ANTECEDENTS OF FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT

ANTECEDENTS OF FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIORS

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The aim of the present study was to examine the effects of goal orientation on feedback seeking behaviors. While examining this, the effects of self-efficacy, feedback sign, and motives were considered to better understand how goal-orientation affects the way employees seek feedback. The secondary purpose was to investigate the effects of task characteristics (important/unimportant) and performance level (good/bad) on feedback seeking behaviors.

A total of 204 people working in a wide range of organizations filled out the questionnaire. Participants rated the items measuring self-efficacy, goal-orientation, and feedback seeking motives. In addition, participants indicated how frequent they would demonstrate the feedback seeking behaviors listed in given two scenarios and four hypothetical situations.

Learning-goal orientation predicted desire for useful information positively and defensive motive negatively. Performance-prove orientation predicted both desire for useful information, and defensive motive positively, and performance-avoid orientation predicted only defensive motive. Learning-goal

orientation did not predict feedback seeking behaviors in both scenarios. However, performance-avoid orientation predicted longing for feedback negatively and feedback seeking through third parties, monitoring, and indirect inquiry positively in both positive and negative scenarios. However, the effects of self-efficacy and motives were not as expected. Self-efficacy did not moderate the relationship between goal-orientation and motives, and motives did not mediate the relationship between goal-orientation and feedback seeking behaviors with a few exceptions. Exploratory analysis revealed that task importance predicted the propensity of using specific feedback seeking methods, whereas performance expectancy predicted longing for feedback.

The results are discussed with the implications, strengths and limitations of the study. Some suggestions for future research are made.

Keywords: Goal-orientation, self-efficacy, feedback sign, feedback seeking behaviors, feedback seeking motives.

ÖZ

GERİBİLDİRİM ARAMA DAVRANIŞLARINI ETKİLEYEN FAKTÖRLER

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, çalışanların hedef yönelimlerinin, onların geribildirim arama davranışlarını nasıl etkilediğini araştırmaktı. Hedef yöneliminin etkisini daha iyi anlamak için, öz yeterliliğin, performans beklentisinin ve motivlerin geri bildirim arama sürecindeki etkileri de dikkate alınmıştır. Araştırmanın diğer amacı ise, iş özeliklerinin (görevin önemi) ve beklenen geribildirimin olumlu ya da olumsuz olmasının geribildirim arama davranışlarına etkisini araştırmaktı.

Çalışmaya farklı sektörlerden toplam 204 kişi katılmıştır. Çalışanlardan, öz yeterliliğin, hedef yönelimlerini ve geribildirim arama motivlerini ölçen maddeleri değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Ayrıca, çalışanlardan, ankette kendilerine sunulan iki senaryo ve dört hayali durumu okumaları ve belirtilen geribildirim arama davranışlarını ne sıklıkla göstereceklerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

Öğrenme odaklılık yararlı bilgi edinme isteğini yordamıştır. Performans-kanıtlama odaklılık, hem savunma hem de yararlı bilgi edinme isteğini yordarken, performans kaçınma odaklılık ise sadece savunma motivini yordamıştır. Öğrenme

odaklılık, geribildirim arama davranışlarını tahmin etmemektedir. Performans-kaçınma odaklılık ise, geribildirim arama isteğini ve üçüncü kişileri kullanarak, gözlemleyerek ve direkt sorular sorarak geribildirim istemeyi yordamıştır. Öz yeterlilik ve motivlerin etkisi beklenildiği gibi bulunmamıştır. Öz yeterlilik, hedef yönelimi ve geribildirim arama motivleri arasındaki ilişkiye etki etmemiştir. İşin önemi, geribildirim arama metotlarının kullanım sıklığını etkilerken, performans beklentileri geribildirim arama isteğini etkilemiştir.

Elde edilen verilerin kuramsal ve uygulamaya yönelik doğurguları ele alınmıştır. Çalışmanın güçlü yönleri ve sınırlılıkları ele alınmış, ileriki çalışmalar için bazı önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Hedef yönelimi, öz yeterlilik, geribildirim arama davranışı, geribildirim beklentileri, geribildirim davranışları ve motivleri.

TO MY FAMILY

FOR THEIR TRUST AND CONTINUED SUPPORT

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In this introductory chapter, the purpose and the scope of the present study are presented together with a brief summary of the hypotheses.

1.1. The Purpose and the Scope of the Study

Ambiguity, change, and uncertainty are probably the best words defining today's organizations. Increased competition, rapidly changing technology, and business rules bring about substantial changes with regard to performance standards, and organizational rules (Morrison, 2002). To adapt to these changes, employees have no chance but to tailor their behaviors based on the information they are provided with or they obtain from their supervisors and peers (Ashford, 1986).

Feedback, which involves information about how others perceive and evaluate an individual's behavior, serves different purposes. It can serve as a reward and thus stimulates performance or it can serve as a cue useful in regulating behavior appropriately (Payne & Hauty, 1955). No matter how it functions, feedback is an important organizational resource, which helps employees to achieve the performance and motivational outcomes valued by the organization (Ashford & Cummings, 1985).

Realizing its instrumental value, many studies have been conducted to understand the concept of 'feedback' (e.g., Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Larson,

1984). In these studies, mainly the cognitive and affective processes related to feedback giving were investigated. Yet, in their articles, Ashford and Cummings (1983) criticized the feedback literature for its historic focus on performance appraisal and challenged it to move beyond the feedback employees receive from their bosses during the annual performance review to an understanding of the multiple and various ways that employees seek and use feedback in their everyday work lives (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). According to Ashford and Cummings (1983), individuals are not just passive recipients of information. They actively seek feedback to reduce ambiguity about appropriate behaviors and to self-assess their progress.

