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AN INVESTIGATION OF FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIORS, SOURCE CREDIBILITY, AND IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT AS A FUNCTION OF GOAL ORIENTATION

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AN INVESTIGATION OF FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIORS,
SOURCE CREDIBILITY, AND IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT
AS A FUNCTION OF GOAL ORIENTATION

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Industrial/Organizational Psychology

by
Christopher Erich Morin

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ABSTRACT

Goal Orientation (GO), the behavioral tendencies for the goals individuals will adopt in a variety of situations has been thoroughly utilized to understand feedback seeking behaviors. While previous and ongoing research has answered many questions within this area, there remains theoretical inconsistencies involving these relationships. For example, the relationship between performance goal orientation (PPGO) and feedback seeking has largely been inconsistent. There are also relationships yet to be tested such as how the GO dimensions are related to different sources of feedback within the workplace. Because of this, the purpose of the present research was to examine the relationships between the three GO dimensions and feedback seeking to different sources (supervisor and colleague). Additionally, the impact of impression management on the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking behaviors, and the impact of feedback source credibility on the relationship between learning goal orientation (LGO) and feedback seeking behaviors was examined. Based on a sample of 291 working adults in southern California, results indicated that LGO and PPGO positively predicted feedback seeking to a supervisor and a colleague. Additionally, APGO (avoidance performance goal orientation) was unrelated to either feedback source in regression models containing LGO and PPGO, but bivariate correlations revealed a small positive relationship between APGO and a colleague. Impression management did not practically moderate the relationship between

PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor and feedback source credibility did not impact the relationship between LGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor. This means that individuals with a LGO and PPGO have tendencies for seeking feedback from not just a supervisor, but also colleagues within the workplace, while APGO individuals may lean towards a colleague for feedback. For the two interactions, Impression management may not be an adequate measure for finding the inconsistencies between PPGO and feedback seeking. Finally, feedback source credibility does not seem a factor for LGO individuals in the feedback seeking process. Practical and theoretical implications are provided along with the limitations and suggestions for future research.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER ONE LITERATURE REVIEW	
Introduction	1
Goal Orientation.....	4
Personality Characteristics	7
Feedback Seeking Behaviors	11
Hypotheses 1-7b.....	18
Hypotheses 8-8b.....	21
Tenure	22
CHAPTER TWO METHOD	
Participants	24
Procedure	25
Measures.....	26
Goal Orientation in a Work Setting.....	26
Feedback Seeking-Inquiry Performance Behaviors	27
Feedback Seeking-Monitoring Performance Behaviors	29
Feedback Source Credibility	29
Impression Management-Job Focused	30
Conscientiousness-HEXACO-60.....	31

Openness to Experience – HEXACO-60.....	32
CHAPTER THREE RESULTS	
Data Screening and Assumptions.....	34
Analysis Hypotheses 1-6	35
Analysis Hypotheses 7-7b	37
Analysis Hypotheses 8-8b	39
CHAPTER FOUR DISCUSSION	
Summary and Interpretation of Findings	41
Theoretical Implications	44
Practical Implications	45
Limitations and Future Research	47
Conclusion	50
APPENDIX A INFORMED CONSENT	51
APPENDIX B MEASURES	57
APPENDIX C INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL	65
REFERENCES	67

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Demographics	25
Table 2. Correlations among the Variables.	37

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: A Priori Representation of Hypotheses 7, 7a, and 7b.....	20
Figure 2. A Priori Representation of Hypotheses 8, 8a, and 8b.....	22
Figure 3. Moderating Effect of Impression Management	39
Figure 4. Moderating Effect of Source Credibility	40

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Goals have been rigorously studied throughout the Industrial/Organizational literature in order to understand their contribution to organizational phenomena and individual characteristics such as performance and feedback seeking behaviors. A goal can be understood as a desired outcome in which an individual strives towards in order to complete, achieve, and accomplish (Locke, 1969). These outcomes can be acquired through avenues such as direction, effort, and persistence (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981). That is, when one strives to complete a goal, attention (direction) is given to that goal, the amount of effort exerted will depend on the complexity of the goal, and persistence is the combination of direction and effort accomplished over time. These are the mechanisms by which one sets out to accomplish goals.

There are, however, behavioral tendencies for the ways in which individuals approach goals. These tendencies are referred to as goal orientation (GO). A commonly examined outcome of GO includes feedback seeking, a necessary method to acquire useful information in the successful acquisition of a goal. Considering that not all goals are easy to accomplish (and some simply will not be accomplished), an employee's approach (feedback seeking) to handling those potential shortcomings is in part influenced by their GO. Fortunately, much research has been devoted to understanding the relationships between GO and

feedback seeking behaviors. However, there are some inconsistencies in the research involving these relationships and extensions of feedback seeking behaviors are needed to understand this. Because of this, the purpose of this research was to clear up these inconsistencies and extend current theory involving GO and feedback seeking behaviors.

As mentioned, there are behavioral tendencies for certain types of goals. The theoretical framework involving these tendencies is GO. GO entails both dispositional and situational factors under the domain of motivation and achievement research (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007), and has also been viewed as a quasi-trait, mental-framework, and belief system construct (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005). Considering the construct has been defined as both contextual and dispositional, it is perhaps best understood as a tendency or a preference to goals in achievement situations (VandeWalle, 1997). Dweck and Legget (1988) have proposed that the goals people pursue can shape the way the goals are interpreted, how people react to certain events, and thus, how people respond to challenges within these events (Heyman & Dweck, 1992). That is, if an individual fails at reaching a goal, the subsequent interpretation may be that one's requisite ability is insufficient, or even fixed. On the other hand, these failures can also be interpreted as part of the learning process fostering growth and achievement.

The way in which individuals interpret goals and approach them is fundamental for understanding employee behaviors in the workplace. Not all

goals set by an employee within an organization will be met, and not all of the goals handed to employees will be met either. As a consequence of these potential shortcomings in the attainment of goals, the ways in which employees respond are crucial. Some individuals may view failure for reaching a goal as a demonstration of a lack of ability, while others view it as an opportunity for growth. This also has implications in terms of feedback seeking behaviors. Feedback is a necessary component for learning and development. If individuals believe that they can improve, then feedback will likely benefit their performance. If however, individuals perceive their abilities as lacking, being fixed, or if they fear poor demonstrations, then feedback is likely to be unutilized. Thus, GO is a promising avenue for further understanding of how people respond to old, new, and challenging events.

While numerous studies have examined the relationship between GO and feedback seeking behavior, there have been no efforts to date that have examined the relationship between GO and the source of feedback. Furthermore, there is a theoretical gap in the literature of GO as the prove performance goal orientation (PPGO) dimension has been inconsistently found to be positively related to feedback seeking (Porath & Bateman, 2006), and negatively related to feedback seeking (Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Because of this, the central aim of this study was to examine the moderating role of impression management on the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking behaviors, the relationship between GO and

sources of feedback (i.e., supervisory, colleague), and finally, the moderating role of feedback source credibility on the relationship between LGO and feedback seeking behaviors.

Goal Orientation

Originally, GO involved two distinguishable classes (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996), learning goals and performance goals (Dweck, 1986). Those who adopt a learning goal orientation (LGO) seek to master and further understand new content, while those who adopt a performance goal orientation (PGO) seek to be viewed favorably and avoid negative views of their competence (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Legget, 1988). Essentially, those with a LGO are aiming to increase their competence in the activity or skill in which they are performing while those with a PGO are concerned with being perceived as competent (Dweck & Elliot, 1983). Furthermore, an individual with a LGO desires mastery, and further development of his or her skillset (Heyman & Dweck, 1992). Conversely, an individual with a PGO desires to have their current ability validated by external sources. From a motivational perspective, failure of a task may reveal that one is deficient in his or her ability. Because of this, under PGO, new challenges are avoided and tasks that permit a demonstration of competency are preferred (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Under LGO, because the emphasis is on the development and mastery of skills (Heyman & Dweck, 1992), challenges are preferred (Latham & Pinder, 2005). In sum, those with a PGO may view a new or challenging task as a threat due to the possibility of being

viewed as incompetent, whereas those with a LGO view a challenging task as an opportunity to further develop (VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999).

GO has two common underlying assumptions for interpretation. One of these interpretations was that GO is understood through an internal or external referent (Nicholls, 1975). For example, Nicholls (1984) pointed out that individuals in an achievement situation seek to demonstrate high ability and minimize a demonstration of low ability. These demonstrations of ability are further seen through task and ego involvement. Under task involvement, additional effort will result in greater ability (internal referent). However, under ego involvement, a demonstration of ability depends on the comparisons of other's abilities (external referent). With that said, greater effort can lead to mastery under an internal referent perspective, but under an external referent, mastery of one's skills depend on the performance of others.

The other interpretation was that a theory of intelligence is held by the individual, and thus influences the GO that an individual will take (Dweck, 1986). A theory of intelligence is how an individual conceptualizes his or her own ability in terms of entity theory of intelligence or incremental theory of intelligence. With entity theory of intelligence, intelligence is viewed to be fixed and uncontrollable (Dweck & Legget, 1988). For the incremental theory of intelligence, intelligence is controllable and can be changed. With that, if an entity theory of intelligence is adopted (fixed intelligence), then a PGO will be initiated. This is because the increasing of competency is less likely and so maintaining favorable judgments

about one's current ability is preferable to the possibility of failed attempts. On the other hand, if there is an incremental theory of intelligence (malleable intelligence), then further competencies can be accomplished, and a LGO will be adopted.

