

Motivations for the Use of English on Customs Officers' Work Performance

Roberto Rojas-Alfaro
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Danying Chen
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

This case study qualitatively explores the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of Costa Rican customs workers for their use of English in the workplace in order to identify ways that human resource development (HRD) managers can then develop and provide relevant, effective English training to employees able to meet the expectations of English-speaking arrivals. Results identified prior negative English learning experiences and little to no support in the workplace for English use as the most important (negative) intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, respectively, for English use by participants. Most importantly, it highlights an imperative to increase the intrinsic motivation of customs officers.

INTRODUCTION

Human resource development (HRD) comprises the various processes related to employees and their training, management, and improvement. In this modern and fast-paced era, organizations continue to invest millions of dollars in the training and development of human resources, which affords a competitive advantage in human capital (Noe, Tews, & McConnell Dachner, 2010). Swanson (1995) defines HRD as a value-added activity with the practical potential to create value for an organization based on optional activities and a theoretical grounding in the growth and psychological, economic, and systematic operations of an organization. For this reason, one must be cognizant that employees must undergo training if there is to be positive growth and development within an organization.

Under this HRD framework, employers implement various strategies that allow for employees to increase motivation as they undergo training procedures. Furthermore, human resource personnel must engage employees in acquiring new skills and expertise while also honing current skills to achieve both positive growth and an increase in their performance based on up-to-date expertise (Torraco & Swanson, 1995). In this way, HRD becomes an important program that helps to develop and grow both the employees and the firm.

Motivation has become central to organizational managers and leaders (Amabile, 1993), who are charged to ensure that their employees are satisfied enough to produce high work standards. However, motivation is volatile and unstable (Amabile, 1993), and research on work motivation and performance has concluded that it is affected by multiple factors (Van Knippenberg, 2000). For one, employees must be encouraged to participate in HRD. For instance, a needs assessment that considers employee perspectives and business goals can help to shape HRD policies on how to motivate staff (Friedenberg,

Kennedy, Lomperis, Martin, & Westerfield, 2004). Moreover, employees who demonstrate intrinsic motivation—i.e., behavior that is not motivated by external rewards but simply for the sake of the behavior itself (Gerhart & Fang, 2015)—are likely to enhance their current skills and even develop new ones despite challenges to achieving them (Lunenburg, 2011).

Many factors go into increasing motivation. For example, motivation can increase when goals are set based on attainability (Bajor & Baltes, 2003); relatedly, employee conscientiousness can allow employers to predict employee performance as it relates to employees' personal goals (Bajor & Baltes, 2003). Further, employees tend to be more motivated to improve their performance when they feel their contribution is acknowledged; as such, showing concern for employees matters as it allows them to feel as though they are important, which can further improve HRD in the organization. This feeling is integral to developing the organization so that employees recognize how management is effective in resolving their personal concerns. Rewarding employees also is vital for boosting extrinsic motivation insofar as those who are acknowledged and compensated will likely feel more of a need to work more effectively. As Gerhart and Fang (2015) note, HRD managers will use compensation or rewards to help to motivate their employees. Extrinsic motivators, including feedback and praise, can also help to increase employee levels of motivation.

The present study aims to shed light on the role of motivation for the use of English by customs officers in the workplace and its impact on their work performance. Specifically, we sought to answer the following research question: how does motivation for the use of English impact the work performance of airport customs officers in the course of everyday work tasks? Understanding this role of motivation, mediated by the use and acquisition of English in airport customs work, can help to improve HRD training programs and possibly prompt policy changes that seek to improve employee's work conditions in the workplace and make such work more effective.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The term *motivation* points to a driving factor that helps to determine the level of performance by workers within an organization. Classically, this distinguishes two forms of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation reflects an employee's seeking enjoyment, satisfaction of curiosity, interest, enjoyment, or personal challenge at work in itself (Amabile, 1993); self-efficacy represents a classic instance of intrinsic motivation (Gerhart & Fang, 2015). In contrast, extrinsic motivation refers to employees engaging in work activities that will allow them to accomplish specific goals different from the work itself (Amabile, 1993); compensation, or the pay one receives for work, is the most frequently emphasized extrinsic motivation (Gerhart & Fang, 2015). Amabile (1993) reiterates the view that identifying elements of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will help to achieve a harmonious balance with regard to both the employee's and the organization's ability to adapt to a changing work environment. Van Knippenberg (2000) contends that motivation involves an individual's capacity to adapt to a larger group, such that social identity theory is vital for grasping how employees view themselves in relation to other employees.