After the criticism of Ashford and Cummings (1983) and their studies, researchers directed their attention to feedback-seeking concept. To this date, many studies have been conducted to explore the meaning, antecedents and consequences of feedback seeking behaviors (e.g. Butler, 1993; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990; Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). In majority of the studies, the feedback seeking behaviors of people have been investigated in organizational settings because organizational settings enable researchers to manipulate or measure the factors that affect feedback seeking. Moreover, its contributions to several outcomes such as performance and employee learning make studying feedback seeking behaviors in organizations viable.

This study aims to uncover feedback seeking mechanisms in real life organizations. While doing this, it incorporates the goal orientation concept to the feedback seeking concept and investigates how goal orientation of employees affects the motives for seeking information and the means selected for this purpose. Goal orientation is the major variable of interest in this study because it is expected to affect people's motivation for seeking feedback and how they seek feedback by influencing their task choices, goals, and namely priorities at work. Recent research, in a way, supports this expectation by showing the effects of goal orientation on feedback seeking frequency (e.g. Butler, 1993; Tuckey, Brewer, Williamson, 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Unlike the previous studies that investigate sole effect of goal orientation, however, this study will incorporate

other factors that may affect the feedback seeking behaviors and attitudes of people.

The effect of self-efficacy is taken into account while investigating the relationship between goal orientation and motives for seeking information. Self-efficacy is expected to moderate the relationship between goal orientation and motives by affecting the opinions of people regarding the value of feedback. For example, people having high performance-goal orientation but low in self-efficacy may discredit the diagnostic value of negative feedback and reduce their feedback seeking efforts because they believe that they cannot change their performance. On the other hand, performance-oriented people with high self-efficacy may deliberately search for negative feedback because this feedback may help them to understand their mistakes and perform better in the future. To better understand the validity of these expectations and the changing motives of people, the possible interactions between self-efficacy and goal orientation are taken into account in this study.

The goal orientation and motives linkage proposed in this study may be affected by many factors other than self-efficacy. For example, tolerance for ambiguity or self esteem may change the magnitude of relationship between goal orientation and motives by making people more or less receptive to feedback. However, since it is impossible to examine all potential moderators, this study considers only self-efficacy as a potential moderator of the relationship between goal orientation and motives.

Since motives are argued to be important determinants of behaviors (e.g., Ajzen, 1991), investigating motives is thought to be important for understanding why employees engage in particular feedback seeking behavior. Motives for seeking feedback, however, may depend on whether the seeker expects feedback to be favorable or unfavorable. Therefore, the effect of feedback sign (positive or negative) will be taken into account while investigating the relationship between motives and feedback seeking behaviors.

Other than investigating the effects of goal orientation, self-efficacy and feedback sign, this study also investigates the effects of perceived task importance

and performance level on feedback seeking behaviors of employees. Perceived task importance may affect people's desire and need for seeking additional information (Ashford, 1986). When they are working on unimportant tasks, individuals may not search for performance feedback considering the image and effort costs of seeking feedback. On the other hand, individuals may request feedback about their performance at important tasks in order to obtain diagnostic information. Hence, this study also investigates whether the feedback seeking behaviors of employees is affected by the performance level and perceptions of task importance.

1.2. Significance of This Study

"Information Age" is probably the most defining name for 21st century because reaching information has become easier and quicker as compared to past (Haag, Cummings, & Dawkins, 1999). Easy and timely access to information has changed the rules and dynamics of the organizations. In today's business world, most employees have a chance to obtain more information about their performance and the organizational rules (Laudon, & Laudon, 2002). The timing and the amount of information is no longer under the control of supervisor. Employees have become active seekers of information. Realizing this fact, many researchers have conducted studies to understand what induces employees to seek information (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Tuckey, Williamson, Brewer, 2002).

This study also aims to contribute to the existing literature by identifying the motives of people for seeking feedback. In this respect, it resembles the previous studies that investigate the attitudinal aspects of feedback seeking. Unlike the previous studies that investigated the unique effects of factors on motives, this study investigates the joint effects of two factors (goal orientation, and self-efficacy) on motives. So far, a number of studies have investigated the effects of goal orientation (e.g., VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997; Tuckey, Brewer, Williamson, 2002), self-efficacy (e.g., Brown, Ganesan, & Challagalla,

2001), and the feedback sign (e.g., Morrison & Cummings, 1992) separately, but none of them have investigated their effects at the same time. By identifying the possible moderating effects of self-efficacy, this study may facilitate better understanding of goal orientation and motives linkage.

Besides motives, this study examines the behaviors exhibited by employees while seeking feedback. This study is expected to combine the attitudinal side of feedback seeking with the behavioral side of the feedback seeking by showing the linkage between motives and certain feedback seeking behaviors. Studies investigating the feedback seeking concept generally focused on either attitudinal side (motives) or behavioral side of feedback seeking, but not both. This study is hoped to overcome this limitation.

Furthermore, unlike previous studies, this study focuses on feedback seeking methods other than the direct inquiry and monitoring. Employees are asked whether they would seek feedback through indirect inquiry, which is one of the feedback seeking methods mentioned, but not empirically tested in previous studies. Using third parties is another way of seeking feedback. These two methods (i.e., indirect inquiry and third party feedback seeking) need to be included to understand the feedback seeking mechanism in organizations. This study measures people's likelihood of using these methods when expecting positive and negative evaluation.

This study also demonstrates how Turkish workers respond to success or failure and regulate their feedback seeking efforts accordingly. Results are expected to demonstrate whether Turkish workers use subtle feedback seeking methods (i.e., monitoring supervisor, asking indirect questions) to protect their image and ego or use overt method (i.e., direct inquiry) to obtain specific information. In this respect, this study has the potential to contribute to the literature regarding the cross cultural differences in feedback seeking attitudes and behaviors.