While the original conception of GO theory was dichotomous (Dweck, 1986), it has since evolved into a three-factor model (Payne et al., 2007). In this three factor model, the PGO construct was divided to include prove performance goal orientation (PPGO) and avoid performance goal orientation (APGO) (VandeWalle, 1997). The dichotomous model of GO (Heyman & Dweck, 1992) has thus been replaced with the trichotomous model and has been noted as being a more comprehensive form of measurement for GO (Payne et al., 2007). Conceptually, this is a logical approach to further understanding GO as individuals who adopt the PGO approach can theoretically have two separate trajectories, which is to avoid negative assessment or gain positive external interpretation of their ability. In particular, PPGO encompasses the demonstration of competency in order to gain favorable judgement, while APGO includes avoiding poor demonstration of competency and also avoiding negative judgments of one's abilities (VandeWalle, 1997).

It is important to note that PGO may be viewed negatively due to its characteristic of demonstrating competency rather than improving ability. Before GO was trichotomized, however, Dweck (1986) suggested that for those who have a high PGO and also have high confidence in their current ability, they are

actually mastery oriented and seek a challenge. Due to the further disintegration of PGO (PPGO and APGO), it is seen that the PPGO dimension is associated with achieving success, while the APGO has been associated with more negative characteristics such as low self-efficacy and the avoidance of help on task assignments (Brophy, 2004). This provides additional support for the partitioning of PGO into two dimensions as there are theoretical implications in that APGO and PPGO have been empirically shown to have different outcomes (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). Further, the negative relationships between APGO on intrinsic motivation have been demonstrated by Rawsthorne and Elliot (1999) and Elliot and Church (1997).

Personality Characteristics

Personality characteristics have been a prominent topic of interest not only within goal research, but psychology in general. The most widely accepted model of personality is the Big 5 theory of Personality including the facets of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness (Goldberg, 1990). When the relationship between the Big 5 personality characteristics and GO was examined in a meta-analysis, it was found that conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and emotional stability were all positively related to a LGO (Payne et al., 2007). Of the strongest personality dimensions linked to LGO were conscientiousness and openness to experience. Conversely, APGO was negatively related to conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and

emotional stability. For PPGO, this dimension was unrelated to conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness. Finally, PPGO did negatively correlate with emotional stability.

The amount of effort an individual puts forth to a given task may also be influenced by the GO one possesses. For example, when one tries at a task and fails, the assumption made may be that one therefore lacks certain ability in the given task (Covington & Omelich, 1979). This theory of effort is also applicable to GO in that those with a PGO view ability as fixed (VandeWalle et al., 1999). Because of this, adopters of PGO are likely to see little benefit in increased effort and trying to increase competencies. Conversely, adopters of a LGO may perceive effort as necessary for increasing competency and developing skill sets. Evidence for this proposition was found in that LGO was positively related to the amount of intended effort in sales performance while PGO was unrelated to the amount of intended effort in sales performance (VandeWalle et al., 1999).

Considering that people with an LGO focus on mastery and competency, it seems plausible that those who adopt this specific type of GO would display higher levels of self-efficacy. On the opposite side, for those with a PGO, because these individuals are concerned with being perceived as competent, and avoid new tasks in which it will be difficult to display competency, self-efficacy may be lower. Self-efficacy was defined as the beliefs about one's capabilities to control both oneself and the events that affect him or her (Bandura, 1991). Self-efficacy influences the level of motivation that one has, and

thus the amount of effort that one will put forth to a given task (Bandura, 1989). Support for the relationship between self-efficacy and GO was found in that LGO had a positive relationship to self-efficacy whereas PGO was negatively related to self-efficacy (Phillips & Gully, 1997). Additionally, self-esteem and theory of ability have been found to be positively correlated with a LGO while theory of ability was found to be negatively correlated with PGO (Button et al., 1996).

While the relationship between self-efficacy, LGO, and PGO have been investigated (Button et al., 1996), differences between APGO and PPGO and their relationship to self-efficacy need to be delineated. Meta-analytically, LGO has been found to have a strong positive relationship with general self-efficacy, and APGO was found to have a strong negative relationship with general self-efficacy (Payne et al., 2007). Furthermore, although a smaller effect, PPGO was found to be negatively related to general self-efficacy. This could be explained by the notion that people who view their level of intelligence as being fixed will have lower levels of self-efficacy (Kanfer, 1990), and those who view intelligence as fixed tend to adopt a PGO (Payne et al., 2007). Unfortunately, there are a limited number of studies revealing the relationship between self-efficacy and APGO, PPGO, LGO, indicating a need for further investigation of this domain.

Locus of control has also been found to have relationships with GO. Locus of control is the degree to which an individual believes he or she can control the events within one's life (Rotter, 1966). Internal locus of control represents the belief that one does indeed control his or her life while external locus of control is

characterized by the belief that events are determined by environmental factors. Locus of control can also be applied to work situations and explain the degree to which one has (or does not have) control over outcomes in a work setting. A positive relationship between LGO and work locus of control has been found (Button et al., 1996). This indicated that those who adopt a LGO tend to perceive greater locus of control in work settings. Interestingly, a positive relationship was also found between PGO and work locus of control. This was, however, a significantly weaker correlation compared to LGO. Perhaps, this was found because PGO was still being measured as a single construct, rather than a dichotomous one.

Those who adopt a LGO are seeking to increase their competency, and so it logically follows that they would have a higher need for achievement. Achievement was defined as the need to accomplish and achieve difficult standards in overcoming obstacles (Murray, 1938). Evidence for a linkage between LGO and a need for achievement was found in that LGO was positively correlated with the need for achievement while PGO was found to have a weak and non-significant correlation (Phillips & Gully, 1997). This was interpreted as those who have a LGO perceive their abilities to be flexible and adaptable, thus valuing achievement. Whereas those with a PGO may view their abilities as fixed, thus avoiding a demonstration that would lead to being perceived as a failure of certain tasks.

Motivation can be understood through a plethora of constructs. Two determinants, however, include the avoidance motive and achievement motive (Atkinson, 1957). In the avoidance domain, one seeks to avoid failure due to consequences that result in shame, while in the achievement motive there is a tendency for approach in order to attain success. When considering the relationship to GO, support was found for a link between mastery goals, achievement motivation, and high competence (Elliot & Church, 1997). Conversely, performance-avoidance goals were linked to the fear of failure and lower competence. Additionally, performance-approach goals were linked to both achievement motivation, fear of failure, and high competence. Due to the theoretical links between GO and the need for achievement, Payne, Youngcourt, and Beaubien (2007) tested the relationships between the constructs. It was found that the need for achievement was positively correlated with a LGO, while being negatively correlated with APGO. Interestingly, no relationship was found between PPGO and the need for achievement. This could be explained by the notion that PPGO seeks to demonstrate competency, and not necessarily the achievement of difficult standards.

Feedback Seeking Behaviors

GO has been researched to include antecedents (cognitive ability, intelligence, personality, self-efficacy, self-esteem) and consequences (learning strategies, feedback seeking, and performance) to name a few (Payne et al., 2007). Of particular interest is the relationship between GO and feedback

seeking. Motivation can be explained through multiple constructs. Two of which are through cognitive sub-processes including distal and proximal motivation (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). For the distal component, one may choose to engage in the pursuit of a goal, allocating resources towards that goal. For the proximal piece, self-regulation activities and increased effort are needed to accomplish a goal (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). These self-regulation activities include self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reaction. Self-monitoring requires attention to given behaviors, self-evaluation is an examination of those behaviors and how they relate to the desired goal, and self-reaction is both an affective response of satisfaction and a perception of capabilities. These mechanisms of proximal motivation are used in order to reduce discrepancies when pursuing goals (Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004). Discrepancy reduction involves the process of altering or adjusting behaviors and standards (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). This discrepancy reduction can be understood as feedback.

The perceived cost and value of feedback can influence the decision to pursue feedback. When feedback is perceived as valuable, individuals tend to report feedback seeking more often (Ashford, 1986) and when feedback is perceived as costly (psychologically), individuals seek less feedback (Fedor, Rensvold, & Adams, 1992). The pursuit of feedback can have varying outcomes in terms of costs. One type of cost is the risk that is involved while seeking feedback (Ashford, 1986). For example, simply seeking feedback could lead to the evaluation of one's ability as either an attempt to improve or an indication of

insecurity. When seeking feedback, the costs of one's ego may also be at risk. Due to the possibility of discovering negative feedback about one's performance, feedback may be avoided to preserve the integrity of one's ego. Self-presentation costs also play a role in the feedback seeking process. Self-presentation has a two-fold purpose, which is to acquire rewards or to accomplish self-fulfillment (Baumeister, 1982). Effort costs, the amount of resources allocated to pursuing feedback, are also a factor with feedback seeking (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Finally, the expectancy value of feedback can influence feedback seeking behaviors (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). High expectancy value equates to chances of improving performance while a low expectancy value means feedback will offer little to aid in increasing performance.

It has been noted that those with a PGO may view their ability as fixed (Dweck, 1986). Because of this, those with a PGO may perceive feedback about their performance as a judgement of their ability (Bobko, & Coella, 1994). Consequently, if an individual with a PGO receives negative feedback, this is likely to be a detriment to one's ego (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). On the opposite side of GO, one who has a LGO is likely to view negative feedback as a means to increase his or her ability. Furthermore, if seeking feedback is perceived to be useful, then those with a LGO are likely to pursue feedback as a means to increase competency. Whereas those with a PGO are less likely to see value in feedback as they perceive their ability to be fixed. Thus, the feedback will be of less beneficial value.

Support for the tendency of individuals holding a LGO to pursue feedback, and for individuals characterized by a PGO to not pursue feedback has been found (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). In a two-part longitudinal study, the relationship between GO and feedback seeking was examined among a group of undergraduate students. For the second part, the mediating role of cost and value for feedback seeking and goal orientation was investigated. The researchers found that when students held an APGO and a PPGO, there was a negative relationship for feedback seeking. In addition to this, an LGO was found to be positively related to feedback seeking. Finally, the perceived cost and value of feedback served as a mediator between LGO and APGO and feedback seeking.