In organizational terms, motivation focuses on individuals in order to deploy a range of strategies for securing the performance of organizationally needed activities; hence, making the work personally meaningful can increase intrinsic motivation, while offering training that increases the employee's skills or compensation increases extrinsic motivation. Hard and fast lines between intrinsic and extrinsic reward remain hard to draw. For instance, individuals can be motivated to perform better when focused on learning new tasks that allow them to overcome personal obstacles in the pursuit of their organizational goals (Lunenburg, 2011). Similarly, learning programs can encourage individuals to be actively engaged in improving their performance (Noe et al., 2010). Viewed as intrinsic goals, this involves personal self-efficacy and develops a person's inner strength for facing new challenges, while spurring a continuous improvement at the personal and professional level, or (extrinsically) they can be framed simply as smart career moves.

Equally, various workplace activities and policies can decrease motivation and thus lower performance if employees become dejected by a heavy workload or by unfairness with regard to gender or race in the workforce. In general, self-efficacy is a key factor, as Lunenburg (2011) correctly argues that employees who set personal goals, and are willing to work towards those personal goals, are more likely to succeed than other employees. Nonetheless, some employees can be more inclined to work harder if the compensation offered surpasses any psychological stressors in the workplace. Gerhart and Fang (2015) argue that researchers too often discount compensation with regard to examining the role of motivation in the workplace.

Noe et al. (2010) suggest that employees must constantly improve their skills in order to remain responsive and flexible across changing labor force and work conditions. Learning and on-the-job training implemented by HRD managers can thus help each employee to feel optimistic about their ability to successfully manage workplace changes while also better securing their motivation to stay with the organization and perform to a high work standard. While HRD managers have some responsibility to create or provide an environment for enhancing the personal and professional growth of employees, Noe et al. (2010) also correctly suggest that employees can take the lead in learning new or improved skills as well.

In terms of motivation for organizations, the use of extrinsic motivation will tend to more reliably afford securing the performance of organizationally needed activities by employees (Bajor & Baltes, 2003). For example, Bajor and Baltes (2003) correctly argue that individuals in managerial positions are better positioned to allocate resources; this more securely can improve employee motivation and performance by understanding that people need to feel happy in order to be productive (Gerhart & Fang, 2015). This does not mean that intrinsic motivation should be ignored; rather, it recognizes that organizations have better control over the range of rewards, training, and compensation it offers to increase the happiness of employees (Gerhart & Fang, 2015). It acknowledges that any clear and distinct difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation becomes too difficult to reliably distinguish in actual workplace settings (Amabile, 1993).

In some instances, of course, financial or other extrinsic rewards will fail to fully satisfy or motivate individuals; sometimes the costs of the workplace are too high, or the level of extrinsic reward is simply inadequate for the life-needs of the individual. Although Gerhart and Fang (2015) suggest that individuals are productive when organizations impose high performance standards on all employees in order for them to merit their high financial rewards, ultimately it is the employee who determines the cost/benefits analysis involved in the work. They may leave, or remain but work at a lower degree of productivity that fails to meet organizational goals. While many managers may choose to bracket out the reality of the personal needs of individuals and attempt to frame these needs as less important than the ultimate economic gains and reputation of the organization, just as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation remain tangled together, so do the employee and the organization they work for. Ultimately, while we can separate these terms analytically, in actual practice in workplaces, the dynamics of the setting integrally involve both sides of this distinction.

METHODS

Purpose

This study forms part of a broader research investigation into the use of English in airport customs workplaces in Costa Rica. In a previous phase, one finding from an ethnographic case study into the use of English in the workplace by airport customs officers disclosed participant motivation to acquire and use English for everyday workplace tasks as an emergent theme, particularly around interactions with arriving tourists with English as their predominant language. These interactions typically occurred at a baggage screening checkpoint, sometimes with inspections performed by the officers, and often with both verbal and nonverbal communication between officers and arriving tourists. In light of this emergent theme, we put forward the research question: how does motivation for the use of English in the workplace impact the work performance of airport customs officers during their everyday work tasks?