This study has practical implications as well. Practitioners may benefit from the findings of this study by understanding which motives are related to which feedback seeking behaviors and how occurrence of these behaviors can be

increased through organizational means, such as organizational climate and policies. For example, understanding how self-enhancing motives are related to the frequency of the feedback seeking may give practitioners cues about how they can manipulate the organizational climate to make employees more willing to seek feedback. Moreover, understanding how individual differences, such as goal orientation, and self-efficacy, affect feedback seeking behaviors may enable organizations to acknowledge why some employees are more willing to seek feedback and ask questions about their performances while others are reluctant to seek feedback and only monitor their environment to gather information about their performance.

In sum, the major purpose of the present study is to investigate the role of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and feedback sign on feedback seeking behaviors of employees. More specifically, performance-prove, performance-avoid, and learning-goal orientations are expected to affect the motives for feedback seeking, which in turn is expected to affect people's longing for feedback and the methods by which they seek feedback. Self-efficacy is expected to moderate the relationship between goal orientation and motives (i.e. desire for useful information, desire to control impressions, and desire to protect ego) by affecting the value of feedback. Feedback sign (positive or negative feedback), on the other hand, is supposed to affect the relationship between motives and feedback seeking behaviors. Besides investigating the effects of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and feedback sign, this study investigates the main and interaction effects of task importance (important versus unimportant task) and performance level (above average versus below average performance) on feedback seeking behaviors. In the following section, these expectations are explained in detail.

CHAPTER 2

GOAL ORIENTATION AND FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIOR

In this section, relevant literature regarding goal orientation, self-efficacy, feedback sign, feedback seeking motives and behaviors are summarized. However, considering the breadth of the studies conducted on feedback seeking, studies more relevant to this study are covered only.

2.1. THE CONCEPT OF FEEDBACK SEEKING

People live in an environment which is characterized by ambiguity, change, and uncertainty. To reduce the tension created by ambiguity and uncertainty, people try to gather information either by asking questions to other people or monitoring the environment (Ashford, 1986). In this respect, information seeking seems to have an instrumental value for individuals who want to clarify the uncertainties and make sense of things happening around them.

Realizing its importance, many researchers conducted studies about information seeking concept, which includes feedback seeking concept as well (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Morrison, 2002; Tuckey, Brewer & Williamson, 2002). Since the aim of this study is to investigate the feedback seeking concept within organizations, the information seeking concept, which is broader than the feedback seeking concept, will not be included in the following literature review.

2.1.1 Feedback Seeking in Organizations

An article by Ashford and Cummings in 1983 laid the foundation for research on employee feedback seeking. In this article, Ashford and Cummings defined feedback seeking concept as "conscious devotion of effort toward determining the correctness and adequacy of behaviors for attaining valued end states" (pp. 378-390). To clarify this definition, Ashford and Cummings listed the situations in which employees are more likely to seek feedback. They proposed that individuals are more likely to seek feedback to reduce uncertainty about what goals to pursue, to understand what behaviors are required to achieve the goals, to learn how their behaviors are being evaluated by others, and to achieve sense of competency.

After Ashford and Cummings's (1983) article, other researchers started to investigate the antecedents and consequences of feedback seeking behaviors. In these studies, researchers either investigated attitudinal aspects (the motives for seeking feedback) (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Battman, 1988) or behavioral aspects of feedback seeking concept (from whom to seek feedback, in what frequency to seek feedback, etc.) (e.g., Fedor, Mathieson, & Adams, 1990; Larson, 1989). In a number of studies, both attitudinal and behavioral factors were considered to see whether certain attitudes were related to certain feedback seeking behaviors (e.g., Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). To better understand the feedback seeking mechanism, the attitudinal and behavioral aspects of feedback seeking need to be examined closely.

2.1.2 Attitudinal / Motivational Aspects of Feedback Seeking

Because feedback is valuable, people often proactively seek it from others rather than passively wait for it. In this active information search, however, people may have different motives. Some people may seek feedback in order to make others aware of their good performance; whereas others may seek it in order to understand their mistakes and obtain diagnostic information. These different

motives may affect when (after good or bad performance), from whom (from supervisor or peers), and how people search for feedback (by asking questions or monitoring). Realizing this fact, many researchers first tried to understand what induces people to search for (or not search for) feedback. In their studies, researchers gave different names to feedback seeking motives, but they conceptualized these motives quite similarly.

In the following paragraphs, the findings of previous studies will be summarized. The similarities and differences regarding the conceptualization of motives will be explained.

2.1.2.1. Motives Proposed by Ashford and Cummings

In their studies, Ashford and Cummings (1983) and later Morrison and Bies (1991) mentioned about three different motives that may instigate certain feedback seeking behaviors. These are *desire for useful information*, which is related to instrumental value of feedback; *desire to protect ego and self esteem from the threat of negative feedback*, which is related to the self protection motives of people; and *desire to control the impressions of others*, which involves both defensive and assertive impression management desires.

2.1.2.1.1. Desire for Useful Information Motive

According to Ashford and Cummings (1983), individuals are motivated to seek feedback from relevant others because feedback can give information about goals worth pursuing, likely rewards associated with goal attainment, behaviors most relevant to goal attainment, and the evaluation of the performance. Because of the instrumental value of feedback, many researchers (e.g., Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Battman, 1988) claim that people have a desire for obtaining useful information and this desire increases their propensity of feedback seeking. Studies conducted so far have supported this claim because there is evidence

consistent with feedback seeking being motivated by the desire for useful information (Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002). For example, in one study by Ashford and Cummings (1985), individuals experiencing high job involvement and role ambiguity reported a higher desire for obtaining useful information and more frequent feedback seeking as compared to other individuals not experiencing such feelings. This and many other studies (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995) focusing on motives for seeking feedback found desire for useful information as a major motive in feedback seeking.

