THE WHEEL OF MOTIVES:
TOWARDS A PERIODIC TABLE OF HUMAN MOTIVATION

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El objetivo de este artículo es presentar un nuevo marco teórico de clasificación de la motivación humana que dé una explicación empírica a la variabilidad humana y que sea aplicable al ámbito laboral y la orientación vocacional. El modelo Rueda de Motivos propone 10 dimensiones relativamente independientes entre sí, que se estructuran en dos áreas, Aproximación y Evitación, dando lugar a 5 motivos y otros 5 "counter-motives" que modulan o contrarrestan la expresión de los motivos opuestos. Se aporta la fundamentación teórica de la estructura propuesta, así como evidencias empíricas mediante el cuestionario APM construido a partir del modelo.
Palabras clave: Motivación, Motivación laboral, Motivos, Necesidades psicológicas, Valores.

The aim of this paper is to present a new theoretical framework for the classification of human motivation in order to provide an empirical explanation to human variability that may be applicable in the labor field and for career guidance. The Wheel of Motives model proposes ten relatively independent dimensions, which are organized into two areas, Approach and Avoidance, giving rise to five motives and five other "counter-motives" that modulate or counteract the expression of the opposing motives. The theoretical basis of the structure of the model is provided, as well as empirical evidence through the APM questionnaire built from the model.
Key words: Motivation, Work motivation, Motives, Psychological needs, Values.

Motivation is one of the fundamental constructs in psychology, since it provides the motor for behavior. Despite the key role of motivation in understanding human behavior and influencing performance and other work behaviors, several authors have noted the lack of new global theoretical frameworks to provide conceptual clarity in this area (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004; Arrieta & Navarro, 2008).

Motivation is the process that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-oriented behavior. It is the process by which an individual moves into action (Deckers, 2010), the process by which energy is placed to maximize the satisfaction of needs (Pritchard & Ashwood, 2008). Work motivation is the set of energetic forces that initiate work behaviors and determine their form, direction, intensity, and duration (Pinder, 2008).

Theories of motivation have been divided into two classifications: content theories and process theories. Content theories explore the directional aspect, that is, the type of needs that individuals try to satisfy with their behavior, the objectives that they select according to their needs or motives. Process theories explain how motivation works (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970).

Work motivation has not kept pace with the conceptual development of other constructs linked to management such as leadership, decision making, negotiation, groups and teams, and organizational design (Steers, Mowday, & Shapiro, 2004). These authors note that the motivation theories that are included in the most recent editions of the textbooks on management and organizational behavior date back to the 1960s, in clear reference to the model of McClelland (1961). Therefore, they invite researchers to develop new models of work motivation and performance in accordance with the requirements of the new era.

In the abundant scientific literature on motivation there is a difficulty in integrating the theoretical models, since they seem to project themselves towards different objects of interest. In order to offer a global vision of motivation, Navarro and Quijano (2003) propose a model that integrates the different theories, which places motives as the key starting point to begin the motivation process. This model provides seven elements that enable us to understand the main influences on job motivation. The

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first is to find out what motivates the workers, what their interests and needs are (Navarro, Ceja, Curioso, & Arrieta, 2014).

Motives are the causes or reasons that drive and direct the behavior of individuals to achieve certain goals. They have a vital participation in the processes of configuring people's behavior in order to achieve their objectives. Motives influence transversally in the process of behavior generation, insofar as they affect the perception of the stimulus or incentive as such; they contribute valence to them generating an emotion or proactive tension to the action; they influence behavior in quality and quantity (commitment, perseverance); and they contribute meaning and value to the reward or reinforcement that is derived from the behavior (Valderrama, 2012).

Natural selection has favored the existence of certain basic motives intimately related to survival (feeding, reproduction, escaping from and avoidance of dangers) and another series of secondary motives that respond to psychological needs to ensure the integrity and growth of individuals and the human species (Palmero & Martínez, 2008).

CLASSICAL TAXONOMIES

The first theoretical approaches to the concept of motivation were made from the perspective of content. It was during the first half of the 20th century that the three basic taxonomies of human needs were proposed. The first was offered by Murray (1938), who produced a list of 20 needs, each associated with a desire, an emotion, and a tendency to action. A decade later, Maslow (1954) proposed his pyramid, prioritizing the satisfaction of needs from physiological ones and security to self-realization, going through those of belonging and esteem.