Methodology

For this study, we used case study (Yin, 2009) to explore the central phenomenon of (both intrinsic and extrinsic) motivations for participant interactions and behaviors around English in situated workplace contexts. This specifically included their use of multiple modes (English and non-English, verbal and non-verbal) to communicate with others as well as workplace English language acquisition that occurred during everyday workplace practice. Given that work performance can be affected both by work situations and/or types of motivation, the ethnographic case study approach afforded the researcher's self-immersion into the context of the customs officers' workplace communication routine and behavior while interacting with arriving tourists and co-workers. This approach allowed the researcher to integrate both his own and the participants' beliefs and interpretations of their social realities (Algozzine & Hancock, 2017).

Setting and Participants

For this study, airport customs officers and managerial staff in the customs office of one of the main international airports in Costa Rica embodied a qualitatively representative case and naturally-bonded group (LeCompte, Tesch, & Preissle, 2003; Yin, 2009). Data collection occurred over fourteen days during mid-2017, with the first seven days dedicated to fieldwork at the airport terminal, and the next seven devoted to personal interviews with customs officers not present during fieldwork at the customs office.

The selection criterion was individuals who participated in checkpoint interactions with arriving tourists. As such, qualified participants for interviews not only included customs officers but other staff who participated in checkpoint interactions with arriving tourists as well; these included an office manager, a supervisor, a lawyer, and a driver. Moreover, all of the staff, with the exception of the office manager, had at some time helped customs officers during baggage screening and inspection. Network selection criteria was adopted as a useful strategy for participant referral, given that "groups may be bounded naturally, and informants may serve as access contacts from one group to another" (LeCompte et al., 2003, p. 74). In other words, inviting other staff besides customs officers as participants was a suggestion coming from customs officers themselves. Qualified participants ultimately included five men (55%) and four women (45%), ranging in age from 21-29 (11%), 30-39 (33%), to 40+ (56%). Average time of employment with the Customs Bureau was 16 years, with 6 years at the instance airport customs office. Table 1 summarizes the pseudonym and job position for each participant.

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS PSEUDONYMS AND STAFF ROLES

Pseudonym	Staff role
Amelia	Customs manager
Francisco	Supervisor
Evelyn	Customs officer
Katherine	Customs officer
McCoy	Customs officer
Zenén	Customs officer
Keylor	Customs officer
María	Lawyer

Data Collection

Participant Observation & Field Notes

During the first seven days, orientation to the setting (Dyson & Genishi, 2005) included making observational field notes of social dynamics among customs officers at the checkpoint, their demographics, timetables, and the physical layout of the site where social dynamics took place. Recorded

during and after every visit to the field site, all field notes were subsequently digitized in a single Word document each day (Dyson & Genishi, 2005).

This participant-as-observer role (LeCompte et al., 2003) allowed the researcher to experience and record field notes into the social dynamics of the workplace more akin an insider's view and to look into the phenomenon and its context. While shadowing customs officers during their everyday tasks at the checkpoint (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) was important, building rapport with participants through informal conversations helped to minimize or negotiate around sensitive issues with participants.

Informal Conversations

Information conversation arose as spontaneous interactions between the researcher and participants. Initiated by the researcher or participants willing, after interactions with arriving visitors, to share information on the spot or to demonstrate a procedure related to their routine operations, these informal conversations ultimately helped to open paths to further observations and the interviews (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Semi-structured Interviews

Following Jacob and Furgerson's (2012) ethnographic interview framework, the researcher designed a three-section interview protocol: general information, instructions, and interview. The first two sections introduced participants to purpose of the study, secured their consent, and gave them a chance to ask questions or state concerns prior to the interview itself. Audiotaped interviews ranged from 10 to 30 minutes apiece and comprised descriptive, structural, and contrast questions. Interviews were conducted in Spanish, transcribed verbatim, member-checked for accuracy, and translated. The researcher approached these interview sessions as particular speech events (Spradley, 2016), i.e., guided by certain forms of turn taking, question and answering, and so forth.

Data Analysis

While data interpretation began early with data collection and continued reiteratively while preparing data for further analysis (Straus & Corbin, 1990), both researchers revisited the field notes and interview transcripts several times prior to coding. Reading through the data helped to sort and arrange the data into categories and to make sense and reflect on the overall meaning of the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Researchers agreed upon codes and code groups based on their reading and understanding of emerging patterns in relation to motivation and work performance. ATLAS.ti 8 was used to code and categorize data. Two external researchers helped to confirm and validate information through peer debriefing.

