerer, 1994, Switzer *et al.*, 2005) and deem themselves capable of obtaining extrinsic rewards thanks to their good performance resulting from the acquisition of knowledge and competences (Latham, 1988, Switzer *et al.*, 2005). In any case, we must also highlight that, as Galand and Vanlede affirm (2004), the greater the feeling of self-efficacy of individuals is, the greater their willingness to carry out activities that represent a challenge for them, and which will give them the chance to develop their skills, instead of activities that involve simple and easy tasks, which they know they will solve without any problem. Therefore, it is possible that, if individuals regard offered training as something easy to learn, that activity will not be a challenge and, thus, they will prefer another kind of training.

Finally, a study by Colquitt *et al.* (2000, Kraiger, 2002) proved that there is a relation, which ranges from moderated to strong, between self-efficacy and motivation to engage in training.

2.4 Competence and Self-Determination Theory

E. Deci and R. Ryan developed an integrated theory on motivation, resulting from two basic human needs (Vallerand, Thill, 1993, Carré, 1999, 2001):

- **the perception of competence versus helplessness** (concept related to the expectancy - according to Vroom's "expectancy-value" Theory - and the feeling of self-efficacy - according to the Personal causation model: Self-efficacy): this need represents individuals' sense of having the capacity to produce certain desired events or reach certain achievements. Nicholls (1984, Fenouillet, 2011) holds that self-judgment is directly or inversely related to the effort exerted by the individual. Therefore, when individuals anticipate a failure, they will purposefully lessen their effort;
- **the feeling of self-determination (or autonomy)**: in this case, it represents individuals' sense of being at the onset of their actions, being able to choose, and feeling free from their behaviors. Self-determination is characterized by individuals' autonomy to perform an activity; it has a direct influence on motivation (Fenouillet, 2011).

As a result of this double need, E. Deci and R. Ryan developed a theory that leads us to distinguish different types of motivation, from amotivation to intrinsic motivation, going through three classes of extrinsic motivation. This theory led to the construction of a "Hierarchical Model of Motivation" (Vallerand et al., Carré, 1998). Therefore, Gillet et al. (2010) explain that:

- intrinsic motivation is regarded as the most self-determined motivation (or autonomous). Individuals are intrinsically motivated when they spend their time in an activity because they find it interesting and feel pleasure and enjoy practicing it. Fenouillet (2011) adds that the most self-determined motivations are related to the sense and interest showed by individuals upon a specific activity. According to Deci and Ryan (2000, Fenouillet, 2011), those motivations allow a clear prediction of the learning and persistence level.
- Extrinsic motivation implies that enjoyment does not come from the activity itself, but from the external factors related to it, such as financial rewards. Fenouillet (2011) holds that the less self-determined motivations (or non-self-determined or controlled) are directly related to the obligations undertaken.
- Amotivation is the absence of motivation, situation near to helplessness (according to Learned Helplessness, Seligman). Pursuant to Deci and Ryan (2002, Fenouillet, 2011) amotivation is not defined as the absence of behaviour, but as the state of lacking an intention to act.





Autonomy and Its Relation to the Motivation to Engage in Training

As different researches on adult education have demonstrated, the theory of self-determination is greatly interesting to explain commitment and motivation with respect to learning (Fenouillet, 2011). Therefore, the more individuals are perceived as actors of their actions, the greater their motivation to act would be (Carré, 1999, 2001).

According to Lévy-Leboyer (1998), autonomy is the opposite of passive obedience. It results from our own initiative and agrees with the desire to make something visible and valuable. Increasing autonomy not only stimulates motivation, but also initiative and creativity. The author adds that what matters is not the degree of control attributed and described by hierarchy, but the control perceived by individuals themselves.