Finally, McClelland (1961) omitted the concept of hierarchy and focused especially on the study of the motivation of achievement, affiliation, and power (Table 1).

This last model is still being used as the gold standard paradigm in companies, due to its link with the competency approach generated by the same author (McClelland, 1973). The Personal Values Questionnaire (McClelland, 1991) in its Spanish version is still used to evaluate the motivational profile of managers, under the assumption that, in order to be effective, they must score high on the Power scale. This scale only measures

Personal Power, with items in which the importance given to "owning material goods that impress others", "holding a prestigious position" or "having opportunities to be well known" is valued.

However, according to McClelland, it is Social Power that is exercised by the most effective leaders and especially women managers. It is based on empowering others, and making them feel strong and capable of achieving the goals of the organization. This line is consistent with current approaches that derive from "service leadership" (Greenleaf, 1976) whose practitioners use their leadership position as a means of helping others, instead of using it to gain personal power.

The application of the Personal Values Questionnaire is detrimental to the people with the greatest managerial potential, who show service leadership styles. Furthermore, it especially affects women, who score lower on the Power scale of the questionnaire. Consequently, the best candidates miss opportunities for promotion or incorporation into the company, and therefore, the companies are also harmed, as they promote those with greater ambition of personal power into leadership positions, with the consequent negative impact on culture and the work climate (Valderrama, 2012).

Despite the insufficiency of the three needs theory to explain individual differences in personal motivations, since 1980 the interest in research into content-centered theories has declined, while recurrent research has been carried out on the same dominant paradigms, such as goal setting theory (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999). Arrieta and Navarro (2008) note that the bias of the researchers themselves and their interest in finding evidence to

TABLE 1 THREE NEEDS THEORY. MCCLELLAND (1961)	
Achievement	To reach or exceed a standard of excellence and/or improve one's performance level.
Affiliation	To generate or maintain good relationships with the people we care about.
Power	To achieve impact or influence on other people, to get others to do things they would not have done without that influence. Two types: **Personal power:** The objective sought is to control others. **Social power:** Directing the efforts of others to achieve the objectives of the organization.

support their own models may have led to a turning away from the classical taxonomies. Thus, the dominant theories in the decade of the turn of the century were goal-setting theory, social cognitive theory and organizational justice theory (Latham & Pinder, 2005).

Another dominant paradigm in recent decades is self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan (2000). For these authors, motivation is a continuum that runs through three stages: demotivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation leads one to execute an activity in order to achieve an external reward. Conversely, intrinsic motivation is related to the pleasure one experiences when performing an activity without receiving an external reward. The basic psychological needs (competence, autonomy, and relationship) are only psychological mediators that influence the three main types of motivation.

The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic factors has considerable intuitive appeal for companies, especially in times of scarcity (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999). However, given the proliferation of scientific publications on intrinsic motivation, Reiss (2004) reflects that nothing justifies classifying the final objectives into a unitary and global category. He states that, in contrast to what he calls the "unitary theory of intrinsic motivation", evolutionary theory suggests a multifaceted model of motivation.

THE NEED FOR A NEW TAXONOMY OF MOTIVES

The sciences need taxonomies to support theoretical development. Austin and Vancouver (1996) advocated the construction of useful taxonomies for research and practice. For these authors, a taxonomy based on a theoretical model would provide the same advantages that the periodic table of the elements produced in the field of chemistry.

To date, we do not have a widely accepted conceptual framework that provides clarity on how human motives are structured and organized. Consequently, many authors have advocated the development of a scientific taxonomy to promote the development of this field, enabling communication among researchers, the integration of findings and theories, and the generation of causal models (Ford & Nichols, 1987; Vancouver, 1996; Chulef, Read, & Walsh, 2001; Reiss, 2004; Kanfer, 2009).

This taxonomy of motives could also contribute to the science of leadership, since new leadership models

incorporate motives as a fundamental variable, specifically those of affiliation, power, and achievement (Martí, Gil, & Barrasa, 2009). Completing the pattern of motives would obviously enrich these leadership studies.