RESULTS

Educational Background, Workplace Routine, and Challenging Situations

Three major factors emerged as playing an important role in shaping participant perception regarding their motivation for using English in the workplace while interacting with arriving tourists in English: (1) prior English language learning (ELL) experiences, (2) everyday tasks, and (3) challenging situations they encountered when faced with speaking and understanding English while helping arriving tourists. While most participants had received formal instruction in English during their secondary and college studies, only a few had received such instruction in primary school. Indeed, participants related diverse situations that contoured their ELL experiences prior to their immersion in airport customs.

ELL Experiences

Participants described a combination of both positive and negative learning events in the language classroom that shaped their secondary ELL experiences. English was taught as a subject where participants were expected to learn the foundations of English as a foreign language (EFL). Classes generally consisted of three to five 40-minute lessons imparted weekly during a school year. Participants described their secondary school ELL instruction as scant and focused on general EFL reading

comprehension, vocabulary memorization, and basic grammar. Formulaic expressions and drills (repetition of sounds, phrases, or sentences) usually exchanged with their teacher and classmates helped to promote some form of limited oral communication in the language classroom. Participants reported that using or speaking English outside of school rarely occurred, since Spanish is almost everywhere the only used dialect. As such, their secondary language classroom typically represents the only space for (limited) oral English practice.

ELL instruction in college was sometimes more specific to certain majors, but still focused on English reading comprehension, vocabulary memorization, and basic grammar. Participants described classroom instruction as mainly teacher-centered, featuring lectures, individual reading assignments, and whole group discussions of reading comprehension exercises. For most, English language courses were compulsory; fewer reported them as supplementary. Participants who took additional coursework in English registered for courses with a conversation emphasis. They explained that courses emphasizing conversation helped to improve their pronunciation and fluency and gain confidence in speaking the language with others.

Besides formal education, some participants affirmed sometimes using self-taught English techniques. These informal learning situations (Marsick, Watkins, Callahan, & Volpe, 2006) included spontaneous conversations with native English speakers in tourist areas, listening to audiotapes while commuting to school/work, reading fiction books, using language learning apps (e.g., Duolingo) on their mobile devices, and social media apps such as YouTube. Despite their self-directed practice, participants argued that both their limited language proficiency and lack of feedback usually became an obstacle to furthering their oral skills development.

Everyday Tasks

Participants' everyday use of oral English skills arose with three main tasks: baggage screening and direct inspection whenever required, customs clearance, and temporary importation of vehicles. The most recurring speech communication events at a customs checkpoint consisted of greeting arriving tourists, directing them to put their bags through the scanners, requesting customs forms, and confirming information details about themselves and their declared goods. The subsequent most recurring events involved informing arriving tourists that direct inspection of their bags was required, followed by several questions regarding the goods in their bags before direct inspection took place.

If customs officers determined bag contents were in order and additional information was not needed, no further communication took place. In contrast, whenever officers determined that goods required a customs clearance, another speech communication event took place. For customs clearance, officers' duties consisted of orally providing a detailed account of the procedure for arriving tourists to claim their bags. The last task, temporary importation of vehicles, consisted of brief oral exchanges where officers had to instruct arriving tourists how to complete a form (printed in both English and Spanish), answer questions, and request certain documents needed to complete that request.

Challenging Situations

Despite having served in customs operations for an average of 6 years, participants reported constant struggles in effectively communicating with arriving tourists in English. Through participant observation, it was confirmed that participants' basic oral skills were approximately sufficient to be able to understand arriving tourists' speech and make themselves understood in English. Formulaic expressions and basic language structures were helpful resources to communicate somewhat effectively. However, whenever more information was needed to make a decision or confirm a given situation, participants lacked the oral skills and terminology needed for successful communication. That was when they resorted to nonverbal communication, including facial and hand gestures such as signaling for objects for a clearer understanding of an intended speech communication event (e.g., requesting information about a certain item in a bag).

Participants also reported that customs clearance procedures, compared to other tasks, required both a higher level of oral English skills and an accurate use of customs terminology. They described conflicting

situations with arriving tourists arising out of miscommunication events due to their limited language proficiency in English and the arriving tourists' limited or non-proficiency in Spanish. For example, officers were not completely able at times to explain why arriving tourists' bags were being withheld for customs clearance, what customs clearance consisted of, how to proceed in order to claim their bags, and why their passports had to be stamped for duty free. Other situations not customs-related where oral communication was needed included providing general information about tourist destinations, local currency, means of transportation, telecommunication services, airport facilities (e.g., restrooms), safety, car rentals, and accommodations.