Three Implications for Adult Education

Within the group of theories, we can find, according to Carré (1999, 2001), three implicit implications: representation of the future, the feelings of self-efficacy and autonomy. The following table illustrates how these three implications can be translated into other concepts:

Representation of the future	Feeling of self-efficacy	Autonomy
Purpose Project Perspective of the future Expected outcome	Expectancy (Vroom) Perception of competence (Deci & Ryan) Feeling of self-efficacy	Feeling of self-determination Locus of control

Table 2: Three implications for adult education according to P. Carré

Concluding, the feelings of self-efficacy and autonomy are part of the individual characteristics that constitute an important predictive of the motivation to engage in training. However, the variables that may explain the individuals' motivation are not just internal, but also external. Therefore, we will contemplate below the reasons that may be at the onset of motivation.

As regards the representation of the future, the model of motives set forth by Carré can offer an idea as regards the personal objectives of each participant when enrolling for a training (according to Motives for training commitment: P. Carré's model).

Contextual Determinants of the Motivation to Engage in Training

While in the previous chapter we have dealt with the individual factors that may predict the motivation to engage in training, this new chapter explains the possible contextual factors that may have such influence.

Perception of Benefits



According to Weiner (1992, Fenouillet, 2011), all decisions are based on costs and benefits. The first theories of motivation have tried to explain its nature. According to Atkinson's model (1957, Fenouillet, 2011) and many others, there is not a specific decision-making process that is external to motivational considerations. This author holds that individuals would certainly choose the option with which they achieve more benefits. Accordingly, Maurer & Tarulli (1994, Kang, 2007) suggest that to effectively motivate employees to participate in

training programs, it is necessary to understand the values of their benefits, which can work not only as extrinsic rewards (such as promotions, salaries increase, etc.) or intrinsic rewards (such as career opportunities). Hence, we can say that perception of benefits corresponds to Vroom's concept of instrumentality (according to "Expectancy-Value" Theories).

Relation to the Motivation to Engage in Training

There are several studies that have demonstrated that perception of learning benefits affects the attitudes or the motivation to engage during training and carry out development activities (Kang, 2007). According to Noe's model (1986, Fecteau et al., 1995) the rewards achieved from a training would have a positive influence not only on the motivation to engage in training, but also on learning during the training. In conclusion, Cannon-Bowers et al. (1999, Kang, 2007) affirm that the expectancy of acquiring interesting benefits through learning constitutes an important predictive of effective participation.



Organizational Justice

According to Folger and Cropanzano (1998, Kraiger, 2002), the concept of organizational justice makes reference to the perception of justice in the decisions taken by the organization. The employees perceive that there is organizational justice if they have the option to choose and can participate in the decision-making process. That means that the feeling of justice is determined by cognitive processes, according to Mowday. Therefore, the objective characteristics of the situation are less

important than how they are construed by each individual (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998). Thus, El Akremi et al. (2006) establish that employees consider a certain criteria to judge equity of the individuals and situations. And also, the degree of respect of such criteria determines the perception of organizational justice.


Components of Organizational Justice

There are three components of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice.

On the first place, in his model of equity, Adams has aimed at determining the conditions in which the relation between the kind of job executed and what that job means for us is just or not and asserts that this has an effect on motivation (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998). We are dealing here with the first component of justice, **distributive justice**, which refers to the feeling of appropriate balance between the inputs and outputs in comparison to that of others. For that reason, El Akremi et al. (2006, p. 52) believe that the feeling of justice is "based on a psychological mechanism characterized by the requirement of proportional equity between the contributions and gratifications of the different actors compared."

After the researches on distributive justice, investigators have dived into **procedural justice** (Lévy-Leboyer, 1998; El Akremi et al., 2006). Thibaut and Walker (1975, 1978, El Akremi et al., 2006) concluded that a proceeding would be deemed just if individuals can express their opinion during the decision-making process and if they have the possibility to exert their influence on the result. Thus, Kang (2007) deducts that this kind of justice is focused on the proceeding itself, setting the output aside.

Finally, a third research dealt with the roles of a hierarchical authority in the perception of justice. This is the **interactional justice**. According to Bies and Moag (1986, Frimousse et al., 2008), interactional justice refers to the individuals' concern with respect to the quality of the



interpersonal treatment received during the application of the proceedings. For these authors, interactional justice is conditioned by the respect of four rules of interpersonal behavior classified under two facets (El Akremi et al., 2006):

Informational and Explanatory Facet:

- Justification: the way the superior adequately explains the reason for the practices and decisions.
- Honesty: the way the superior fulfills promises and avoids lying.