In a separate study in which the effects of GO and job performance on self-regulation tactics were examined, feedback seeking was found to be negatively related to APGO whereas PPGO was found to be positively related to feedback seeking (Porath & Bateman, 2006). Furthermore, previous research has indicated, inconsistently, that PPGO was negatively related to feedback seeking (Tuckey et al., 2002). Results from the study by VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) and the latter, Porath and Bateman (2006) are mostly consistent with a meta-analysis done by Payne et al., (2007). Here, distinct differences were found for the three dimensions of GO. Specifically, LGO was found to be positively related to feedback seeking behavior. With APGO, there was a negative relationship with feedback seeking behavior. For PPGO, this

orientation was found to have no relationship with feedback seeking behavior. These findings for PPGO contradict the results by VandeWalle and Cummings (1997).

A possible explanation suggested by Payne et al., (2007) is that those with a PPGO may actually seek feedback if they believe that they have performed well on a task. This fits well with the theory GO in that those with a PGO desire to be seen as competent (Dweck & Elliot, 1983). Furthermore, Porath and Bateman (2006) have suggested that the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking may be elicited by impression management. Therefore, if being viewed competently by an external rater is not likely, then those with a PPGO may not seek feedback. While feedback has been traditionally viewed as a means for acquiring useful information, it can also become a means for self-promotion and social influence (Morrison & Bies, 1991). Because of this, the moderating role of impression management was examined to further understand the nature of GO and feedback seeking behavior.

Interestingly, the influence of impression management on GO and feedback seeking has not been adequately tested. One study (Tuckey et al., 2002) did attempt to examine the mediating role of impression management between GO and feedback seeking. Unfortunately, the assertive impression management measure being used in the study was dismissed from the analysis due to poor reliability and inadequate fit for the data. There was another measure of impression management (defensive), which represents the avoidance of

creating a negative image of oneself. This was combined with other motives such as ego-protection and useful information. The subsequent finding was that all of these constructs, combined, mediate the relationship between GO and feedback seeking. For the present research, the construct of job-focused impression management was utilized, which represents the degree to which one uses performance-related information to create a positive image of oneself (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006). This is the theoretically opposite of defensive impression management in that job-focused impression management represents approach, rather than avoidance. That is, if an individual higher in PPGO has done well, then perhaps he or she will use impression management as a means to acquire feedback. Because of this, the moderating role of impression management was examined to further understand the nature of GO and feedback seeking behavior.

As noted earlier, self-regulation is a process within proximal motivation to reduce discrepancies and to use feedback to reduce these discrepancies. Because individuals with a PGO are not seeking to increase competency, self-regulation may not be used as often (Vandewalle et al., 1999). Conversely, those with a LGO are more likely to initiate self-monitoring (Miller, Behrens, Greene, & Newman, 1993). Because of this, self-regulation tactics (e.g., feedback) can help explain the differences in feedback seeking behavior. Furthermore, because of differences in the perceived cost and value of feedback, individuals with a LGO seek more feedback than do those with a PGO (VandeWalle, 2003).

Aside from the type of feedback sought after and its relationship to GO, there seems to be no research investigating the relationship between the source of feedback and the dimensions of GO. While no studies have examined the source of feedback and GO, there has been a study investigating feedback source and some similar qualities that can be related to different types of GO (Vancouver & Morrison, 1995). Although this was not the purpose of the study, the participants characterized with a high need for achievement were more likely to seek feedback from a source of expertise rather than a relationship source. As mentioned previously, those with a LGO had a higher need for achievement, while for those with a PGO, there was no need for achievement (Phillips & Gully, 1997). Another important finding from Vancouver and Morrison (1995) was that those who viewed their performance as good were more likely to think about reward potential from their source compared to those who thought that they did not perform well. This could be related to PGO, as these individuals may consider the potential reward of validation for good performance, and thus seek feedback if performance was indeed, optimal. A measure of feedback seeking from “knowledgeable others” with respect to self-improvement and self-validation has been utilized (Janssen & Prins, 2007), but this unfortunately does not help to delineate between sources of feedback and its relation to various dimensions of GO.

It has been suggested that those with a LGO might prefer sources with expertise when seeking feedback, while those with a PGO may have less interest

in a source with expertise (VandeWalle, 2003). Further, possible paths were speculated. First, those with a PGO perceive greater ego costs when seeking feedback from a source of expertise as the source could potentially spot poor areas of performance more easily. Second, considering the entity theory of intelligence help by PGO individuals, expectancy costs of feedback from an expert would be greater than say, a colleague. This is logical to assume in that those with a LGO desire increased competency and thus, will seek information from many different resources, however.

Additionally, those within the PGO domain have greater perceived feedback seeking ego costs (VandeWalle, 2003). That is, if negative information is received about the self, it comes at a cost to the individual's ego. As a result, they are less likely to seek feedback. An exception to this was found by Jansen and Prins (2007) in that those who held an APGO sought self-improvement information. Considering that APGO has been positively related to fear of negative evaluation (VandeWalle, 1997) and the ego costs of feedback are higher for these individuals, feedback may be sought after less often from a supervisor than a colleague. For this reason, it is expected APGO will be positively related to a feedback seeking source of colleague and negatively related to a supervisor.

Hypotheses 1-7b

Hypothesis 1: *LGO will positively predict supervisory feedback seeking behaviors.*

Hypothesis 2: *If the relationship between PPGO and supervisor source of feedback is positive, it will be a weaker relationship compared to the colleague pathway.*

Hypothesis 3: *APGO will negatively predict supervisor source of feedback.*

Hypothesis 4: *LGO will positively predict colleague source of feedback.*

Hypothesis 5: *PPGO will positively predict colleague source of feedback*

Hypothesis 6: *APGO will positively predict colleague source of feedback.*

Hypothesis 7: *Impression management will moderate the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking behavior.*

Hypothesis 7a: *For those who report being high in PPGO, feedback will be sought if impression management is also high.*

Hypothesis 7b: *For those who report being high in PPGO, feedback will not be sought if impression management is low.*

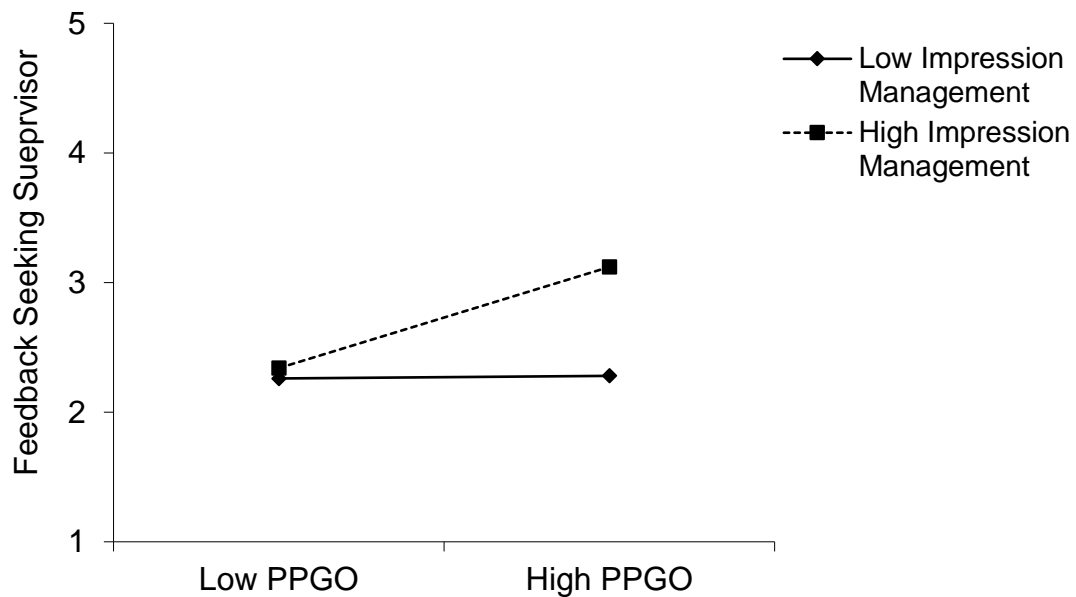


Figure 1: A Priori Representation of Hypotheses 7, 7a, and 7b.

As previously mentioned, perceptions of feedback will influence the decision to pursue feedback. Some of the costs identified with seeking feedback have been ego costs and value costs. For example, perceived greater value in the attainment of feedback is positively associated with feedback seeking reports (Ashford, 1986). When applying this concept to GO, however, the value of feedback changes. That is, higher scores in LGO have been positively associated with the perceived value in feedback, higher scores in APGO have been negatively associated with the perceived value in feedback, and PPGO has had no relationship (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). The value of feedback under this framework represents the degree to which feedback will be useful for

the improvement in performance (VandeWalle, 1993 as cited in VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997).

While the value of the feedback itself has been examined, neither the source of feedback, or the credibility of the source, has been investigated as possible influences on feedback seeking. For example, research has found that when participants evaluate feedback given to them, it is rated more positively when provided by an expert source over a peer source (Albright & Levy, 1995). This finding serves to illustrate that source credibility is a variable to consider when seeking feedback. That is, if the source of feedback is perceived to be less credible, then feedback will be evaluated negatively. For those with a LGO, a preference for sources with expertise should be given (VandeWalle, 2003) as they desire to increase competencies. If the source is not credible, regardless of supervisory status, then feedback may not be sought after. Further, it is important to note that some may argue differences between sources may alter the accuracy of feedback. In a meta-analysis, however, it was found that peer ratings and supervisory ratings are highly positively correlated (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988). Because of these findings, it is logical that source credibility would further impact the relationship between GO and feedback seeking between different sources.