2.1.2.1.2. Desire for Protecting Ego and Self Esteem

Although accurate self relevant information is more instrumental for attaining goals and achieving desired outcomes, people appear to have an overwhelming preference for favorable information about themselves that help them maintain a positive self view (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). With this self enhancing motive, people may avoid (e.g., Ashford & Cummings, 1983), distort (e.g., Morrison & Cummings, 1992), or deemphasize the value of feedback (e.g., Roberson, Deitch, Brief, & Block, 2003) if they feel that feedback can hurt their pride and ego. For example, Northcraft and Ashford (1990) found that individuals with low performance expectations sought less feedback than those with high performance expectations, presumably to avoid the potential drop in self image associated with negative feedback. Similarly, in field studies with utility company employees and pilot trainees respectively, Ashford (1986) and Fedor, Rensvold, and Adams (1992) found negative relationship between self presentation cost and the frequency of feedback seeking behavior, and this suggests the existence of ego and self protection motives in feedback seeking.

2.1.2.1.3. Desire to Control Impressions

Lastly, Ashford and Cummings (1983) claimed that desire to control impressions in the eyes of others may lead people to engage (or not engage) in

feedback seeking behaviors. Consistent with this claim, several researchers (e.g., Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997) found impression management motive as a determinant of the frequency, timing, and target of the feedback seeking behaviors.

In the reviewed literature, impression management has been conceptualized under two categories as assertive and defensive impression management. According to this classification, people having defensive impression motives are thought to avoid creating negative impression. This avoidance was found to be related to increased nervousness and anxiety in the feedback receiving and seeking process (Northcraft & Ashford, 1992). For people having this motive, public delivery of feedback pose significant risks because of the possible negative feedback that may be received. Studies assessing such concerns have shown that public requests for feedback (e.g., Northcraft & Ashford, 1992; Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990) and public delivery of feedback (e.g., Northcraft & Ashford, 1990) inhibit feedback seeking, especially when performance expectations were low. People having defensive impression motives were more likely to inhibit their explicit feedback seeking activities when public feedback was given (Northcraft, & Ashford, 1990).

In their review article, Ashford, VandeWalle, and Blant (2003) asserted that in public contexts, individuals weigh the instrumental or ego benefits of feedback against potential image costs. According to Ashford et al., employees are quite motivated not to publicly reveal things that could hurt their image despite the instrumental value of feedback. Thus, when individuals fear that feedback will damage their images, they may sacrifice the instrumental benefits of that feedback (Northcraft & Ashford, 1990, 1992)

However, as indicated above, image considerations need not be strictly defensive. Morrison and Bies (1991) argue that individuals' images can be enhanced as well as harmed by feedback seeking. They proposed that individuals sometimes attempt to enhance their images by seeking positive feedback even if it has no instrumental value. For example, people may seek additional feedback after a favorable performance review, or they may seek feedback from those with

whom they have a good relationship. These assertive impression management tactics may affect from whom, when, and how to seek feedback. For example, Ang, Cummings, Straub, and Earley (1993) found that employees solicited less feedback from a source they thought was in a bad, as opposed to good, mood probably because they expected information to be more negative and threatening to their images. Similarly, Northcraft & Ashford (1992) found that people employing assertive impression management tactics experienced less nervousness and showed increased interest in seeking performance feedback.

2.1.2.2. Motives Proposed by Swann, Pelham and Krull

Like Ashford and Cummings (1983), Swann, Pelham, and Krull (1989) also talked about the motives that may instigate feedback seeking behaviors. Though they named these motives differently, their descriptions were quite similar to those of Ashford and Cummings.

Swann, Pelham, and Krull (1989) mentioned about two motives that might affect the feedback seeking behaviors of people. These motives are *self-enhancement* and *self-verification* motives. According to these researchers, whether people search for favorable or unfavorable feedback depends on their self-enhancement and self-verification desires. Self-enhancement motive is based on the self-enhancement theory, which assumes that all people have a desire to increase their feelings of personal worth. People having self-enhancement motives are expected to increase their feedback seeking efforts when they perform well, and decrease their efforts when they perform poorly.

The other motive, which is self-verification motive, is based on self-verification theory. This theory claims that people strive to confirm their self-conceptions, even if those self-conceptions are negative (Lecky, 1961). People seek subjectively accurate or self-verifying feedback because feedback that confirms their self conceptions fortifies their feelings of confidence. People avoid feedback that disconfirms their self-conceptions because such feedback signals these people that they do not know themselves (Swann, Pelham, & Krull, 1989).

These two motives (self-enhancement and self-verification) predict that people with positive self views strive to maintain such views (Swann, Griffin, Predmore, & Gaines, 1987) and search for feedback when they expect positive evaluations. People having self-enhancement motive are expected to seek feedback to hear positive evaluations; people having self-verification motive are expected to seek feedback to hear evaluations consistent with their self evaluations. However, these two motives make competing predictions regarding people with negative self-views. Self-verification theorists assume that people with negative self concepts prefer negative feedback because it is predictable and consistent; whereas self enhancement theorists assume that such people avoid negative feedback and prefer positive ones because they want to think well of themselves (Swann, Griffin, Predmore, & Gaines, 1987).

Studies investigating this controversy reached inconclusive results, which made one motive not superior to the other one. Some studies showed that desire to self-verify could influence the way people interpret feedback and their desire for seeking feedback. In these studies, people were found to ask for feedback that confirms their self views (e.g. Coyne, Kessler, Tal, Turnbull, Wortman, Greden, 1987; Swann; Krull & Pelham, 1989; Swann & Read, 1991) and tend to regard confirming feedback as more accurate, plausible and diagnostic (e.g., Swann, Griffin, Predmore & Gaines, 1987). Despite the supporting evidence, accepting self-verification motive as the sole determinant of feedback seeking behavior does not seem right. For example, Moreland and Sweeney (1984) found that people with low self-esteem generally regarded positive feedback as more self-descriptive than negative feedback. According to this finding, it is reasonable to expect low self esteem people to seek positive feedback and avoid negative ones, as proposed by self-enhancement theorists.