Interpersonal Facet:

- Respect: the way the superior treats their subordinates with dignity, courtesy and respect.
- The authority avoids making out-of-place observations.

Relation to the Motivation to Engage in Training


El Akremi et al. (2006) hold that organizational justice perceptions constitute an important motivational base that determines certain employees' behaviors and attitudes. In the same line, the investigations have demonstrated that the three kinds of organizational justice are associated with positive attitudes and behaviors on the job (Erdogan, 2002, Kang, 2007).

Specifically, as a result of Kang's studies (2007), it has been proved that the three factors have influence on the motivation to engage in training. Thus, employees who feel that they have been fairly treated are more likely to be motivated to continue a training. Experiences of distributive, procedural and interactional justice lead employees to believe that they will be treated fairly in the long term and, thus, they generate a positive belief that benefits the organization as well as the leaders and, as a consequence, they promote employees' motivation to continue the training programs.

Social Support



Ford et al. (1992, Delobbe, 2007) define social support within the context of education. On the one hand, they define it as the attitudes of the hierarchical authority towards employees in terms of perceived sympathy, the appreciation of their career potential and trust on their skills; and, on the other hand, as the support provided by the working team to use the learned aptitudes.



This way, we can confirm the presence of multiple sources of social support: the top managers, supervisors, peers and subordinates (Facteau et al., 1995).

According to Noe & Wilk and Maurer & Tarulli (1993, 1994, Kraiger, 2002), employees in a supportive organizational climate were more motivated to implement knowledge and skills acquired in training programs. Clark et al. (1993) confirmed that by means of the following observation: the authority could favorably influence the motivation to engage in training stressing learning usefulness for the exercise of the professional activity (Delobbe, 2007). Baumgartel and Jeanpierre (1972, Switzer et al., 2005) added that employees in a supportive organizational climate were more likely to implement knowledge and skills acquired in training.

However, despite the possible sources of social support being the top managers, supervisors, peers and subordinates, as we have seen before, Facteau et al. (1995) found only supervisor support to be positively related to motivation to engage in training.


Transfer of Training

According to Wexley and Latham (1981, Devos & Dumay, 2006, p. 14) transfer is defined as "the degree to which trainees effectively apply knowledge, competences, and attitudes gained in a training context to the job environment." In other words, it implies applying in the working place what they have learned in the training (Haccoun & Saks, 1998, Laroche & Haccoun, 2000).

Baldwin and Ford (1988, Devos & Dumay, 2006) add that it is about the maintenance of the competences and behaviors that have been learned during the training for a definite period of time.

According to Devos and Dumay (2006), there are multiple variables that can exert influence or interfere with the possibility to transfer. With his model, Noe (1986, Facteau et al., 1995) proposes that a favorable context can affect motivation before training and the transfer of competences. Managers can, for example, offer opportunities placing individuals in working situations in which they must use the content of the training (Kraiger, 2002): employees who have more opportunities to show what they have learned have more chances to maintain the skills acquired during the trainings than those who do not have that opportunities (Ford et al., 1992, Kraiger, 2002). Apart from the opportunities that are part of the context of social support, a variable that is an antecedent of training, we can motivate employees by offering rewards or "consequence" variables (Facteau et al., 1995).

On the other hand, Switzer et al. (2006) believe that trainees are likely to transfer new skills to their job when they:

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- are confident in using new skills,
 - are aware of work situations in which demonstration of the new skills is appropriate, and
 - believe that the knowledge and skills emphasized in the training program are helpful in solving work-related problems and job demands (Noe & Schmitt, 1986, Switzer et al., 2005).

Hence, these authors affirm that even if trainees possess the skills needed to learn in a training, performance in the program will be poor if motivation is absent. Motivation to transfer, as described by Noe y Schmitt (1986, Switzer et al., 2005), is the desire to use the knowledge and skills mastered in the training program on the job.