Hypotheses 8-8b

Hypothesis 8: *Feedback source credibility will moderate the relationship between LGO and feedback seeking behaviors.*

Hypothesis 8a: *If the source of feedback is perceived to be non-credible, then feedback will be sought less from that source.*

Hypothesis 8b: *If the source of feedback is perceived to be credible, then feedback will be sought.*

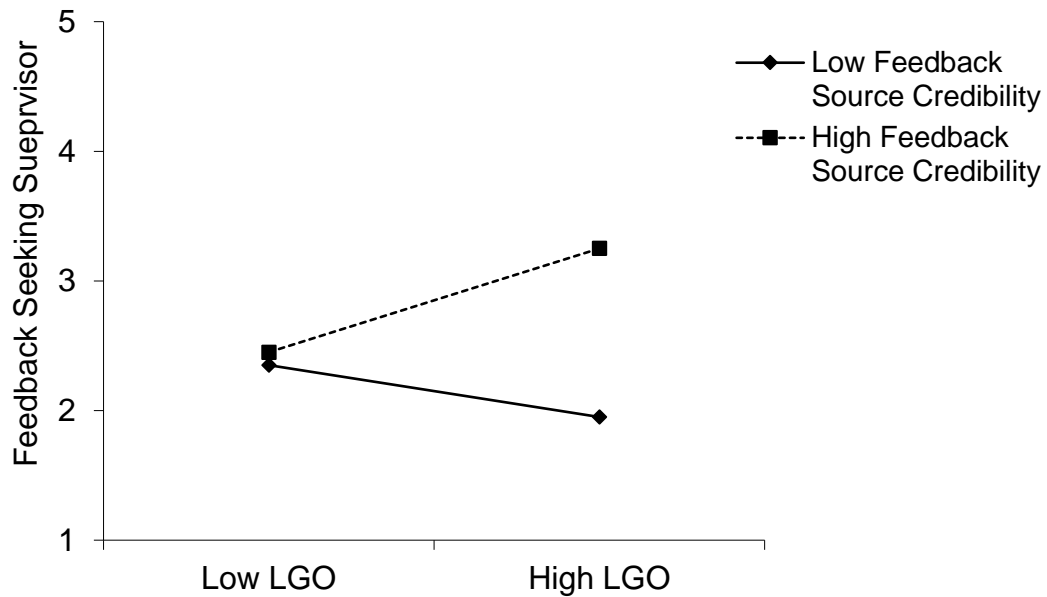


Figure 2. A Priori Representation of Hypotheses 8, 8a, and 8b.

Tenure

Much has been discovered about the nature of LGO, APGO, and PPGO.

There remains, however, questions about demographics to be further understood. In a review article by Midgley, Kaplan, and Middleton (2001), the authors noted that performance goals seem to vary as a function of gender, age, competitive learning environments, and if mastery goals are adopted.

Additionally, the amount of time one holds in an organization is a direct influence

on the value of feedback and the inquiry of feedback (Ashford, 1986).

Specifically, when individuals have greater amounts of tenure in an organization, they are less likely to see value in feedback on performance compared to lower-tenured individuals. For the inquiry of feedback, organizational tenure is also negatively related (Ashford, 1986). For this reason, tenure within organizations was controlled for in the present study.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

Respondents were recruited via convenience sampling at California State University, San Bernardino within the psychology department as well as a community sample. Participants were selected based on contact with colleagues and a supervisor within the workplace. The total sample was $N = 291$ and consisted mostly of female Latino-Hispanics with some college or at least an associate's degree level of education. The complete demographics are reported in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographics

<u>Demographic</u>	
<u>N</u>	291
Age	M = 24.02, SD = 7.23, Range: 18-62
Female	89%
Male	11%
<u>Ethnicity</u>	
Latino	61.9%
Caucasian	18.9%
Bi-cultural	8.9%
African American	5.2%
Asian	1.7%
Other	2.7%
Native American	0.3%
No Ethnicity chosen	0.3%
<u>Education</u>	
Some high school	1.0%
High school/GED	14.4%
Some college	39.9%
Associate's degree	36.1%
Bachelor's degree	7.6%
Master's degree	0.7%
No education chosen	0.3%
<u>Income</u>	
\$0-\$14,999	54.6%
\$15,000-\$29,999	28.5%
\$30,000-\$49,999	6.5%
\$50,000 and beyond	9.6%

Procedure

The study was cross-sectional and there was no random assignment or manipulation. Demographics appeared last to prevent potential confounds associated with ethnicity, gender, or income. Outcome variables (feedback seeking) appeared first to prevent changes in responses from the goal orientation

measure. Members in the community and students were provided with a link to the study on Qualtrics in which they were given an informed consent. Following conclusion of the study, participants were debriefed.

Measures

Goal Orientation in a Work Setting

This is a thirteen item measure assessing three dimensions of goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997). The first dimension is LGO. An example item of this dimension includes, 'I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from'. The second dimension is PPGO. An example item includes, 'I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work'. The final dimension is APGO. An example item for APGO includes, 'I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others'. Items were assessed using a 1-7 likert-type response scale, which were anchored at strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

The Goal Orientation in a work setting was tested for reliability and construct validity by VandeWalle (1997). The measure was found to have good internal consistency for all three dimensions (LGO: $\alpha = .89$, PPGO: $\alpha = .85$, APGO: $\alpha = .88$) and also has good test-retest reliability over a three-month period (LGO: $r = .66$, PPGO: $r = .60$, APGO: $r = .57$). For the construct validity component, the GO dimensions and their relationships to other theoretically relevant constructs were tested. To name a few of the findings in this partial nomological network, it was found that fear of negative evaluation was negatively

correlated with LGO ($r = -.13$), and positively correlated with PPGO ($r = .37$) and APGO ($r = .36$). This provided construct validity as the LGO dimension details mastery over validation of oneself while PPGO and APGO dimensions detail efforts to validate one's performance. Another finding was that implicit theory of intelligence negatively correlated with LGO ($r = -.14$) and positively with PPGO ($r = .18$) and APGO ($r = .28$). This was further evidence for construct validity as Dweck and Legget, (1988) suggested that an entity theory of intelligence (implicit) will evoke a PGO with the belief that intelligence is fixed, while individuals in the LGO domain adopt an incremental theory of intelligence with the belief that intelligence is malleable. A full nomological network analysis of the GO dimensions validity can be found in Payne et al., (2007). For the present study, descriptive statistics for GO include LGO: (range: 1.8 to 6; $\alpha = .883$; $M = 4.80$, $SD = .82$, z-scored skewness = -3.71, z-scored kurtosis = 1.2), PPGO: (range: 1 to 6; $\alpha = .826$; $M = 3.89$, $SD = 1.11$, z-scored skewness = -2.17, z-scored kurtosis = .004), and APGO: (range: 1 to 6; $\alpha = .861$; $M = 3.01$, $SD = 1.12$, z-scored skewness = -.948, z-scored kurtosis = -1.47).

Feedback Seeking-Inquiry Performance Behaviors

This was originally a three-item scale assessing the degree to which one seeks feedback about his or her performance (Ashford, 1986). For the present study, the items were modified to reflect feedback seeking to a specific source (supervisor or colleague). With the modification, the measure includes six items in total. That is, three for supervisor and three for colleague. An example of the

feedback seeking to supervisor includes, 'In order to find out how well you are performing in your job, how FREQUENTLY do you: Seek information from your supervisor about your work performance'? An example of the feedback seeking to colleague includes, 'In order to find out how well you are performing in your job, how FREQUENTLY do you: Seek information from your co-workers about your work performance'? Items were anchored at very infrequently (1) to very frequently (5).

The original measure of feedback seeking – frequency of inquiry about performance behaviors was tested for reliability and correlated with other constructs related to feedback by Ashford (1986). For the reliability component, the measure was found to have an inter-item correlation of .33, and was positively correlated with the value of feedback ($r = .20$), amount of feedback ($r = .30$), and negatively correlated with the effort of feedback ($r = -.13$). The positive correlation to value of feedback is validity evidence for the measure as the value of feedback is an important facet of the feedback seeking process. Further, the negative correlation with effort is further validity evidence for the measure because if the feedback seeking process requires too much effort, then it is likely to not be pursued. Because the study by Ashford, (1986) did not include an estimate on internal consistency, it is worth noting that Teunissen et al., (2009) found the internal consistency of feedback seeking inquiry to be $\alpha = .89$ in their study on feedback seeking and goal orientation. For the present study, descriptive statistics include feedback to supervisor: (range: 1 to 5; $\alpha = .882$; $M =$

3.17, $SD = 1$, z-scored skewness = $-.95$, z-scored kurtosis = -2.06), and feedback to colleague (range: 1 to 5; $\alpha = .881$; $M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.04$, z-scored skewness = $-.70$, z-scored kurtosis = -2.35).

Feedback Seeking-Monitoring Performance Behaviors

This is a four-item scale assessing the degree to which one monitors his or her own performance for feedback purposes (Ashford, 1986). Items were anchored at very infrequently (1) to very frequently (5). An example item of this measure includes, 'In order to find out how well you are performing in your present job, how FREQUENTLY do you: Observe what performance behaviors your boss rewards and use this as feedback on your own performance'?

Feedback seeking-monitoring was also assessed for reliability and examined for relationships to other feedback constructs by Ashford (1986). The internal consistency was found to be $\alpha = .77$. Additionally, the measure was found to be positively correlated with the value of feedback ($r = .27$), amount of feedback ($r = .30$), and effort of feedback ($r = .08$). For the present study, descriptive statistics include feedback monitoring: (range: 1 to 5; $\alpha = .807$; $M = 3.74$, $SD = .81$, z-scored skewness = -6.82 , z-scored kurtosis = 4.31).