The taxonomies must be comprehensive, parsimonious and internally consistent. Previous attempts to develop such a taxonomy (e.g., Wicker, Lambert, Richardson, & Kahler, 1984; Ford & Nichols, 1987; Reiss, 2004), have a number of limitations, so they have not managed to establish themselves as a basic model on which to base research and experimentation. According to Forbes (2011) these limitations are:

✔ They mix basic motives derived from physiological needs and social or cognitive motives.
✔ They are part of a dominant theoretical paradigm or a narrow area of interest.
✔ They treat motives as discrete forces, without examining the relationships among them.

Consequently, new models of motivation are necessary in order to organize the disconcerting variety of existing theoretical constructs. Reiss (2004) notes that identifying and classifying the aims of human behavior must be a central theme for psychology.

THE WHEEL OF MOTIVES MODEL

The new taxonomy of motives that is presented explains individual variability and can provide additional information to what happens in the motivation processes, as well as more adjusted alternatives for the management of these processes in the labor field.

The multidimensional Wheel of Motives model (Valderrama, 2010) is structured in two areas, Approach and Avoidance, with a total of ten dimensions: five motives and five other "counter-motives" that moderate or counteract the expression of the opposing motives (Figure 1, Table 2, Table 3).

THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF THE MODEL

In order to provide evidence of content validity, the previous theoretical models that support each motive established in the Wheel of Motives model were analyzed. To do this, motivation theories were used, as well as other related constructs (goals, values and desires as a substrate of motivations) which can support the proposed taxonomy of motives.

Table 4 summarizes the taxonomies of the various authors who provide evidence to support motives

theoretically. We can see that each of the motives of the proposed taxonomy has a broad prior theoretical support. The one with the least background is the motive of Cooperation, which can be assimilated to the goal of Equity consigned by Ford and Nichols (1987) and the value of Universalism by Schwartz (1994).

As summarized in Table 4, apart from the three classic taxonomies, the Wheel of Motives model finds theoretical support in four other subsequent models: Ford & Nichols (1987); Schwartz (1994); Schein (1996); and Reiss (2004).

Within the current theory of goals, Ford and Nichols (1987) present a taxonomy of the goals pursued by human beings, classifying them into two groups, personal or assertive goals and goals of interrelation or social integration. These authors already take into account the distinction between goals of avoidance and approach. Table 5 shows the eight goals together with their definition both in terms of approach and avoidance. Curiously, they seem to have forgotten the motive of achievement.

The Wheel of Motives model, constructed based on the model of McClelland, coincides greatly with the taxonomy of values proposed by Schwartz (1994) from a psychosocial approach (Table 6).

From the field of organizational psychology, Edgar

Schein (1996) suggests that each person has a particular orientation towards work and addresses it with a certain set of priorities and values. What he calls a "career anchor" is a combination of the skills, interests, motives, and values that influence choices and decisions at work. They are a set of driving and restrictive forces regarding professional decisions and choices, so they give stability and direction to a person's career. The Wheel of Motives
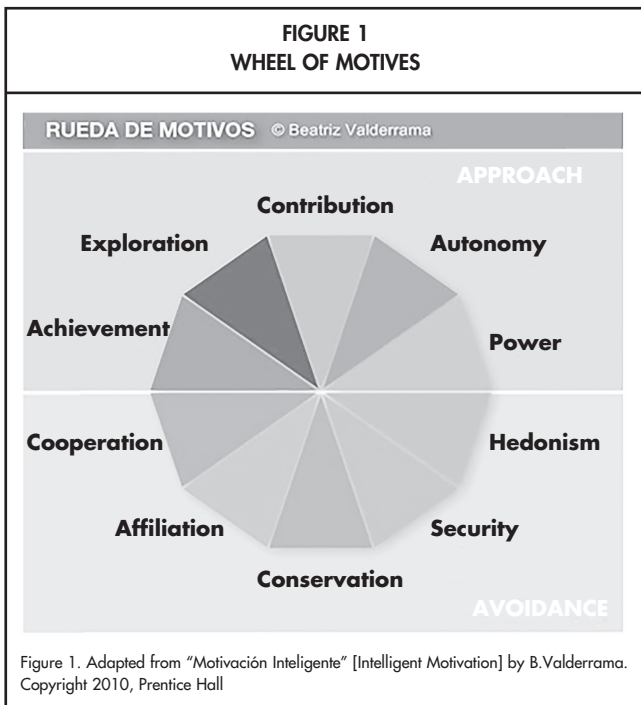
TABLE 2
MOTIVES AND COUNTER-MOTIVES