A number of researches have analyzed the relation of motivation to a transfer of training. Facticeau et al. (1995) found that pre-training motivation was positively related to perceived training transfer. Thus, individuals who reported higher levels of motivation were more likely to indicate that they had benefited from the training (Switzer et al., 2005).

On the contrary, Facticeau et al. (1995) hold that social support inciting transfer could also affect the motivation to engage in training. Therefore, if employees believe that they will not be able to apply in their jobs the material learned during the training, because they do not receive enough support, they would be less motivated to participate and learn during training. Clark, Dobbins y Ladd (1993, Switzer et al., 2005) follow this line of thought and indicated that, even before training, the employee may consider whether the supervisor will support efforts to transfer trained skills from the classroom to the job. Thus, if employees do not believe their supervisor will support training transfer, they will tend to believe that the training will have limited job utility and thus may not be motivated prior to training.

Reputation of the Training Program

While Fombrun (1996, Boistel, 2008) considers that reputation is formed by perception and thus he defined it as "the sum of various stakeholders' images"; other authors, such as Davies (2002, Boistel, 2008), hold that it is formed by the affective or emotional reactions of the stakeholders of the organization, which may be positive or negative. Following this line of thought, reputation is considered as "a collective system of beliefs and opinions that influences people's actions" (Bromley, 1993, Boistel, 2008, p. 10).

More precisely, the reputation of the training programs represent, according to Facticeau et al. (1995), employees' expectation or perception on the quality of the training program. These expectations can be based on both past experiences and peers' comments about the training. Thus,



according to Grey and Smeltzer (1987, Boistel, 2008), reputation can increase employees' level of commitment and motivation.

Facteau et al. (1995) hold that employees' expectation influences their motivation to participate in the training programs and the benefits that may be acquired from a real learning.

Indeed, prior to actually taking a training course, an employee often has an expectation about the quality of the course and its job relevance. If the training is perceived to be a waste of time, employees may lack motivation. That is why the reputation of the training programs was regarded as a predictive of the motivation to engage in training (Switzer et al. 2005).



Conclusions and Advices

Conclusion

Due to the constant evolution of the economic and sociotechnical movements, there is a tendency to consider competences within the organizational field, and thus trainings are deemed as an added value for the organization. So, individuals become actors, they turn into active beings, and this is why motivation is an extremely important aspect. Within the particular context of adult education, we can define motivation as a dynamic dimension, as a process shaping two angles (Carré, 2001):

- The motivation to participate in training programs: it deals with the first expression of intent.
- The effective participation and motivational process throughout training (persistence or abandonment of training).

We have analyzed that the factors characterizing motivation can be both internal and external. The first theories (according to the Cognitive Theories of Motivation) aim at explaining the origin of motivation as something internal, and thus they explain it from a psychological point of view. This reasoning has certain limits, since it intends to explain the absolute origin of individuals' behaviour from a psychological point of view, forgetting about the other eventual determinants. Therefore, the theories analyzing the contextual factors (according to Contextual Determinants of the Motivation to Engage in Training), the influence of the context can be decisive when explaining what stimulates motivation. However, both theories aim at identifying mainly what it is that, in the individual or in the context, leads to maintain a behaviour, which in our case specifically refers to individuals' motivation to engage in a training program. Consequently, we encourage readers to consider the two kinds of factors, creating a multiple model regarding training as a process.

Despite individuals' motivation being complex and influenced by multiple factors, we have analyzed some of them in this e-book which allow us to know better this phenomenon and provide the following advices.



Advices

As regards the feeling of self-efficacy, it is important to analyze its level within employees to adapt training offers. Hence, for example, if employees do not see the trainings offered by the company as a challenge, and they feel that they have easy tasks, they will not be motivated enough to engage in the training programs. This is why it is important to include a great variety of training offers, including the different kinds that are usually executed, such as: internal or external internships, training under working conditions, seminars, conferences or other types of meetings, job rotation aimed at learning new tasks, and self-training. It is recommended to analyze these different possibilities together with employees and hierarchical authorities to create a better offer. We have seen in our first e-book, *Business training: A Strategic Investment*, that there are several limits refraining an organization from offering training programs or employees from engaging in them. Lack of time seems to be the main factor leading to that situation. That is why we have dealt the multiple advantages that Live Learning offers, since it facilitates any kind of training online, at any time and place, saving time and costs. These kinds of online trainings will allow the organization to offer different training programs adapted to their own staff.