Motivation and Work Performance

Frustrations from past ELL experiences played a largely negative role in workplace motivation to use English. Aware of the obvious advantage that English proficiency could bring to everyday tasks and challenging situations with English-speaking arrivals, a past lack of adequate English preparation (including little to no instruction about the range of English accents and regional variation), strong negative associations of incompetence with learning English itself (especially for those who compulsorily learned English in college only), and simple workplace inefficiency from having to use an unfamiliar dialect to complete workplace procedures created a negative motivation to use English in the workplace. In this situation, English acquisition has an almost entirely extrinsic motivation only (e.g., to increase workplace performance and efficiency) but lacks any further reward. That is, while Amabile (1993) emphasizes the ability of HRD personnel to increase extrinsic motivators in the workplace, the general lack of English proficiency will not be overcome by this means. Moreover, the prior negative associations with the "pointlessness" of learning English in school undermines, or obliterates, the majority of desire, interest, or curiosity as an intrinsic motivation (Amabile, 1993) to now acquire English, despite its utility in the workplace.

As noted in the Introduction, however, to maintain a strict and tidy distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in concrete settings is almost impossible. For instance, some participants reported that using English in the workplace is of vital importance to their domestic economy.

Here I am a driver, but in the former facilities of the airport I helped my colleagues to welcome [arriving] tourists, who are mostly Americans. I learned a little bit of English by asking questions. I used to ask tourists for their customs declarations, show them the way out, ask them to open their bags for inspection, and direct them to pay taxes. They feel more confident [when addressed in English]. They would enter the country more comfortably if they are given a good service, and that is very important, much more in the place where we are since we deal a lot with tourists. Our goal is to make the country more secure (Hernán, personal communication, May 28, 2017).

Although this is an almost completely impersonal, extrinsic motivation, it begins to shade off into an intrinsic motivation as employees desire to be meaningful participants in the well-being of Costa Rica as a whole. As part of this process, some explained how they had learned creative ways to acquire some English while interacting with arriving tourists, for instance, listening carefully to their oral speech and asking for feedback.

I have listened to some foreigners who have visited [the airport]. So, when I am there [at the checkpoint], and I tell them, say, "the purse." So, I have heard that some co-workers say [pu:rs]. However, some of them [tourists] say [pɜ:s]. So, there is a difference between [pu:rs] and [pɜ:s] as to its pronunciation. So, because I heard that more than one of them, women, said [pɜ:s], then I learned that kind of vocabulary (Keylor, personal communication, May 25, 2017).

Such strategies were evident during participant observation as well, whenever participants decided to further interact with arriving tourists beyond what was strictly required to accomplish the task at hand.

According to Amabile (1993), opportunities to be creative in workplaces can foster intrinsic motivation. Similarly, while some participants reported efforts to self-improve their English through English media, language teaching resources, and conversations with native English speakers, this also reflects a tangle of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. That is, while it remains unclear if the ultimate *purpose* of this activity is motivated for the sake of self-efficacy at work or simply to be able to more efficiently complete workplace tasks, that it is voluntarily self-motivated as an English acquisition effort markedly distinguishes it from prior, compulsory English acquisition.

In general, while participants agreed that there is a need for customs-related English language training, they also expressed a lack of motivation and enthusiasm for further compulsory English language courses of the type already available.

I always studied by obligation because I know that I have to learn English. I [study English] when I get excited. In fact, there was even an audio CD from an English course that I borrowed. The teacher explained to me that when I am driving my car I have to listen to it, and I had been listening to it. I am in love for a little while, though. I can listen to it for 15 days, 22 days, but that's it. What can I remember? I don't know because I never used it again (María, personal communication, May 25, 2017).

The problem with such compulsory courses is that they fail to supply the relevant language skills and facility necessary for the task of customs work at airport checkpoints. As such, participants more often expressed a desire to be able to engage in diverse tasks involving the use of spoken English in airport customs in order to help situations related to domestic policies, customer service, workplace procedures, and personal disposition.

At some point I have asked (...) [for help to] some of my colleagues who work there [at the checkpoint] with me, who do speak English (...). They have told me, "Look" [and provide examples of helpful formulaic expressions to a certain task], or they have corrected my pronunciation of some words (Keylor, personal communication, May 25, 2017).