AVOIDANCE	APPROACH
Affiliation	Autonomy
Cooperation	Power
Hedonism	Achievement
Security	Exploration
Conservation	Contribution

Note. Adapted from "Motivación Inteligente" [Intelligent Motivation] by Valderrama, B. Copyright 2010, Prentice Hall

TABLA 3
DIMENSIONES DEL MODELO RUEDA DE MOTIVOS

AFFILIATION	Degree of preference for being with others, being part of a group and feeling accepted.
AUTONOMY	Degree to which the person values independence, prefers to follow her own criteria and makes decisions for herself.
POWER	Interest in leading others, to compete and win, to move up, to receive admiration, to be popular and prestigious.
COOPERATION	Desire to maintain equal relations avoiding inequality, power distance, rivalry and abuse of power.
ACHIEVEMENT	Degree to which the person is driven to overcome challenges, achieve professional success and attain higher standards of excellence.
HEDONISM	Degree to which the person prefers to save effort and tension, avoiding the sacrifice of their welfare to pursue goals.
EXPLORATION	Degree to which the person prefers novelty and variety, seeking to learn and discover new ways of doing things.
SECURITY	Degree to which the person seeks to maintain stability in their environment, avoiding changes and uncertainty.
CONTRIBUTION	Desire to help others, contribute to society and have a positive impact on the lives of others.
CONSERVATION	Desire to protect oneself, earn money and conserve material goods.

FIGURE 1
WHEEL OF MOTIVES

RUEDA DE MOTIVOS © Beatriz Valderrama

APPROACH
Contribution
Exploration
Autonomy
Achievement
Power
Cooperation
Hedonism
Affiliation
Security
Conservation
AVOIDANCE

Figure 1. Adapted from "Motivación Inteligente" [Intelligent Motivation] by B.Valderrama. Copyright 2010, Prentice Hall

TABLA 4 **FUNDAMENTACIÓN TEÓRICA DEL MODELO RUEDA DE MOTIVOS**							
MOTIVATION WHEEL	Murray (1938)	Maslow (1954)	McClelland (1961)	Ford & Nichols (1987)	Schwartz (1994)	Schein (1996)	Reiss
AFFILIATION	Affiliation	Belonging	Affiliation	Belongingness Resource acquisition Social responsibility	Conformity		Social contact Family Acceptance
AUTONOMY	Autonomy			Individuality Self determination	Self-direction	Autonomy	Independence
COOPERATION				Equity	Universalism		
POWER	Dominance	Status	Power	Superiority	Power	Managerial competence	Power Status Vengeance
HEDONISM		Physiological			Hedonism	Lifestyle	Eating Romance Physical exercise
ACHIEVEMENT	Achievement	Esteem	Achievement		Achievement	Pure challenge	
SECURITY	Order	Security			Tradition	Security	Tranquility Order
EXPLORATION		Self-actualization			Stimulation	Creativity	Curiosity
CONSERVATION		Security			Security		Saving
CONTRIBUTION	Nurturance	Transcendence		Resource provision	Benevolence	Dedication to a cause	Honor Idealism

Note. Adapted from "Validación de una taxonomía de motivos y un cuestionario multidimensional de motivación" [Validation of a taxonomy of motives and a multidimensional motivation questionnaire] by B. Valderrama, 2012.

TABLE 5 **TAXONOMY OF GOALS. FORD & NICHOLS (1987)**	
ASSERTIVE GOALS	
Individuality	Feeling unique, special or different. Avoiding similarities or conformity with others.
Self-determination	Experiencing freedom when making decisions or taking action. Avoiding feeling pressured or coerced.
Superiority	Comparing oneself favorably with others in terms of achievements, status or success. Avoiding unfavorable comparisons with others.
Acquisition of resources	Obtaining support, assistance, advice, or approval from others. Avoiding rejection or disapproval from others.
GOALS OF SOCIAL INTEGRATION	
Belonging	Building or maintaining bonds, friendships, intimacy, or a feeling of community. Avoiding feelings of isolation.
Social responsibility	Taking care of social commitments, making social commitments. Avoiding breaking moral and social rules.
Equity	Promoting honesty, justice, reciprocity, or equality. Avoiding dishonor and injustice.
Provision of resources	Giving support, assistance, advice, or approval to others. Avoiding selfishness or abandonment behaviors.