Considering these conflicting results, Swann, Pelham, and Krull (1989) claimed that it was more reasonable to expect these two motives to be functional. Accordingly, people are expected to be motivated for self-enhancement and self-verification and they work to satisfy both motives. Swan et al. tested this assumption with three studies. They found that people who sought favorable feedback pertaining to their positive self-conceptions sought unfavorable feedback

pertaining to their negative self-conceptions. In these three studies, all people preferred to seek feedback regarding their positive self views (consistent with self-enhancement motive), yet, this preference did not reflect itself on feedback seeking behaviors. It was found that when people wanted to seek feedback regarding their negative self views, they sought unfavorable feedback, not favorable one.

The studies of Swann and his colleagues (i.e., Swann, Pelham & Krull, 1989; Swann, Griffin, Predmore, & Gaines, 1987; Swann, Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992) suggested that both self-verification and self-enhancement motives might affect the feedback seeking behaviors of people. The self-enhancement motive mentioned in Swann and colleagues' studies resembles the desire for ego protection and assertive impression management motives proposed by Ashford and Cummings (1983). In fact, this motive seems to combine ego protection and assertive impression management motives. The other motive, self-verification motive, does not resemble any of the motives proposed by Ashford and Cummings. Yet, it is consistent with the desire for obtaining accurate evaluation.

Though self-enhancement and self-verification motives give important insights about feedback seeking processes, three motives listed by Ashford and Cummings (1983) are accepted as important determinants of feedback seeking efforts in the literature. In other words, there is an agreement regarding the motives that prompt people to seek feedback. In this study, motives for feedback seeking are measured with three motives (i.e., desire for useful information, desire to control impression management, and desire to control impression motives) listed by Ashford and Cummings.

2.1.3. Behavioral Side of Feedback Seeking

When a person is motivated to seek feedback, that person has to decide about several issues. These issues are related to how often s/he will seek feedback (*frequency of feedback seeking*), from whom to seek feedback (*target of feedback seeking*), how to seek feedback (*method used to seek feedback*: observing, comparing or directly asking), when to seek feedback *(timing of seeking*

feedback), and about what topic to seek feedback (*topic on which the feedback is sought*: on successes, failures or certain aspects of performance). Each of these feedback-seeking patterns represents a decision that individuals make regarding how to obtain feedback information in a manner that most advances their goals (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). In the following sections, literature about the frequency and methods of feedback seeking are discussed. Other feedback seeking issues (i.e., timing of feedback seeking, and topic on which the feedback is sought) are not discussed in this section because they are not tested in this study. Interested readers could read the articles of Miller and Jablin (1991), and Larson (1989) for detailed discussion of topic and timing of feedback seeking.

2.1.3.1. Frequency / Likelihood of Feedback Seeking

Frequency of feedback seeking is related to how often people directly ask for feedback or monitor environment to gather information. This feedback seeking pattern is affected by several individual and situational factors which have been investigated in different studies.

Ashford (1986) listed nine factors that may inhibit or facilitate feedback seeking (i.e., importance of goal attainment, degree of uncertainty, organizational tenure, job tenure, negative beliefs about goal attainment, self confidence, effort in seeking feedback, risks and amount of feedback recently received). Ashford investigated the effects of these nine factors on likelihood of feedback seeking. Results of her study demonstrated that while self confidence and negative beliefs about goal attainment increased the frequency of feedback seeking, organizational tenure decreased the observed frequency. Other listed factors yielded inconclusive results. In this study, perceived value of feedback was listed as primary determinant of frequency of active feedback seeking because individuals who regard feedback valuable reported more active and frequent feedback seeking.

Besides Ashford (1986), Fedor, Rensvold, and Adams (1992) investigated the factors that may affect the frequency of feedback seeking. The effects of tolerance for ambiguity and self-esteem were analyzed and tolerance for

ambiguity was found to be negatively related to frequency of feedback seeking. Self esteem, on the other hand, was found to be positively related to feedback seeking frequency but its effect could not approach the desired significance level.

Previous research has also suggested that the publicness of the feedback seeking context influences the degree to which individuals seek performance feedback (Northcraft & Ashford, 1992; Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995). In these studies, publicness of the feedback reduced people's tendency to seek feedback. However, in a more recent study, Williams, Steelman, Miller, and Levy (1999) found that supportiveness of source and peer reactions may lessen the detrimental effects of publicness on frequency of feedback seeking. According to Williams et al., the frequency of feedback seeking can be increased substantially in a public setting if the supportiveness of peers and supervisors are high.

2.1.3.2. Methods of Feedback Seeking

While seeking information or feedback, people use different methods (tactics) depending on their aims, values, and perceptions (Fedor, Mathieson, & Adams, 1990). These methods differ with respect to their overtness, and the specificity of the information provided. In the following section, the definitions and the characteristics of these methods are presented.

2.1.3.2.1. Definitions and Characteristics of Feedback Seeking Methods

Many researchers mentioned about two methods by which individuals seek feedback (e.g., Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003; Vancouver, & Morrison, 1995). These methods are direct inquiry and monitoring. Direct inquiry involves explicit verbal requests for feedback. Individuals using this tactic ask questions in order to obtain the needed information. Monitoring, on the other hand, is an indirect method of feedback seeking. It involves observing aspects of the

environment, particularly other people, that provide indications of how one is doing, how one compares to others (e.g., Festinger, 1954), and what other people think of oneself (e.g., Jones & Gerard, 1967). From these observations, a feedback message is extracted (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003).