It must be stressed that participants did not express dissatisfaction with the meaningfulness of their work overall but instead expressed frustration in specific situations where an inadequate English preparation left them less able to deftly accomplish their task and exposed them to an appearance of incompetence. Gerhart and Fang (2015) underscore how an adequate sense of compensation can offset or mitigate the psychological stressors at work. As an entirely extrinsic reward, however, this may ultimately not suffice. Some participants reported under-performing and even making requests to relocate to another customs office where English was not needed.

Some [arriving] tourists know how to speak Spanish, others don't. Once I had to talk to an elderly man. I had to seize his suitcase, and I explained it in Spanish. He told me, "No, I do not speak Spanish," and at that moment I had to figure out how to explain that in English. I didn't feel nervous or anything like that. I explained the procedure to follow with the words I knew in English (Katherine, personal communication, May 23, 2017).

But participants also reported more intrinsically oriented rewards in the workplace. For instance, some reported how the sheer pace, intensity, and demand of the situation, once handled, could leave a feeling of accomplishment afterward, driven at root by their desire to do their best work as Amabile (1993) describes.

I would like to improve my English level because it really is a necessity to be competitive, because it is required. Previously, it was not imperative for me since I did not need it. In my previous work I had to analyze figures and, maybe, read some text in English basically. Now,

given our current needs for customer service, we need to have a good level of English to provide a good service so that [arriving] tourists are satisfied, and sometimes we even make new friends [with them]. They leave [the airport] feeling happy because [for example] we could explain something to them, but honestly, we do not have that level of English right now, an adequate English according to our tasks (McCoy, personal communication, May 30, 2017).

Also, constructive feedback on participant oral English skills received from arriving tourists could be very rewarding, not only extrinsically (as an area where they could do something to improve their English) but also in the way that it intrinsically recognized their work. Some participants reported taking advantage of these opportunities for interaction with arriving tourists to learn new vocabulary, improve their pronunciation, increase their fluency, and gain confidence overall in being able to effectively communicate in English with others regardless of their limitations.

One day I commuted [to work] with a gentleman, an American. He drove me [from an inspection site on the coast] and asked me if I can speak English. I didn't really understand much [English]. He was talking to me in English about how beautiful the landscape is. I think I replied something. We continued talking word by word. Suddenly, he said, "You know how to speak English!" I [was like], "Oh." [That was] the longest conversation I have ever had in my entire life. He is a user here at the customs office. I have to interact with people like him [native English speakers] here at the customs office (María, personal communication, May 25, 2017).

Some participants further reported how these interactions had motivated them to engage in self-learning enterprises both to become better able to communicate with arriving tourists but also out of a desire to excel at work. The office manager confirmed how this kind of interaction had fostered intrinsic/extrinsic motivations in participants to further their English language acquisition.

I feel that I am an important member, shall we say. The guys [customs officers] see me as the office head, right? This respect for the hierarchy is frequent in government institutions. It would be very important to me that I could become a resource to them there in a special situation at the moment of a given case and a particular situation. If an officer doesn't know how to proceed [in spoken English], you might think that a manager should at least be trained for that, right? I believe that the environment you are in is very important because if you feel the need to speak English, there where you are, it makes you have to learn it. (Amelia, personal communication, May 23, 2017).

DISCUSSION

While intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are important factors that impact the performance of workers on a daily basis, maintaining a clear distinction between them remains challenging. However, as a concrete and pragmatic matter, it may not be necessary to rigorously separate them in specific workplace settings, not only because the purpose of motivation for organizations involves the use of any strategy for securing the accomplishment of organizationally needed tasks but also because reasons for personal motivation vary tremendously (Amabile, 1993; Gerhart & Fang, 2015). In the present case, the concrete situation involves processing incoming English-speaking tourists at a customs checkpoint, a vitally important nexus of national security and peacetime international commerce (Peterson, 2018).

Intrinsic motivation describes how employees search within themselves to find the drive to perform if not at a high standard then at one that at least meets organizational needs (Amabile, 1993). While Costa Rican customs officers desire intrinsically to do their work to a high standard, the use of English in the workplace to facilitate micro and macro situations relating to domestic policies, customer service, workplace procedures, and personal disposition remains challenged by limited fluency in that dialect. Although customs officers currently do succeed in processing English-speaking tourists into Costa Rica,

their limited fluency can affect the perceptions of a country and thus tourism (Mowforth & Munt, 2015). While objections that these perceptions are unfair or wrong must unfortunately, as a practical matter, be set aside, fortunately HRD managers are in a position to potentially address these challenges, by providing customs officers with effective (intrinsic and/or extrinsic) motivations to meet the organizational needs of the Customs Bureau.