TABLE 6 **TAXONOMY OF UNIVERSAL VALUES. SCHWARTZ (1994)**	
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection of the well-being of people and nature.
Benevolence	Maintenance and improvement of the well-being of those people with whom one has frequent contact.
Self-direction	Independent thinking and action, choosing, creating and exploring without the restrictions of externally imposed limits.
Stimulation	Emotion, risk and novelty in life.
Achievement	Personal success, demonstrating competence according to social standards.
Power	Social status and prestige, control, or dominance over people and resources.
Hedonism	Seeking pleasure and sensual gratification for oneself.
Security	Protection, harmony, and stability of society, relationships, and the self.
Conformity	Restriction of actions, inclinations, and impulses that could annoy or hurt others and violate social norms or expectations.
Tradition	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that culture or traditional religion imposes on the self.

model coincides with seven of these impelling forces or anchors (Table 7).

As seen in Table 4, one of the few relatively recent contributions to content theories is that of Reiss (2004), which proposes a classification of 16 basic desires or motives that respond to different survival needs and are possibly controlled by different genes. This model also includes some physiological needs. Another limitation is that it also does not contemplate the motive for achievement.

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF CONSTRUCT VALIDITY

In order to empirically validate the Wheel of Motives model and establish the motivational profile of individuals with respect to work activity, the APM [Motivational Profile Analysis] questionnaire was constructed (Valderrama, 2012). It consists of ten scales with eight items each. The subject has to assess to what extent a series of aspects related to work are important.

Content validity analysis begins with the operational definition of the domain. Table 8 shows the content specification created to represent the different constructs derived from the Wheel of Motives model. Taken into account, for this purpose –in addition to objectives, needs and values– were the work behaviors that these motives produce, labeled as competences, so the model was directly applicable to the selection and development of talent. Also included were professional expectations, that is, the incentives or organizational rewards to which people are sensitive based on their dominant motives. In this way, the policies of attracting, connecting, and engaging talent can be aligned with the different motivational profiles (Table 9).

The content validity of an instrument indicates the degree to which the items are relevant and represent the domain of contents or behaviors of the variable that is intended to be measured. The usual procedure is to judge the relevance of the items by a group of experts who are asked to match the items with the domain that, in their opinion, they are evaluating. To evaluate the content validity of the APM, a panel of six experts was requested, composed of psychologists, university professors, and professionals in the field of human resources. On average, the experts were able to correctly classify 85% of the items that constitute the APM, a particularly high percentage considering that the instrument has ten scales. The highest percentages of correctly classified items correspond to Autonomy (100%), Power (100%),

Achievement (94%), and Exploration (90%). Cooperation (67%) and Hedonism (75%) are the least recognized scales (Valderrama, Escorial, & Luceño, 2015).

The APM questionnaire was completed by a sample of 1,529 women and 1,085 men in various work situations and varied sectors. The age range of the participants was between 17 and 72 years old. The internal consistency values for the APM scales vary from 0.70 to 0.90 for the global sample (Table 10), with very similar values for males and females and for most of the age groups. The lowest alpha values are observed in the Cooperation scale, which, however, exceeds the limit value of 0.70 (Valderrama, Escorial, & Luceño, 2015).

The internal construct validity refers to the degree to which the relationships between the items or scales reproduce the expected structure. Latent trait theories conceive unidimensionality as the existence of a single trait underlying the responses of the subjects to an item, for which techniques of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) are used. In order to validate the hypothesized structure, a series of CFA were first performed to determine if the contrast of a motive with its corresponding counter-motive is reflecting a single bipolar dimension in which some items are saturated positively and others negatively (one-factor model) or if

TABLE 7 CAREER ANCHORS. SCHEIN (1996)	
Technical competence	Like to be good at something and become experts.
Management competence	Seek to direct and coordinate others, have weight and ability to influence. Measure success based on rank and promotion in the company.
Autonomy/ Independence	Like to follow their own rules and avoid supervision.
Security/ Stability	Seek stability and continuity in employment and avoid risks.
Creativity	Like to invent things, be creative, innovative, and "run away" from traditional organizations.
Service/ Dedication to a cause	Like to contribute and help others by using their talents. Tend to value very highly the ethics of the companies where they carry out their work.
Pure challenge	Look for constant stimulation and difficult problems that they can solve.
Lifestyle	Prioritize the reconciliation of their work and personal life.

the motive and its counter-motive reflect two inversely correlated dimensions. The two-factor model was the one that presented the best fit in all dimensions (Valderrama, Escorial, & Luceño, 2015).