Individuals may prefer seeking feedback through direct inquiry because this method provides opportunities to clarify potential ambiguities in messages received (Miller & Jablin, 1991). However, inquiry exposes the seeker's uncertainty and need for help. It may draw attention to deficiencies, which makes this feedback seeking method ego and image threatening. As a covert feedback seeking tactic, monitoring reduces these image and ego costs substantially. Yet, since information is inferred from nonverbal behaviors of the supervisors and peers, the quality of interpretation determines the quality of feedback gathered in monitoring.

Although direct inquiry and monitoring are regarded as two prominent methods of feedback seeking, Miller and Jablin (1991) mentioned about other feedback seeking methods as well. One of these methods was *"indirect inquiry"*, which involves asking indirect questions to supervisors or peers. Indirect inquiry is typically used when people are uncomfortable in seeking information from a source. This is a 'face saving' tactic, which reduces potential image costs involved in overt feedback seeking attempts. However, there are potential risks associated with indirect inquiry. First of all, information targets may not be responsive to indirect questions thus may not give relevant information. Second, veiled information-seeking attempts may be regarded unfavorably by information targets (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

The other method mentioned by Miller and Jablin was *"testing limits"*. People using this tactic create situations to which information targets must respond. Targets' responses are monitored in an attempt to gain insight into targets' attitudes toward particular behaviors or issues. Though testing limits provides information about work rules and relationships, this tactic may incur great costs to the information seeker because target may develop negative feelings and evaluations about his/her behaviors (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Indirect inquiry

and testing limits have not been tested in previous studies, therefore, factors affecting the choice of these methods are not known.

In addition to direct inquiry, indirect inquiry, and monitoring, individuals may obtain feedback by requesting third parties to seek feedback on behalf of them. In the literature, third party feedback seeking was not mentioned as a method of feedback seeking probably because this method was not commonly used in Western societies, in which direct communication was preferred to communication through intermediaries. However, third party feedback seeking is expected to be effective for Turkish organizations. Though there is no study that has been conducted to test this hypothesis directly, a recent study conducted by Kozan and Ergin (1999) demonstrated the importance of third party involvement for Turkish employees. In this study, third parties were found to be active participants of conflict management process. Considerable percentage of participants (about 38% of all participants) indicated that they requested third party to be involved in the resolution of the conflicts. This finding clearly demonstrates the role and importance of third parties for Turkish organizations. Considering the importance of third parties and collectivistic nature of Turkish culture, it is reasonable to expect Turkish employees to ask indirect questions and use third parties to seek information. Therefore, in this study, participants were asked to indicate how often they would seek feedback through indirect inquiry and third parties.

2.1.3.2.2. *Factors Affecting the Choice of Feedback Seeking Method*

As indicated before, individuals seek feedback using different methods. For about twenty years, researchers (e.g. Ashford, 1986; Fedor, Mathieson, & Adams, 1990) have been trying to determine what factors are effective in these method selections. Fedor, Rensvold, and Adams (1992) tried to identify the factors that might affect the use of direct inquiry and monitoring in a longitudinal study. They asserted that both individual and situational characteristics could affect people's decisions regarding how to seek feedback. Specifically, tolerance

for ambiguity, self esteem and external propensity were used as individual difference predictors whereas source credibility, feedback seeking costs, feedback-related uncertainty and expected performance level were used as situational predictors of feedback seeking behaviors. In this study, feedback seeking costs, feedback-related uncertainty, self esteem and tolerance for ambiguity were found to be negatively related whereas feedback source credibility and external propensity were found to be positively related with direct inquiry. The same set of factors was used to predict the preferences for monitoring. Accordingly, feedback uncertainty, feedback seeking costs, source credibility and external propensity were all found to be positively related to the use of monitoring strategy whereas performance level and tolerance for ambiguity were found to be negatively related to this strategy (Fedor, Rensvold, & Adams, 1992).

In all studies reviewed in this section, the perceived cost of feedback seeking was found to be the major determinant of whether people will use direct inquiry or monitoring. But increasing the diagnostic values of the feedback may encourage people to use direct inquiry even when risk of embarrassment and failure is high. Therefore, individual and situational characteristics should be taken into account before attempting to predict whether a particular person will directly ask questions or monitor environment.

2.2. GOAL ORIENTATION AS A DETERMINANT OF FEEDBACK SEEKING

Goal orientation is a major variable of interest in the present study. For this reason, the meaning, dimensions and important concepts about goal orientation are discussed briefly in this section. Its relevance with feedback seeking concept, however, are discussed in the following parts of literature review.

2.2.1 Definition and Dimensions of the Goal Orientation

Goal orientation refers to an individual's orientation toward different types of goals in achievement situations (e.g., Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988;

Nicholls, 1984). It is an individual difference construct that has been shown to influence performance expectations, task choice, persistence, effort and reactions to failure (e.g., VandeWalle, Cron & Slocum, 2001; Farr, Hofmann & Ringenbach, 1993).

Many studies identified two major types of goals and uncovered the characteristics of the people having these goals. In one of the early studies, Nicholls (1984) compared individuals who are ego involved with those who are task involved. In this study, ego-involved individuals evaluated their own ability in terms of their effort or performance relative to others'; whereas task involved individuals evaluated their ability relative to their own past ability and gains toward mastery of the task.

In the later studies, Dweck (1986) distinguished people with respect to their achievement related goals. Accordingly, she made a distinction between learning and performance goals. For people having learning goals, the aim is to increase their competence and/or learn something new, whereas for people having performance goals aim is to demonstrate competence or avoid negative judgments. In their studies, Ames and Archer (1987) argued that different conceptualizations of goals were similar enough to refer them by one distinction-mastery goals, which focus on developing competence and mastering a new task, versus performance goals, which focus on demonstrating ability in comparison to others and avoiding negative judgments.