Participants reported a pressing need for practical training programs able to improve the level of communication and interaction between customs officers and non-Spanish-speaking tourists who arrive daily in Costa Rica.

Although we strive to give a good service, limitations are evident both to me and my colleagues. We have made it clear to [the office] managers and the Customs Bureau itself. In what ways? We have asked them for training, to help facilitate some arrangement through a public education institution [for us] to try to learn [English] and give a good service (Francisco, personal communication, May 31, 2017).

Baranova (2013) has noted the emergent challenges now faced by customs officers due to changes in the trends in globalization, increased movement of people across international borders, and heightened expectations for quality service, integration and innovation of technology, and fluency in English as globalization's lingua franca (Dewey, 2007); for tourism in general, Dewey (2007) acknowledges that "non-native speakers of English [now] outnumber native speakers" (p. 332). HRD managers can (perhaps even must) play a pivotal role in addressing these changing trends as they impact customs work in Costa Rica.

Effective training and education are integral to the development of language skills that are either not taught in schools (Buchari & Basri, 2015) or are taught in discouraging and/or ineffective ways (Bunyi, 2005; Kiramba, 2018) as reported by participants in this study. Moreover, Baranova (2013) emphasizes not only how human capital is integral to shaping today's (globalizing) societies but also that "modernization requirements for the competence of customs staff are constantly changing and increasing" (Baranova, 2013). As such, HRD is uniquely well-positioned not only to develop and provide effective training opportunities for teaching workplace-relevant English skills to customs officers but also to flexibly adapt any such effective training in the face of changing (environmental) conditions. In fact, HRD staff are empowered, and have the tools, to keep abreast of such changes in ways that employees themselves cannot (Marquardt, Berger, & Loan, 2004). Consequently, HRD personnel in Costa Rica can identify global trends affecting the country and develop and/or adapt effective responses to those trends, including (for instance) unforeseeable even unexpected increases in language demands other than English. Such improvements could then be geared toward and tailored to increasing the (intrinsic and extrinsic) motivations of customs officers for finding greater satisfaction in their work while also better meeting the organizational goals of the Customs Bureau.

Because Costa Rica has well-developed Internet and digital infrastructures, this affords HRD the use of online English training programs (accessible even on video-enabled cellphones) able to accommodate customs officers' schedules and needs and to enhance the officers' confidence when using English. This strategic use of technology (particularly when accessible through cell phones) can be significant when development time, scheduling, and funding for more traditional brick-and-mortar teaching settings are limited or prohibitively expensive (Baranova, 2013).

Technology alone, however, is not enough; despite the great promise of information and communication technology (ICT) for learning gains and motivated behavior change in the workplace, infrastructural, institutional, and individual factors will often hobble the effective reach of ICT (Andoh-Baidoo, Osatuyi, & Kunene, 2014; Krauss, 2013; Roman & Colle, 2003; Singh, Díaz Andrade, & Techatassanasoontorn, 2018; Tata & McNamara, 2016). While participant enthusiasm and intrinsic motivation alone can at times overcome these barriers in specific settings (Bello-Bravo, Tamò, Dannon, & Pittendrigh, 2018; Bello-Bravo, Zakari, Baoua, & Pittendrigh, 2018; Cloete & Doens, 2008), the need

to develop an effective messaging able to appeal relevantly to targeted learners remains imperative (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Bello-Bravo & Pittendrigh, 2018; Knowles, 1980).

One very key element to success in such messaging, especially when a relatively small target audience is intended, calls for involving the target learners in the process of curriculum development (Cai, Abbott, & Bwambale, 2013; Freire, 1970; Mocumbe, 2016). HRD is organizationally well-positioned to coordinate this (Marquardt et al., 2004; Watkins, 2001). HRD can assure that any curricular development for teaching customs workers in Costa Rica English would include those customs workers in that process, not only to increase their sense of intrinsic motivation toward using the English lessons once produced (Bello-Bravo et al., 2011; Goncalves, Hosio, Rogstadius, Karapanos, & Kostakos, 2015; Mocumbe, 2016) but also to increase the likelihood that the English lessons will relevantly connect to, and address, the type of actual, real-world situations faced by customs officers on a daily basis as an extrinsic motivation towards organizational effectiveness (Baranova, 2013; Bock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee, 2005; Knowles, 1980; Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2012).