As regards training offers, it is important to know as well the general reasons leading individuals to engage in training programs. Thus, for example, if employees decide to participate in trainings to learn certain skills useful for carrying out their current job, it means they are considering short term objectives and that they are interested in developing the competences and skills necessary in the present. That is why it is always useful to evaluate the competences chart which must be focused on the specific competences necessary for each position, for example. Therefore, meetings with the hierarchical authorities that know better the necessary competences for the position should be held. Consequently, they could together propose a proper competences chart, and thus justify a training when there is a difference between the necessary competence and the current and real competence of the employees. We are talking about making a true analysis of the needs of a training. Once more, Live Learning facilitates the adaptation to the different situations that may come out in an organization, since, with the reduction of cost and time, it facilitates the amount of training programs that a company can offer, allowing an increase in employees' training throughout the entire year.

We can observe the importance of the role of the hierarchical authority when it comes to employees' motivation to engage in training. Consequently, it is advisable to inform them about the importance of training within an organization and their possibilities of application to the job (transfer), pointing out that training improves the performance of both employees and the



organization in general. Therefore, supervisors must be interested in encouraging employees' participation in these programs and their subsequent application to the job, motivating and informing them about the benefits that will be acquired, thus improving their perception. Our first e-book dealt with how Live Learning improves that transfer potential, since as a result of the direct relation between trainings and the current need and activity of the company, Live Learning offers employees the opportunity to apply the content learned in the trainings through a combination of different learning methods. Besides, Live Learning allows employees to learn at different rhythms and facilitates the incorporation of the information with the division of trainings in modules.

For that reason, the training reputation becomes greatly important, so an internal communication plan to increase the good reputation within the organization is suggested. There are several ways to execute this plan which could increase the chances to reach this objective, including testimonies of those who have participated in the training program through Intranet and billboards, forums where those who have participated in a training can give their opinion about it and answer questions of their peers, and even the presentation of the trainers together with their curriculum vitae and their professional history.

A good internal communication will also help to keep the information on the trainings updated and accessible to everybody all the time. Both employees and hierarchical authorities must always be informed in the new training possibilities and offers. Different tactics may be included, such as billboards, e-mails, pop-ups, flyers distributed around the company, and even pamphlets on elevators. Generally, companies inform the training offers through an Intranet section which often requires the employees' initiative to search for a training program, implying an additional "effort" of the employee. Therefore, it is recommended to make this information as available as possible to call employees' attention. A good way may be announcing the new training through the home page of the web page of the company. It is advisable to work together with the hierarchical authorities so that they can directly pass the message by a communication waterfall.

Finally, such as S. Harrison (2002) affirms, every internal communication must give great importance to feedback. Consequently, if employees' have any doubt, whether with respect to the training enrolling methods or the individuals providing the information on the training, it is important to mention all the information of the contact person and answer concerns immediately. In other words, it is important to take the necessary time to give the proper feedback when necessary.

To conclude, these pieces of advice are aimed at generally suggesting the development of a learning culture. "Organizational culture" is understood as a group of shared premises and beliefs learned by the group and which have functioned good enough to be deemed valid, and thus



teaching the new members as the proper way to perceive, think and feel a situation, as defined by E. Schein (Villafañe, 1999). Finally, Paul Capriotti (2005) added that this culture is built by behaviour standards, values and rules shared by individuals and reflected in their behaviour. To get employees to adopt a positive behaviour with respect to trainings, it would be a good advice to establish the belief that engaging in training programs leads to the effective acquirement of multiple advantages, both for the organization and the employees. And we believe that Live Learning is a tool with several advantages that can be of great help when establishing such belief.



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