As it can be realized, early studies operationalized goal orientation as a unidimensional construct with opposing poles of strong learning-orientation and strong performance-goal orientation. But recent studies found that these two orientations are neither mutually exclusive nor contradictory (e.g., VandeWalle, 2001; Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Individuals can be high or low on both orientations depending on the tasks they are engaging.

Although in majority of the studies goal orientation has been operationalized as learning and performance orientation, in more recent studies (e.g. VandeWalle, 1997), goal orientation has been operationalized as a three dimensional construct. In this new conceptualization, performance goals are

divided into two components: *approach and avoidance*. People can show performance-prove orientation (the approach component) to prove their ability in comparison to others and attain favorable judgments of their competence (VandeWalle, 2001). Yet, rather than trying to prove themselves, people sometimes refrain from taking the opinions of other people in order not to display their incompetence and receive negative judgments from them. This orientation is named as performance-avoid orientation. In this new conceptualization, the meaning of mastery (or learning-goal orientation) remains the same. The only difference is that performance goal orientation is divided into two distinct parts considering the motives of people (defensive motives to protect image and assertive motives to enhance image).

In this thesis, goal orientation will be conceptualized as a three dimensional construct (i.e., learning-goal orientation, performance-avoid orientation, and performance-prove orientation) to capture the different motives of people in the feedback seeking process better.

2.2.2 Goal Orientation- Stable Trait versus Situational Characteristic

Past research suggests that goal orientation may be treated as either an individual trait or a situational characteristic (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Studies that measure the individual's orientation (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1987; Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Duda & Nicholls, 1992) implicitly assume that goal orientation is a stable trait. Dweck's definitions of performance and learning goal orientation suggest the existence of default orientation which guides individual's behaviors. In the later studies, however, researchers have observed that the value of learning and performance goals could be manipulated by changing the situation in which behavior occurs. Competitive reward structures (e.g., Ames, Ames, & Felker, 1977), the emphasis on social comparison information (e.g., Jagacinski & Nicholls, 1987), and the use of evaluative feedback (e.g., Butler, 1987) have all been shown to influence the type of goals adopted by individuals in a given setting (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996).

Button, Mathieu and Zajac (1996), suggests that goal orientation is best characterized as a somewhat stable individual difference variable that may be influenced by situational characteristics. According to this assertion, dispositional goal orientations predispose individuals to adopt particular response patterns across situations, but situational characteristics may cause them to adopt a different or less acute response pattern for a particular situation. In other words, when the situation offers weak cues as to what goals are favored, the trait goal preferences should govern behavior. If, however, the situation offers strong cues, trait goal preferences can be overridden by the situational cues (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). In the present study, goal orientation was conceptualized as a disposition.

2.2.3 Significance of the Goal Orientation Construct

Regardless of the conceptualization used (trait versus situational, one-dimensional versus multidimensional), understanding goal orientations of people is important because goal orientation affects how individuals interpret and respond to achievement situations. According to Dweck and Leggett (1998), individuals with performance-goal orientation tend to hold an *"entity theory"* about their ability. They see their abilities as fixed and uncontrollable attributes. Yet, individuals with learning goal orientation tend to hold an *"incremental theory"* about their ability and they view ability as a malleable attribute that can be developed through effort, training, and experience. This distinction affects the persistence and the efforts of individuals when they face with challenging tasks or failure.

Performance oriented people differ from learning oriented people regarding how they view effort expenditures. Learning oriented people believe that effort leads to success. Exerting effort is necessary for activating current ability for task achievement and developing that ability for future task mastery (VandeWalle, 2001). Since performance oriented people perceive ability as a

fixed attribute, they believe that exerting effort is not an effective mean to develop the ability needed for task mastery.

In addition to effort and ability perceptions, goal orientation influences how individuals respond to task difficulty or task failure (e.g., Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). According to some researchers, learning goal orientation leads an adaptive response pattern by increasing persistence and effort exerted. These people view effort on a challenging task as instrumental to achieving the desired personal development. Performance-goal oriented people, however may exhibit maladaptive response patterns by withdrawing from task, making negative ability attributions and reporting decreased interest in the task (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). However, people with a performance goal orientation may exhibit adaptive response patterns as people with a learning goal orientation do. Depending on their perceived self-efficacy levels, these individuals may seek challenge and show persistence in the face of difficulty (e.g., Dweck, 1986). So it is impossible to make firm judgments regarding the effects of performance or learning goal orientation without considering other situational and individual differences factors.

2.2.4. Goal Orientation in Organizational Setting

Goal orientation is a construct that originated from the studies in educational sciences. However, as number of theorists have suggested (e.g., Bobko & Collella, 1994; Farr, Hoffmann & Ringenbach, 1993), goal orientation holds great promise for application in organizational research. Farr et al (1993) proposed that goal orientation may be profitably incorporated into the design and implementation of training programs, the administration of performance appraisal systems and the methods by which role innovations are encouraged (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996).

Goal orientation may have an important impact on the on the self-regulatory processes that influence job performance over time. Strong performance goal orientation may be associated with a reluctance to increase

performance goals across performance episodes (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). In order to create and maintain positive self view, performance-goal oriented employees may not elevate their goals for the future even if they are successful at a particular task. Learning goal orientation, on the other hand, may lead employees to rapidly increase their personal goals.

Goal orientation may also influence individuals' affective, cognitive and behavioral reactions to performance appraisal feedback (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Performance goal orientation may be associated with a tendency to view negative feedback as an indication of low ability. Negative feedback may result in reduced effort and withdrawal from the activity. In contrast to performance-goal orientation, a learning-goal orientation may be associated with a tendency to view negative feedback as information concerning how to develop task mastery. This instrumental value may result in increased levels of effort and goal levels (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996).