Due to the large sample size, the number of items per factor and the difficulties that this poses for obtaining clear factors, we proceeded to construct parcels or subsets of items, forming three parcels of the same dimension.

TABLE 8
SPECIFICATION OF CONTENTS OF THE MODEL

	OBJECTIVE	PROFESSIONAL EXPECTATION	VALUES	NEED	AVERSION	COMPETENCIES
AFFILIATION	To achieve acceptance	To belong to a team	Harmony Cohesion	Affect	Fear of rejection	Communication Customer orientation Development of relationships
AUTONOMY	To follow one's own criteria	To be autonomous To make decisions for oneself	Independence Autonomy	Self-sufficiency	Gregariousness Group thinking	Autonomy Responsibility Self-confidence
COOPERATION	To build something together	To maintain equal relationships	Collaboration Cooperation	Justice Equality Equity	Inequality Abuse of power Competitiveness Rivalry Power games	Cooperation Teamwork
POWER	To compete and beat others To achieve popularity To receive admiration and recognition	To manage others To ascend To earn more money	Prestige Image	Control Recognition Exhibition Popularity	Lack of status Being ignored Losing	Leadership Organizational understanding Political awareness Impact and influence
HEDONISM	To save efforts To avoid stress	To enjoy personal-work balance	Enjoyment Relaxing Resting	Resting Leisure Pleasure	Overexertion Stress	
ACHIEVEMENT	To overcome challenges To feel effective To compete against and beat a standard of excellence	To be professionally successful	Overcoming [challenges] Persistence	Efficacy Self-efficacy	Inefficiency	Results orientation Achievement orientation
SECURITY	To control the environment To have order and stability	To have a stable job, without changes	Order Clarity Quality	Control	Fear of change Uncertainty	Thoroughness Order
EXPLORATION	To explore the environment To know how the world is	To learn, acquire skills, knowledge, enjoy working	Self-realization Personal development Innovation	Variety Intellectual stimulation	Routine	Creativity Innovation Flexibility
CONSERVATION	To protect yourself and your assets	To earn money	Profitability Self-preservation	Selfishness Accumulation	Physical danger Material losses	Orientation to profitability
CONTRIBUTION	To help others To have a positive impact on the lives of others To feel useful To take care To teach	To contribute to society	Altruism Compassion Dedication	Sharing Transcending	Pity for the suffering of others	Empathy Commitment Vocation of customer service Development of people Integrity

Note. Taken from "PM. Motivational profile analysis" by B. Valderrama, S. Escorial, and L. Luceño. Copyright 2015, TEA Ediciones.

Table 11 shows the goodness-of-fit indices of the two-factor models estimated by defining each factor based on three parcels (three sets of the items that originally define them). The CFI exceeds 0.95 in all cases and the RMSEA is below 0.08 in all estimated models and in some cases it is even below 0.06 (Valderrama, Escorial, & Luceño, 2015).

Finally, we proceeded to contrast a global model that reproduces the model of the Wheel of Motives. The five motives and the five counter-motives define two higher order factors called "Approach" and "Avoidance", which are inversely related (Figure 2). The adjustment of this global model is acceptable, with the CFI above 0.95 and the RMSEA below 0.08.

The results obtained in this study provide favorable evidence for the interpretation of the APM scores in terms of the theoretical constructs proposed by the Wheel of Motives model (Valderrama, Escorial, & Luceño, 2015).

AREAS OF APPLICATION

The Wheel of Motives model and the APM have application in various fields within the labor context (Table 12).

The APM is a brief application tool through which the person can know their motives profile, their professional expectations, the management styles, the rewards, and the most appropriate culture so that they can achieve an optimal performance. It is very useful in processes of career guidance, coaching, mentoring, and developing competencies.