Feedback Source Credibility

This is a five-item measure assessing the perceived credibility of an external source that provides feedback (Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). There are two dimensions, supervisor and colleague. For the purposes of this study, only the supervisor dimension was utilized. An example item of the supervisor

credibility dimension includes, 'My supervisor is generally familiar with my performance on the job'. Items were anchored at strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

The feedback source credibility measure was validated and tested for reliability by Steelman et al., (2004). The internal consistency of the measure was $\alpha = .88$, while the test-retest coefficient after 4-5 months was .70 demonstrating good reliability. Additionally, both concurrent and predictive validity was assessed with other feedback relevant constructs. For example, feedback source credibility to supervisor was positively correlated with satisfaction with feedback ($r = .65$), motivation to use feedback ($r = .23$), and feedback seeking ($r = .25$). This provides validity evidence in that satisfaction, motivation, and actual feedback seeking itself is related to the feedback credibility of a source. For the present study, descriptive statistics include feedback source credibility: (range: 1.6 to 7; $\alpha = .844$; $M = 5.66$, $SD = 1.04$, z-scored skewness = -7.35, z-scored kurtosis = 4.26).

Impression Management-Job Focused

This is an eight-item measure assessing the degree to which one engages in impression management strategies in an employment setting (Bolino et al., 2006). The original impression management-job focused scale was developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990). However, Bolino et al., (2006) found some items to have poor loadings during exploratory factor analysis and subsequently, confirmatory factor analysis. Because of this, the present study utilizes the

measure by Bolino et al., (2006). An example item includes, 'Try to make a positive event that I am responsible for appear better than it actually is'. The original scale was set up to include never (1) to (7) always. However, this was changed so the anchors would have better indicators, never (1), sometimes (2), about half of the time (3), most of the time (4), and always (5).

The internal consistency of the impression management – job focused measure was found to be $\alpha = .87$ by Bolino et al., (2006) demonstrating good reliability. Additionally, the measure was found to be negatively correlated with organizational citizenship behaviors ($r = -.13$). This provides validity evidence in that organizational citizenship behaviors are operationalized in terms of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and courtesy (Organ, 1988) while job-focused impression management includes behaviors such as falsely claiming responsibility for positive events and downplaying negative events. For the present study, descriptive statistics include impression management: (range: 1 to 5; $\alpha = .825$; $M = 2.49$, $SD = .86$, z-scored skewness = -2.43, z-scored kurtosis = -1.85).

Conscientiousness-HEXACO-60

The HEXACO-60 is a 60-item measure assessing the five major dimensions of personality (Ashton & Lee, 2009). For this study, the conscientiousness dimension was utilized and contains ten items. An example item includes, 'I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute'. The scale is anchored at (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. The

internal consistency of the HEXACO-60 with college students was found to be $\alpha = .78$ and with a community sample, $\alpha = .76$, demonstrating good reliability.

Furthermore, to demonstrate validity evidence, the consciousness dimension of the HEXACO measure was positively correlated with the revised NEO-five factor inventory of personality conscientiousness dimension ($r = .75$) for a college sample, and ($r = .58$) for a community sample. This provides validity evidence in that the HEXACO consciousness dimension is highly correlated with the already validated measure of the revised NEO-five factor inventory of personality (Costa & Mac Crae, 1992). For the present study, descriptive statistics include conscientiousness: (range: 2.2 to 5; $\alpha = .768$; $M = 3.86$, $SD = .57$, z-scored skewness = $-.64$, z-scored kurtosis = -1.42)

Openness to Experience – HEXACO-60

The openness to experience dimension of the HEXACO-60 (Ashton & Lee, 2009) was also utilized for the present study and contains ten items. An example item includes, 'I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting'. The scale is anchored at (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. The internal consistency of the HEXACO-60 with college students was found to be $\alpha = .77$ and with a community sample, $\alpha = .80$, demonstrating good reliability. The openness to experience dimension of the HEXACO measure was positively correlated with the revised NEO-five factor inventory of personality openness dimension ($r = .80$) for a college sample, and ($r = .70$) for a community sample. Again, this provides validity evidence in that the HEXACO dimension of

openness to experience is highly correlated with the validated measure of the revised NEO-five factor inventory of personality (Costa & Mac Crae, 1992). For the present study, descriptive statistics include openness to experience (range: 1 to 5; $\alpha = .783$; $M = 3.46$, $SD = .66$, z-scored skewness = $.29$, z-scored kurtosis = $.83$).

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Data Screening and Assumptions

Careless responding was checked via the careless responding check items, timing for completion, honesty item, and long string analysis. There were three respondents who took approximately 10 hours or longer to complete the survey. These participants were removed from the main analyses. Three careless responding checks were implemented. If more than one was missed, the participant was removed. Using this method, four respondents missed 2 or more careless responding checks. A final honesty item was implemented and two participants who admitted their responses were inaccurate were also removed. Long string analysis was also performed to examine respondent patterns of selecting the same value repeatedly. Using criteria by Meade and Craig (2012), there were no clear breaks in the distribution of scores with identical responding. No troublesome outliers were detected through examination of histograms and standardized units. With respect to influential cases, Cook's distance ranged from .081 to .276. Since these are not larger than one, the cases do not have undue influence over the model (Cook & Weisberg, 1982).

Regression assumptions were checked for each regression model with the corresponding hypothesis. The Durbin-Watson statistic ranged from 1.738 to 2.136. Because it is close 2, there was no violation of independent errors (Field, 2009). For multicollinearity, the variance inflation factor ranged from 1.18 to

1.388. Considering this is not substantially larger than 1, the regression model did not have an issue with multicollinearity (Bowerman & O'Connell, 1990). To examine homoscedasticity, scatterplots of the standardized residuals against standardized predicted values were plotted. No violations of homoscedasticity

Analysis Hypotheses 1-6

Hierarchical linear regression was used to examine GO dimensions predicting feedback seeking to a supervisor. Tenure was entered as a control variable. LGO, PPGO, and APGO were entered into block 1, with feedback seeking to supervisor as an outcome variable. The regression model was $R = .389$, $F(4, 286) = 12.78$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .152$, adjusted $R^2 = .140$. Support for hypothesis 1 was found in that LGO positively predicted feedback seeking to a supervisor, $b = .285$, 95% CI [.142, .429], $\beta = .233$, $t(286) = 3.89$, $p < .001$. Hypothesis 3 was unsupported in that APGO was not related to feedback seeking for a supervisor, $b = -.029$, 95% CI [-.138, .081], $\beta = -.032$, $t(286) = -.517$, $p = .303$. Additionally, while APGO was unrelated in a model that contains LGO and PPGO, the zero-order correlation also reveals no relationship between APGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor $r = .012$, $p > .05$.

Hierarchical linear regression was used to examine GO dimensions predicting feedback seeking to a colleague. Tenure was entered as a control variable. LGO, PPGO, and APGO were entered into block 1 with feedback seeking to colleague as an outcome variable. The regression model was $R = .419$, $F(4, 286) = 15.21$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .175$, adjusted $R^2 = .164$. Hypothesis 4

was supported as LGO positively predicted feedback seeking to a colleague $b = .335$, 95% CI [.188, .482], $\beta = .265$, $t(286) = 4.492$, $p < .001$. For hypothesis 6, although non-significant, the traditional negative relationship between APGO and supervisor changes and moves towards the positive direction when a colleague is the source of feedback, $b = .065$, 95% CI [-.047, .177], $\beta = .070$, $t(286) = 1.140$, $p = .127$. Additionally, the zero-order correlation was $r = .118$, $p < .05$. Altogether, this is evidence of a weak, yet directional change when the source of feedback moves from a supervisor to a colleague.

For hypothesis 2, this was unsupported as PPGO had a stronger positive beta weight for the supervisor outcome variable $b = .240$, 95% CI [.130, .351], $\beta = .266$, $t(286) = 4.277$, $p < .001$. For the colleague outcome, PPGO was positively related to feedback seeking for a colleague $b = .220$, 95% CI [.107, .333], $\beta = .235$, $t(286) = 3.84$, $p < .001$. When examining the zero-order correlations between PPGO and feedback seeking, there was a slightly stronger relationship for the colleague ($r = .331$, 95% CI [.22, .43] $p < .01$) over the supervisor ($r = .308$, 95% CI [.20, .41] $p < .01$). However, considering the abundant overlap between the confidence intervals for feedback to a colleague and a supervisor, there is actually no meaningful difference between the two sources.

Table 2. Correlations among the Variables.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. LGO	.883									
2. PPGO	.229	.826								
3. APGO	-.219	.359	.861							
4. Feedback Supervisor	.301	.308	.012	.882						
5. Feedback Colleague	.285	.331	.118	.589	.881					
6. Impression Management	.115	.500	.336	.198	.254	.825				
7. FBSC	.297	.044	-.161	.246	.108	-.042	.844			
8. Tenure	.154	-.086	-.177	.017	-.113	-.152	-.027	-		
9. Conscientiousness	.349	-.109	-.34	.071	.01	-.197	.260	.152	.768	
10. Openness to Experience	.319	.037	-.160	.125	.051	-.069	.106	.095	.209	.783

Note: $N = 291$. All correlations above .115 and below -.113 are significant at .05

level or lower. Diagonal includes the Cronbach's alpha. Conscientiousness and openness to experience were not included as control variables due to non-substantive impact on the regression models.