In particular, participants reported instances of shortfalls in specialized or unusual vocabulary needed to complete the processing of some tourists. In addition to including these key terms that current workers report as missing from their English knowledge in any English-teaching curriculum, either a floor specialist or a digitally available (online) dictionary could be developed, made accessible to customs officers, and continuously updated as needed in order to more smoothly facilitate English use in the workplace; in particular, this continuously updating resource represents the kind of flexible, adaptive resource needed in fast-paced, ever-changing situations (Baranova, 2013). In turn, this increased (intrinsic and extrinsic) motivation from greater English facility by customs officers will better meet the increasing tourist expectations for quality service and globalized English that can damage a national reputation when missing (Baranova, 2013; Mowforth & Munt, 2015).

However, care must also be taken when offering such training. If access to any training is perceived as unequally available, this can negatively affect motivation (Bartlett & Kang, 2004; Collins & Mossholder, 2017). Similarly, because supervisory support for training can significantly increase participant motivation to access, and then later apply or use, training (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012), HRD personnel must take a leadership role to support this. Lastly, it has long been known that offering extrinsic rewards for tasks can decrease intrinsic task motivation (Deci, 1971), even as Gerhart and Fang (2015) nuance this basic finding. While increased pay for performance can be shown to have intrinsic-like motivations (Gerhart & Fang, 2015), one must not lose sight of social factors like: how is that performance measured (and are the metrics actually accurate, fair, and valid), who determines if performance standards have been met (and are those processes actually or perceived as fair), who had access to the training to increase performance in the first place (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Ribot & Peluso, 2003), and so on. That is, although pay for performance may elicit *individual* motivation for work performance (whether intrinsic or extrinsic), meeting *organizational* goals does not reduce simply to the sum of its individual (motivated) parts (Fisher, 2005). Here, again, HRD stands particularly as well-positioned not only to navigate and adjust these several factors within the context of the workplace environment but also to address the environmental lack of support (and consequent personal frustration) for customs officer usage of English in the workplace.

CONCLUSION

Whether intrinsic, extrinsic, or a combination of the two, motivation plays a role in how employees perform in the workplace. In this case study, negative motivations (particularly from little to no support in the workplace) affected the use of workplace English in a Costa Rican customs office. Recognizing the increasing global demands for English fluency, even in non-English countries by visitors, HRD managers are positioned to create opportunities and provide training to effectively meet that demand. Consequently, HRD can draw not only on the kind of intrinsic motivations demonstrated by participants in this study to provide high levels of work performance, even in challenging situations requiring the use of English,

when workplace support exists to do so, but also to amplify extrinsic opportunities as well, especially the feedback and praise that customs officers receive from English-speaking arrivals, if not simply the fast-paced, challenging qualities of the workplace setting itself.

Above all, HRD can (in collaboration with customs workers) develop not just English-remediation curricula but English-supportive processes in the workplace that both can motivate the use of English but also adapt that usage in response to changing (global) factors when needed. Organizationally, HRD is better positioned to take the lead in this effort, as tradition workers must (and should) spend more of their time focusing on the processing of visitors, rather than analyzing any global-scale issues determining which visitors show up. That is, HRD is better positioned to be able to contribute to the development of the employees' skills in collaboration with those employees, thereby better securing increased motivation toward their work and the goals of the organization.

Variations in motivation are inevitable; if some employees will be more motivated by psychological rewards and others more by a desire simply to excel at their jobs, at other times these "reliable" motivations can flag for want of energy or suddenly spike in intensity. At all times, HRD managers are charged with facilitating opportunities that enable, harness, and channel these variable energies toward the retention and engagement of motivated employees working toward the attainment of organizational goals. In the present case, it is imperative for customs officers to be supported in their efforts to communicate effectively with arriving English-speaking tourists. By collaboratively developing English language training programs with customs workers, HRD not only will improve verbal and non-verbal interactions between officers and arriving tourists and enable customs officers to more effectively provide a satisfactory customer service experience but may also potentially improve national border security as well. Future research, in fact, could investigate how customs officers' improved performance in terms of spoken English affects other aspects of their overall work performance as well, i.e., complying with efficient customs procedures and enforcing customs law.

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