The Wheel of Motives model has great utility when it comes to designing policies for attracting and retaining talent, and managing organizational commitment, understood as the worker's willingness to align their behavior with the priorities and goals of the organization, contributing with their capabilities to achieve the mission of the company or institution. For there to be a commitment, there must be a balance between motivation

TABLE 9 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVES AND COMMITMENT FACTORS	
MOTIVES	**COMMITMENT FACTORS**
SECURITY CONSERVATION HEDONISM	Stability in employment Risk prevention Working conditions Methods, means and procedures Reconciliation policies Remuneration
POWER CONSERVATION	Company image Position, status Remuneration
AFFILIATION	Supportive environment Affiliated leadership
COOPERATION	Team culture Networking Democratic leadership
ACHIEVEMENT AUTONOMY	Professional development Achievement culture Goal orientation Culture of quality and efficacy Coaching leadership
EXPLORATION AUTONOMY	Interesting work Personal development Culture of innovation Autonomy
CONTRIBUTION	Corporate social responsibility Culture of integrity, generosity Service mission Inspiring leadership

Note. Adapted from "Motivación Inteligente" [Intelligent Motivation] by B. Valderrama. Copyright 2010, Prentice Hall.

TABLE 10 INTERNAL CONSISTENCY (CRONBACH'S ALPHA) OF THE SCALES OF THE APM	
AFFILIATION	0.73
AUTONOMY	0.77
COOPERATION	0.70
POWER	0.90
HEDONISM	0.86
ACHIEVEMENT	0.89
SECURITY	0.83
EXPLORATION	0.82
CONSERVATION	0.80
CONTRIBUTION	0.83

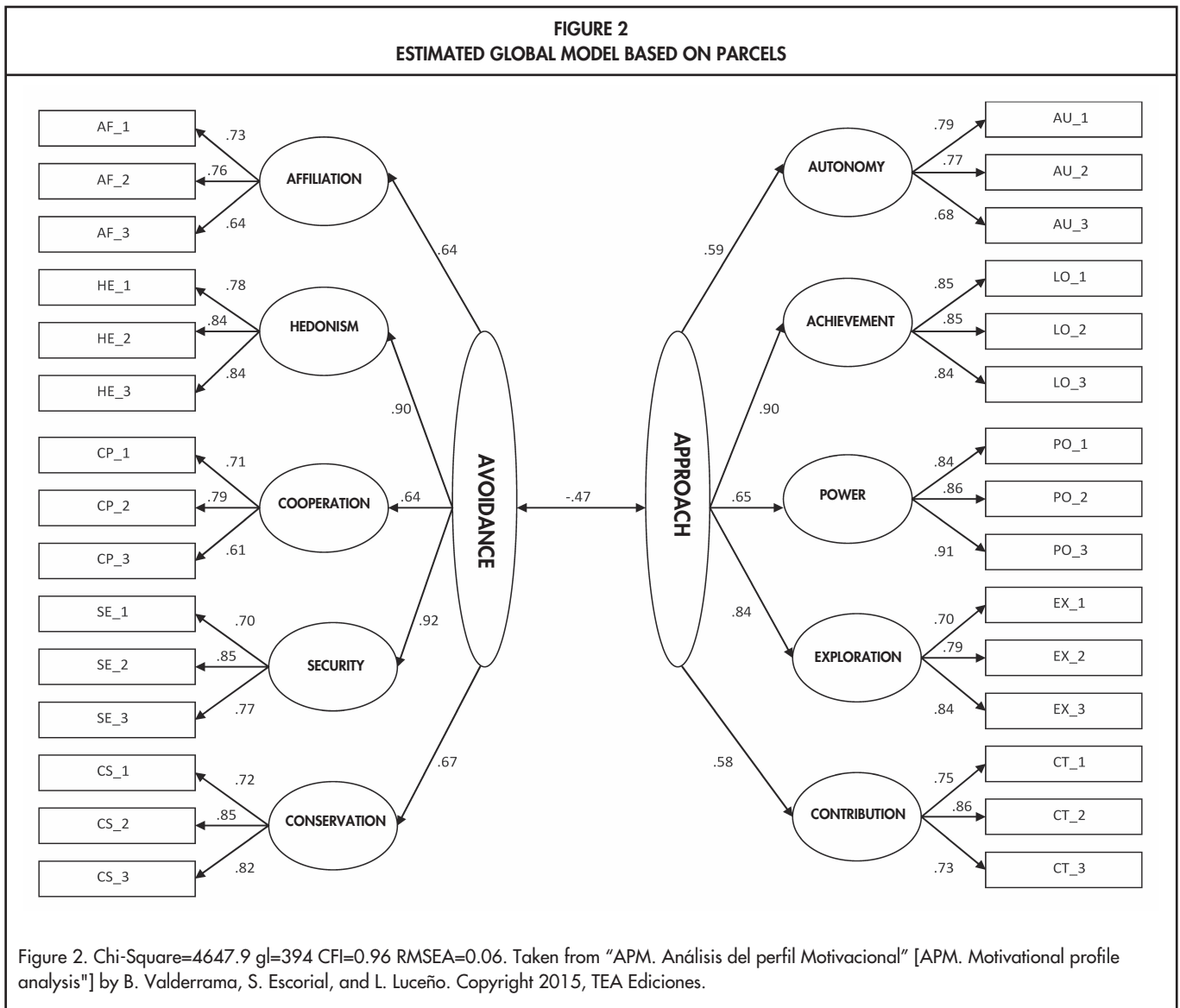| TABLE 11 GOODNESS-OF-FIT STATISTICS FOR PARCELED MODELS			
PARCELED MODELS	r_{F1-F2}	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
AFFILIATION - AUTONOMY	-0.44	0.98	0.06
HEDONISM - ACHIEVEMENT	-0.61	0.98	0.05
COOPERATION - POWER	-0.54	1.00	0.02
SECURITY - EXPLORATION	-0.58	0.99	0.07
CONSERVATION - CONTRIBUTION	-0.55	0.98	0.07