Analysis Hypotheses 7-7b

PPGO and impression management were z-score transformed before testing an interaction effect. Tenure, PPGO, and impression management were entered into block 1. The interaction term was entered into block two. Regression

model 1 was $R = .316$, $F(3, 287) = 10.602$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .010$, adjusted $R^2 = .090$. When adding the interaction term, $R^2\Delta = .008$, $F(1, 286) = 2.697$, $p = .102$.

The addition of the interaction between PPGO and impression management explained 0.8% unique variance in feedback seeking to a supervisor. Essentially, this is too small of an effect to be considered meaningful. As a consequence, the interaction hypotheses regarding impression management were unsupported.

Nonetheless, the very small effect was examined through a simple slopes analysis (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991). When impression management was low, the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor is positive, $\beta = .203$, 95% CI [.047, .358], $t(286) = 2.569$, $p = .011$. However, when impression management is high, the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor became stronger in the positive direction, $\beta = .376$, 95% CI [.204, .548], $t(286) = 4.295$, $p < .001$.

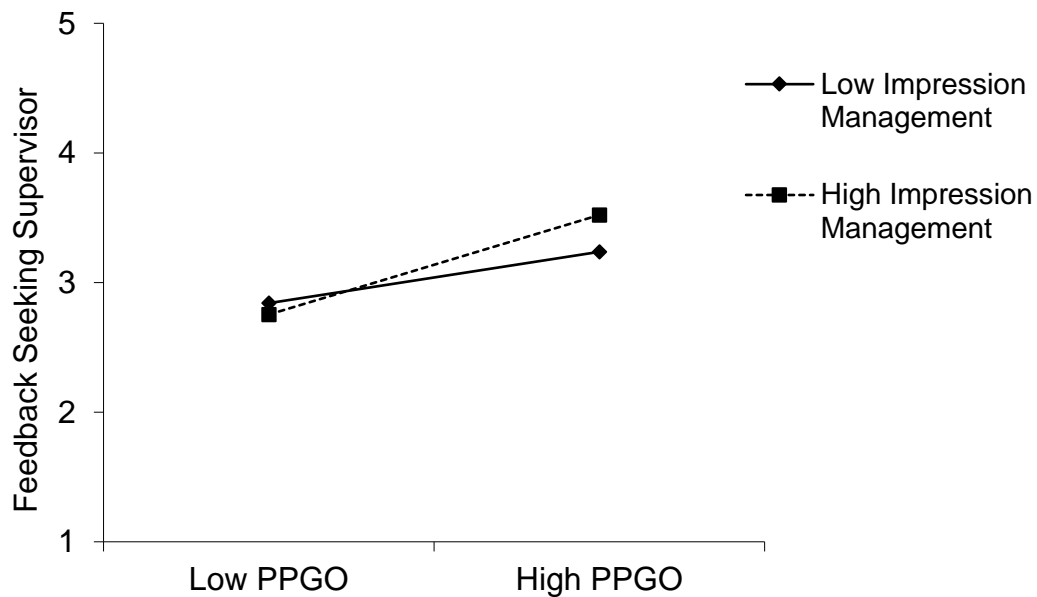


Figure 3. Moderating Effect of Impression Management

Analysis Hypotheses 8-8b

LGO and feedback source credibility were centered and standardized before testing an interaction effect. Tenure, LGO, and feedback source credibility were entered into block one and the interaction term was entered into block 2. Regression model 1 was $R = .343$ $F(3, 287) = 12.782$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .118$, adjusted $R^2 = .109$. When adding the interaction term, $R^2\Delta = .003$, $F(1, 286) = .824$, $p = .365$. As a consequence, hypothesis 8 was not supported. After examining $R^2\Delta$, it can be seen that only 0.3% unique variance was added as part of the interaction.

Regardless of the overall null interaction effect, simple slopes analysis (Aiken et al., 1991) was utilized to investigate potential relationship differences between feedback seeking and LGO with feedback source credibility included in the model. It was found that there was a positive relationship between LGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor when feedback source credibility was low $\beta = .222$, 95% CI [.088, .359], $t(286) = 3.254$, $p = .001$ and high $\beta = .307$, 95% CI [.143, .475], $t(286) = 3.67$, $p < .001$.

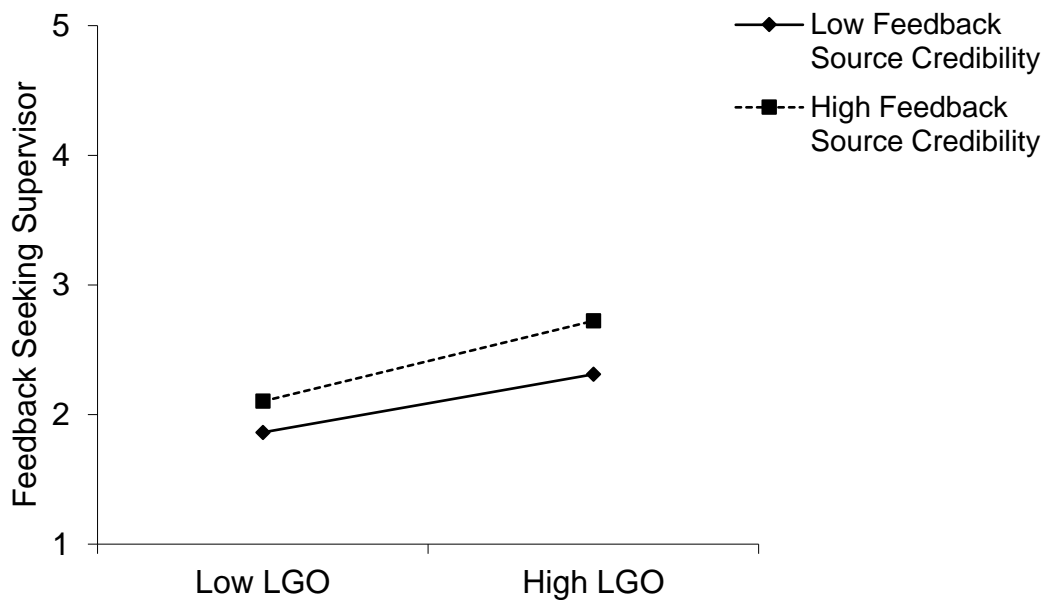


Figure 4. Moderating Effect of Source Credibility

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

Summary and Interpretation of Findings

This GO and its relationship to feedback seeking has been examined through many areas of research. In this study, I aimed to replicate previous findings, address inconsistencies, and to explore relationships previously unexamined. For example, with hypotheses 1-3, previous research regarding GO and feedback seeking was replicated. For hypotheses 4-6, new areas of feedback seeking to a colleague source was investigated. With hypotheses 7-7b, the inconsistent relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking was examined. Finally, for hypotheses 8-8b the relationship between LGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor with feedback source credibility as a potential influence was also investigated.

It was found that LGO positively predicts feedback seeking to a supervisor in a model that contains PPGO and APGO, and is in line with previous research (Porath & Bateman, 2006; Tuckey et al., 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997) as well as meta-analytic findings (Payne et al., 2007). This relationship held positive when a colleague was the source of feedback as well. This provides evidence that the more an individual has a desire learn, the more he or she desires feedback regardless of the source of feedback.

APGO was unrelated to feedback seeking to a supervisor in a model that contains LGO and PPGO, and the zero-order correlation also revealed no

relationship. Additionally, a comparatively weak, yet positive relationship was found between APGO and feedback to a colleague in a model that contains LGO and PPGO. The zero-order correlation for APGO and colleague source of feedback was also small. Typically, the relationship between APGO and feedback seeking is negative, but the present research found different results. This may be for two reasons. First, the way in which GO is measured likely has an influence on the finding of a relationship. This may be why APGO in the regression model had no relationship, but becomes a stronger relationship for feedback to a colleague in a simple bivariate relationship. Second, self-presentation costs of feedback seeking may have had an impact. For example, VandeWalle (2003) noted that self-presentation costs may entail embarrassment or uncertainty in the feedback seeking process. Further, Park, Schmidt, Scheu, and DeShon (2007) found that APGO was positively related to higher self-presentation costs, and in turn, was related to a preference for no feedback. Because of potentially higher self-presentation costs, those who had APGO tendencies may not have had a preference for feedback seeking to a supervisor, and resulted in no relationship for the present findings.

PPGO was found to be positively related to feedback seeking to both a supervisor and a colleague in a model that contains LGO and APGO. It was hypothesized that the relationship would be stronger for colleague than a supervisor. However, the beta-weight was slightly stronger for the supervisor. Conversely, when examining the bivariate correlations, the relationship between

PPGO and feedback to a colleague is slightly stronger compared to the feedback to a supervisor relationship. As mentioned earlier, it seems that the method in which the PPGO and feedback seeking relationships are measured will alter the strength of an effect.

Impression management was found to not meaningfully moderate the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor. However, this was followed up with a simple slopes analysis. When impression management was high, the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor was slightly stronger compared to low impression management. It has been noted that fixations with impression management may be influencing the feedback seeking process (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997) and that if those with a PPGO perceived performance to be good, then feedback may be sought (Payne et al., 2007). It is worth emphasizing that a boundary condition was detected in which those high in impression management sought feedback more than those low in impression management. While this was not enough to be considered a meaningful interaction, it appears that individuals high in impression management and PPGO are slightly moving towards more feedback seeking behaviors. Perhaps a construct that is more specific to measuring perceived performance would help to reveal the inconsistencies of the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking.

For the final set of hypotheses, feedback source credibility was not found to meaningfully impact the relationship between LGO and feedback seeking to a

supervisor. Originally, it was thought that the credibility of a source in the feedback seeking process would influence an individual to either seek or not seek feedback regardless of level of LGO. However, the data indicate this is not the case, and that LGO is positively related to feedback seeking regardless of source credibility. This may have happened for two reasons. First, feedback source credibility was negatively skewed and bounded. In other words, the majority of participants had credible supervisors and the scale was constrained (Field, 2009) in that it was constructed on a 1-7 level, but only captured levels ranging from 1.6 to 7. From this, it is possible the majority of participants simply had credible supervisors or the entirety of variability regarding credibility was not captured. Another explanation is that supervisors were perceived to be credible due to hierarchical perceptions. For example, Albright and Levy (1995) found that by stating the rater was an expert in his or her field, participants viewed the source as credible despite discrepancies in feedback. Because of this, it is possible participants perceived their supervisor to be credible due to other factors such as position or experience despite the possibility of not being a competent rater.

Theoretical Implications

The findings of the present research add to the scholarly domain of GO and feedback seeking relationships. The relationship between GO dimensions and feedback seeking to various sources has not been tested to date. Because of the findings, it is clear that those who are higher in LGO have a tendency to

seek feedback from not just a supervisor, but also a colleague. We also see that while APGO may be unrelated with feedback to a supervisor, there is a small tendency for APGO to lean towards a colleague in the feedback seeking process. This relationship was unsupported in a regression model that contains LGO and PPGO, but in a bivariate relationship, the effect holds. It is possible APGO and feedback to a supervisor are unrelated because of presentation costs (Park, Schmidt, Scheu, & DeShon, 2007), while the relationship between APGO and feedback to a colleague emerges because those costs are lowered.

There is also theoretical value added to the relationship regarding PPGO and feedback seeking. The effect has been noted as being negative (Jansen & Prins, 2007; Tuckey et al., 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997), positive (Porath & Bateman, 2006), and as having no relationship (Payne et al., 2007). This present study revealed that impression management does not meaningfully impact the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking. While impression management seems to slightly strengthen the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking, it is not enough to explain the inconsistencies in the literature.

Practical Implications

The findings of the present research have applied implications for organizations. Feedback is the method by which individuals further develop themselves and increase their performance on a task or set of tasks. The decision to pursue feedback is also likely an indication that the individual perceives feedback to be useful information (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). From

the results, it is clear that GO dimensions have various levels of feedback seeking tendencies, and these tendencies will also change based on the source. For example, with APGO, there is no relationship to a supervisor source of feedback, yet a more noticeable relationship to that of a colleague was present. Additionally, the relationship between PPGO and supervisor source of feedback increases when impression management is high.

Taken together, this could be evidence for colleagues perhaps being a more readily available source of feedback within the workplace or competing preferences for feedback among sources. Because of this, some researchers encourage leadership to instill a LGO into individuals to increase their performance (Crommelinck & Anseel, 2013; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). While it may be a sound technique for leaders to help employees recognize opportunities for growth and improvement over faults, mistakes, and blame, there should also be efforts to encourage feedback seeking with other sources within the organization. Because of the relationships discovered in the present study, employee participation with providing assistance and constructive criticism (if it asked for) should be encouraged in the workplace. Developing a LGO may be possible, but considering the construct has a dispositional component, it is likely that overall behaviors will not change. Because of this, leadership should encourage a psychologically safe environment (Edmondson, 1999) so that employees who have APGO tendencies can seek feedback from colleagues in the organization. Considering that those with APGO tendencies have a desire for

useful information (Jansen & Prins, 2007), encouraging feedback seeking with multiple sources could possibly result in a chance for further development of those who are more avoidant.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study had several limitations that merit consideration. The first and perhaps common limitation is the type of sample. The sample consisted mostly of undergraduate students with low workplace tenure. It is worth noting that students who have not had a foothold within the workforce may have different conceptions of, and preferences for the feedback seeking process. In other words, it is possible that students compared to employees who have various GOs have a desire for useful information in different ways. For example, Tuckey et al., (2002) suggested that a desire for useful information would be more likely to mediate LGO in learning and developmental settings (academic) while a desire for useful information would be more likely to mediate PPGO for settings in which competency is critical (employment) (Tuckey et al., 2002). To add to the limitation of a student sample, it is possible that the GO dimensions are psychometrically different for students compared to non-students (McKinney, 2003). That is, when comparing factor loadings of LGO between students and employees, some items produce weaker factor loadings for employee samples. Another limitation was the cross-sectional design of the survey. Although the feedback items were measured as inquiry for feedback, it is entirely possible that participants responded to these items on an attitudinal level as opposed to

behaviorally. Perhaps measuring the GO dimensions of individuals followed by measuring the amount of times feedback is actually sought from a supervisor or colleague would help to provide a realistic portrayal of feedback seeking between sources within the workplace.

Future research would benefit by considering the following options. First, conducting a study that entirely consists of non-students may help to further understand the relationship between GO dimensions and feedback preferences of different sources. For example, students with APGO tendencies may perceive fellow students as sources of feedback, but seasoned employees may perceive the feedback seeking process with a colleague differently. Perhaps APGO students that are accustomed to the learning and developmental environment have an easier time seeking feedback with individuals that do not operate in a supervisory capacity compared to APGO non-students. Additionally, incorporating measures such as availability and preference for feedback from different sources would help to further explore the relationships between GO and feedback seeking. That is, non-students may seek feedback from colleagues more often simply because their colleagues have greater availability.

Second, it is possible that the perceived costs of feedback seeking (ego, presentation, effort) moderate the relationship between APGO and feedback seeking. Specifically, those with APGO tendencies may not seek feedback when self-presentation and ego costs are perceived to be high (VandeWalle, 2003). That is, if the possibility of embarrassment from heightened self-presentation

costs, or negative feedback about the self from ego costs unfolds, then it is likely feedback would not be sought. This may be why there was no relationship between APGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor in the present study. Perhaps if those high in APGO consider presentation and ego costs to be high, then feedback would not be pursued compared to those also high in APGO who do not consider presentation costs to be high. It would also be beneficial to explore whether or not self-presentation and ego costs have an impact on the feedback seeking process between different sources. Perhaps these costs may be a factor for APGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor, but the effect may weaken when the source is a colleague.

Third and perhaps the most compelling area of future research that spawned from this study involved the construct of impression management. Because the effect was considerably small in magnitude, it may be better to examine beliefs regarding task work success instead of job-focused impression management. Based off the positive relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor at high levels of impression management, it seems that the job-focused dimension of impression management was at best, only capturing a small portion of the inconsistencies found across the literature. In other words, a global measure of job-focused impression management may be missing the unique circumstances in which positive and negative relationships emerge between PPGO and feedback seeking behaviors. Perhaps for those who have PPGO tendencies, feedback would be sought more often when task work

was perceived to be successful. This may be a better construct to measure over job-focused impression management as those with a PPGO desire validation of one's ability and this validation may be more likely when task work was successful.

Conclusion

In this study, previous findings regarding GO and feedback seeking were replicated, previously unexamined areas were investigated, and inconsistent findings in the literature were addressed. It was found that LGO and PPGO positively predicted feedback seeking to a supervisor and a colleague. Additionally, APGO was unrelated to either feedback source in regression models containing LGO and PPGO, but bivariate correlations revealed a small positive relationship between APGO and a colleague. Impression management did not practically moderate the relationship between PPGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor. Finally, feedback source credibility did not impact the relationship between LGO and feedback seeking to a supervisor. This study helped to provide theoretical implications for further examining differences between GO and feedback sources while considering the influence of impression management and feedback source credibility. Practical implications were also provided as colleague sources are also a source of feedback for various GO dimensions.

APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENTS

Informed Consent (Students)

Feedback and Goal Orientation in the Workplace

This study has been designed to assess feedback seeking behavior and the goal dispositions of individuals within the workplace. This study is being conducted by Chris Morin (graduate student in the industrial/organizational psychology graduate program at CSUSB) under the supervision of Dr. Ismael Diaz (Professor of industrial/organizational psychology). This study has been approved by the Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee at California State University San Bernardino, and a copy of the official stamp of approval appears at the bottom of this consent form. The university requires that you give consent before participating in the study.

Purpose: While large amounts of research have examined relationships between goal orientation and feedback seeking behavior, there have been limited efforts to examine the relationship between goal orientation and the source of feedback. Because of this, a central aim to this study is to examine the amount of the type of feedback seeking from different sources of feedback as a function of GO as well as the influence of impression management.

Description of Research: You will be asked to report the extent to which you seek feedback and the type from various sources in the workplace via an on-line survey service (Qualtrics). Your responses will be recorded electronically, and once you complete the survey you will be provided with a debriefing and explanation of the study.

Duration: Responding to the questions on the survey will require around 15 minutes. The full survey, including the reading of the consent and debriefing statement, should total to 25 minutes at the most.

Risks: Risk associated with this study is low and no more than would be encountered with daily activities. The nature of the questions are non-invasive. The act of answering these questions via online survey is no more risky than any other computer based activity.

Benefits: You will receive course extra credit for completing this study. If you wish to withdraw from the study at any time, you may do so without removal of credit. Individual responses will contribute to scientific understanding and potentially to the application of insights for work and job settings.

Participation: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can skip questions or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. Your participation is important for advancing research done at California State University, San Bernardino. Your willingness to take part in the study, or your decision

to withdraw from the study is entirely your decision and will not affect your relationship or standing with the university in any way.

Confidentiality: Information collected for this study will be confidential. You will not be required to provide any identifying information, and any information you chose to provide will be kept confidential. Any published report relating to this project will contain group level information only (means, group information, and group level statistics). No individual information will be published under any circumstances. All information collected will be kept secure using encryption protocols used by the survey service. Datasets and all records of this study will only be accessed by the primary investigator. All stored information about this study will be kept on a password protected computer used only by the primary investigator, or in a file drawer that locks inside of an office where only the primary investigator has access. Records will be kept for five years as mandated by the American Psychological Association.