(willingness and effort of employees) and satisfaction (organizational rewards). For workers to have positive expectations and trust that they will be rewarded, it is necessary to establish rewards aligned with their true expectations, which requires knowledge of their motives profile, their interests, and their current needs (Valderrama, 2010).

It is also important to take into account in selection policies the search for professionals with a greater propensity to commitment. The analysis of the matrix of correlations between the APM and DECORE (Psychosocial Risk Assessment Questionnaire, Luceño & Martín, 2008) showed that people with a greater motive

for Conservation, who express a greater desire to protect themselves, to earn money and to conserve their material goods, perceive a more aversive working environment, valuing worse the relationships they have with colleagues and supervisors, the rewards they receive for their work, the control they have over it, and the cognitive effort that it entails. Conversely, the most altruistic people, who score high on Contribution, value positively the cognitive challenges of their work, the support of their peers and bosses, and the rewards they receive (Valderrama, Escorial, Luceño, & Martín, 2012).

The results obtained in the sample normalization of the APM show significant differences in the sex variable. The

FIGURE 2
ESTIMATED GLOBAL MODEL BASED ON PARCELS

Figure 2. Chi-Square=4647.9 gl=394 CFI=0.96 RMSEA=0.06. Taken from "APM. Análisis del perfil Motivacional" [APM. Motivational profile analysis"] by B. Valderrama, S. Escorial, and L. Luceño. Copyright 2015, TEA Ediciones.

effect size (Cohen's d) is small in all cases except Cooperation (.355) and Power (-.418), showing that males have a greater motive of Power and women have a greater motive of Cooperation (aversion to power). This is an important fact to take into account when designing equality policies to promote women's access to management positions.

CONCLUSIONS

Given the importance of work motivation and the absence of universally accepted taxonomies that allow communication among researchers and the integration of findings, the Wheel of Motives model has been presented together with its theoretical foundation and the empirical evidences of validity obtained through the APM questionnaire, constructed based on the model.

It is a useful model for both Human Resources professionals and researchers when it comes to deepening the relationships of motivational profiles with other relevant variables in the field of Organizational Psychology, such as performance, work stress, commitment, leadership styles, culture, and work environment.

TABLE 12
FIELDS OF APPLICATION OF THE WHEEL OF MOTIVES MODEL

FUNCTION	OBJECTIVE
PROFESSIONAL ORIENTATION	To identify the individual's profile of preferences to optimize the use of their talent and the fit in the profession or position.
PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	To facilitate self-knowledge of the motives profile in training and development processes: coaching, mentoring, self-development.
SELECTION	To identify the motivational profile of the candidates for a position to compare it with the required profile.
TALENT MANAGEMENT	To design policies to attract and retain talent and achieve organizational commitment.
MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSITY INVESTIGATION	To identify team roles for training and integration of work teams
MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT	To identify leadership styles and their impact on team results and climate.
MANAGEMENT OF CORPORATE CULTURE	To identify the fit of the candidates with the corporate culture.
INVESTIGATION	To detect motivational patterns that may affect other relevant variables such as: stress, performance, innovation, etc.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

There is no conflict of interest.

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