Data Storage: Original responses will be stored on a password protected and encrypted server hosted by qualtrics.com. Dataset files downloaded will be stored on a password protected computer. The dataset file will only be accessed by the primary investigator. Data from this project will be used for a Master's thesis that will be submitted for peer review and potential publication in a research journal as well as presentation at regional conferences. Any and all identifying information will be removed from any report or publication. Information from this study will only be presented at the aggregate (group level) with all identifying information removed. Data will be kept for a period of 10 years.

Results: Immediately after the study is complete, a report of the study findings will be compiled. This report will contain summary descriptive statistics of group means, general trends among responses, and a brief description of how these trends can be interpreted. Copies of this report can be found in the main office of the department of Psychology at California State University, San Bernardino. Requests for the report of findings can be made with the main office. Once the study is completed and the subsequent study is published in a peer reviewed journal, copies of the published study can be obtained by request with the Department of Psychology at California State University, San Bernardino.

Questions or Concerns: In case of questions or if there are concerns, problems, or other issues, the primary researcher Chris Morin can be contacted at morinc@coyote.csusb.edu. The Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino can also be contacted at psyc.irb@csusb.edu.

Confirmation Statement:

I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.

By selecting the option to continue in the survey, I affirm that I understand the above information and that I am taking part in this study voluntarily with the option to end my participation at any time with no penalty or negative consequence for voluntarily ending my participation.

Informed Consent (Community)

Feedback and Goal Orientation in the Workplace

This study has been designed to assess feedback seeking behavior and the goal dispositions of individuals within the workplace. This study is being conducted by Chris Morin (graduate student in the industrial/organizational psychology graduate program at CSUSB) under the supervision of Dr. Ismael Diaz (Professor of industrial/organizational psychology). This study has been approved by the Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee at California State University San Bernardino, and a copy of the official stamp of approval appears at the bottom of this consent form. The university requires that you give consent before participating in the study.

Purpose: While large amounts of research have examined relationships between goal orientation and feedback seeking behavior, there have been limited efforts to examine the relationship between goal orientation and the source of feedback. Because of this, a central aim to this study is to examine the amount of the type of feedback seeking from different sources of feedback as a function of GO as well as the influence of impression management.

Description of Research: You will be asked to report the extent to which you seek feedback and the type from various sources in the workplace via an on-line survey service (Qualtrics). Your responses will be recorded electronically, and once you complete the survey you will be provided with a debriefing and explanation of the study.

Duration: Responding to the questions on the survey will require around 15 minutes. The full survey, including the reading of the consent and debriefing statement, should total to 25 minutes at the most.

Risks: Risk associated with this study is low and no more than would be encountered with daily activities. The nature of the questions are non-invasive. The act of answering these questions via online survey is no more risky than any other computer based activity.

Benefits: You will receive no direct benefits from this study. Individual responses will contribute to scientific understanding and potentially to the application of insights for work and job settings.

Participation: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can skip questions or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. Your participation is important for advancing research done at California State University, San Bernardino. Your willingness to take part in the study, or your decision to withdraw from the study is entirely your decision and will not affect your relationship or standing with the university in any way.

Confidentiality: Information collected for this study will be confidential. You will not be required to provide any identifying information, and any information you chose to provide will be kept confidential. Any published report relating to this project will contain group level information only (means, group information, and group level statistics). No individual information will be published under any circumstances. All information collected will be kept secure using encryption protocols used by the survey service. Datasets and all records of this study will only be accessed by the primary investigator. All stored information about this study will be kept on a password protected computer used only by the primary investigator, or in a file drawer that locks inside of an office where only the primary investigator has access. Records will be kept for five years as mandated by the American Psychological Association.

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Results: Immediately after the study is complete, a report of the study findings will be compiled. This report will contain summary descriptive statistics of group means, general trends among responses, and a brief description of how these trends can be interpreted. Copies of this report can be found in the main office of the department of Psychology at California State University, San Bernardino. Requests for the report of findings can be made with the main office. Once the study is completed and the subsequent study is published in a peer reviewed journal, copies of the published study can be obtained by request with the Department of Psychology at California State University, San Bernardino.

Contact: In case of questions or if there are concerns, problems, or other issues, the primary researcher Chris Morin can be contacted at morinc@coyote.csusb.edu. The Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino can also be contacted at psyc.irb@csusb.edu.

Confirmation Statement:

I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.
By selecting the option to continue in the survey, I affirm that I understand the above information and that I am taking part in this study voluntarily with the option to end my participation at any time with no penalty or negative consequence for voluntarily ending my participation. I also acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age.

APPENDIX B
MEASURES

Goal Orientation in a Work Setting

Strongly
Disagree
1

2

3

4

5

Strongly
Agree
6

Learning Goal Orientation

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent

Prove Performance Goal Orientation

1. I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my co-workers
2. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work
3. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing
4. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others

Avoid Performance Goal Orientation

1. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others
2. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill
3. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability
4. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly

Feedback Seeking Scale

Very Infrequently		Neutral		Very Frequently
1	2	3	4	5

Frequency of monitoring about performance behaviors:

In order to find out how well you are performing in your present job, how FREQUENTLY do you

1. Observe what performance behaviors your boss rewards and use this as feedback on your own performance?
2. Compare yourself with peers (persons at your level in the organization)?
3. Pay attention to how your boss acts toward you in order to understand how he/she perceives and evaluates your work performance?
4. Observe the characteristics of people who are rewarded by your supervisor and use this information?

Very Infrequently		Neutral		Very Frequently
1	2	3	4	5

Frequency of inquiry about performance behaviors:

In order to find out how well you are performing in your job, how FREQUENTLY do you

1. Seek information from *your co-workers* about your work performance?
2. Seek feedback from *your co-workers* about your work performance?
3. Seek feedback from *your co-worker* about potential for advancement within the (X) system?
1. Seek information from *your supervisor* about your work performance?
2. Seek feedback from *your supervisor* about your work performance?
3. Seek feedback from *your supervisor* about potential for advancement within the (X) system?

Impression Management

Never	Sometimes	About half the time	Most of the time	Always
1	2	3	4	5

Job-Focused

1. Try to make a positive event that I am responsible for appear better than it actually is
2. Play up the value of a positive event that I have taken credit for
3. Try to take responsibility for positive events, even when I am not solely responsible
4. Try to make a negative event that I am responsible for not appear as severe as it actually is to my supervisor
5. Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of my supervisor
6. Agree with my supervisor's major opinions outwardly even when I disagree inwardly
7. Create the impression that I am a 'good' person to my supervisor
8. Work late at the office so that my supervisor will see my working late and think I am a hard worker

Feedback Source Credibility

Strongly Disagree							Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Supervisor Source

1. My supervisor is generally familiar with my performance on the job.
2. In general, I respect my supervisor's opinions about my job performance.
3. With respect to job performance feedback, I usually do not trust my supervisor. (R)
4. My supervisor is fair when evaluating my job performance.
5. I have confidence in the feedback my supervisor gives me.

(R) Indicates reverse scored item.

Conscientiousness

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral (Neither agree nor disagree)	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Using the above scale, please indicate how accurate each trait represents you

1. I plan ahead and organize things, to avoid scrambling at the last minute.
2. I often push myself very hard when trying to achieve a goal.
3. When working on something, I don't pay much attention to small details. (R)
4. I make decisions based on the feeling of the moment rather than on careful thought. (R)
5. When working, I sometimes have difficulties due to being disorganized. (R)
6. I do only the minimum amount of work needed to get by. (R)
7. I always try to be accurate in my work, even at the expense of time.
8. I make a lot of mistakes because I don't think before I act. (R)
9. People often call me a perfectionist.
10. I prefer to do whatever comes to mind, rather than stick to a plan. (R)

(R) Indicates a reverse scored item.

Openness to Experience

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral (Neither agree nor disagree)	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Using the above scale, please indicate how accurate each trait represents you

1. I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery. (R)
2. I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries.
3. I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting.
4. I think that paying attention to radical ideas is a waste of time. (R)
5. If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert.
6. I've never really enjoyed looking through an encyclopedia. (R)
7. People have often told me that I have a good imagination.
8. I like people who have unconventional views.
9. I don't think of myself as the artistic or creative type. (R)
10. I find it boring to discuss philosophy. (R)

(R) Indicates a reverse scored item.

Demographics

1. Age
2. Gender:
 - Male
 - Female
3. Ethnicity
 - Asian (Asian American)
 - African American (Black)
 - Caucasian (White)
 - Native American
 - Latino (Hispanic)
 - Bi-Cultural
 - Other
4. Yearly Income
5. Highest Education Level Completed
6. Job Tenure: How long have you worked in your current employment position?
6. Honesty Check: There are many reasons for completing a research study. At times, however, participants respond too quickly or do not read questions fully before responding, which results in data that complicates the scientific research. Do you feel that the responses that you have given were, at the time that they were given, your best effort to respond accurately? There is no penalty, or right/wrong answer.

APPENDIX C
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

**Human Subjects Review Board
Department of Psychology
California State University,
San Bernardino**

PI: Diaz and Morin
From: Michael R. Lewin
Project Title: An Investigation of Feedback Seeking Behaviors, Source Credibility and Impression Management as a Function of Goal Orientation
Project ID: H-17WI-19A
Date: 3/21/17

Disposition: Administrative Review

Your IRB proposal H-17WI-19A is approved for 300 SONA participants. If you need additional participants or an extension an additional addendum will be required. This approval is valid until 3/21/18.

Good luck with your research!



Michael R. Lewin, Co-Chair
Psychology IRB Sub-Committee

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