As indicated above, learning goal orientation may also have a number of implications for the design and implementation of training programs. Goal orientation may affect the employee's level of motivation to participate in the training program, performance in the program, and the degree to which the trained knowledge and skills are transferred to the job setting (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Performance goal orientation may affect willingness to participate in training programs adversely if participation is perceived as a sign from management that one's job performance is not satisfactory (Farr et al, 1993). In the training setting, a performance goal orientation might be associated with defensive behavior if the training activities publicly reveal incompetence and bring negative evaluations from others (Farr & Middlebrooks, 1990). As opposed to performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation was suggested to be positively associated with one's willingness to participate in training.

Almost all of the literature reviewed in this section presents performance goal orientation as maladaptive for organizational settings. This point of view is incomplete and incorrect because it ignores the fact that every employee must achieve certain performance standards, production schedules and deadlines

(Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). For the sake of the survival of organizations, performance goal oriented people are needed.

2.2.5. The Relationship between Goal Orientation and Attitudinal Aspects of Feedback Seeking

When seeking feedback, individuals face the prospect of receiving negative feedback. Though negative feedback is valuable for identifying ineffective behaviors and substandard performance levels (Taylor, Fisher & Ilgen, 1984), it can be undesirable to receive because of its self presentation and ego costs. VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) proposed that the goal preferences and characteristic patterns associated with learning and performance goal orientations may explain why individuals differently weigh the cost and the value of feedback.

Because performance oriented individuals view effort as an indicator of low ability, they may regard the feedback seeking efforts, especially the efforts for seeking diagnostic feedback as an indication of low ability. They may reason that high ability people would not need to seek such a help (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). For these people, the self-presentation cost of feedback seeking is high because feedback may draw attention to deficiencies. As opposed to performance goal oriented people, learning goal oriented people see feedback useful for improving performance and developing ability (VandeWalle, 1997). For these people, feedback seeking has a high instrumental value because the feedback received can indicate how to change their behavior to improve performance.

VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) tested the influence of goal orientation on feedback seeking behaviors of students with a longitudinal field study and a scenario study. The results of these two studies demonstrated positive relationship between learning-goal orientation and feedback seeking and negative relationship between performance-goal orientation and feedback seeking. Perceived cost and value of feedback seeking were found to mediate the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking efforts. Based on these findings, VandeWalle

and Cummings (1997) concluded that likelihood of feedback seeking increased as learning goal orientation became greater than the performance-goal orientation.

Like VandeWalle and Cummings (1997), Tuckey et al. also tried to uncover the factors affecting the frequency of feedback seeking. Rather than asking value and cost perceptions of participants, they tried to investigate the role of motives on goal orientation and feedback seeking linkage. More specifically, Tuckey et al. (2002) hypothesized that the motives (desire for useful information, desire for protecting ego and desire for protecting/ enhancing image) mediate the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking. They claimed that learning oriented individuals should show a strong desire for useful information because they are focused on improving performance and willing to exert effort to do so. In contrast, performance oriented people are less likely to believe that useful information can be obtained because they see ability as fixed. (Tuckey et al., 2002). In this study, Tuckey et al. partially supported these hypotheses but they presumably underestimated the feedback seeking reported because they did not consider the important type of feedback seeking, which is monitoring. They acknowledged that the patterns of relationships might change if both modes of feedback seeking were included.

In short, individuals seek feedback for different reasons: Learning oriented individuals may seek feedback to enhance personal development, whereas performance-oriented seek feedback to prove their abilities to others. As Ashford, Blatt, and VandeWalle (2003) state in their article, goal orientation appears to be an excellent candidate to explain how and why individuals differ in their use of feedback seeking behaviors.

2.3. SELF-EFFICACY AND FEEDBACK SEEKING

As indicated before, this study investigates whether the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking motives is affected by self-efficacy levels. In order to clarify the rationale for this proposed relationship, previous studies are presented in this section.

2.3.1 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as *'people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances'* (Bandura, 1997, p. 391). Previous studies (e.g., Bandura & Cervone, 1983; Brown & Inouye, 1978, Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984) demonstrated that self-efficacy beliefs affect every aspect of people's lives- whether they think productively or self-debilitatingly; how well they motivate themselves and persist in face of adversities and the life choices they make.

Self-efficacy plays a major role in keeping individuals committed to a course of action, especially when obstacles or setbacks to goal attainment are encountered. Individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to engage in goal directed behavior such as seeking task relevant information (e.g., Brown, Ganesan, Challagalla, 2001) and persisting despite difficulty (e.g., Bandura & Cervone, 1983). Employees with high self-efficacy may better able to seek, integrate and interpret information because they are more focused on task requirements and less distracted by performance anxiety and off-task cognitions (Bandura, 1997). In contrast, individuals with low self-efficacy may solicit information that is consistent with their evaluations of themselves (Swann, 1985) and disregard the positive feedback (Brown, Ganesan, Challagalla, 2001). Brown, Ganesan, Challagalla (2001) demonstrated that compared to employees with low self-efficacy, those with high self-efficacy were better able to effectively use the combination of inquiry and monitoring to clarify role expectations. This suggests that high self-efficacy enables effective self-regulation through proactive feedback seeking. Considering these results, the effect of self-efficacy on feedback seeking was decided to be included in the present study. In the following section, literature about the interaction of goal orientation and self-efficacy are presented in order to clarify the hypothesized role of self-efficacy on feedback seeking.

2.3.2. Self-efficacy and Goal Orientation Linkage

In the literature, there is a tendency to see learning goal orientation as more favorable than performance goal orientation because a number of empirical studies have shown that a learning goal orientation is associated with more adaptive patterns of behavior, cognition and affect compared to a performance goal orientation (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Meece, Blumenfeld, & Hoyle, 1988). Despite Dweck and her colleagues (1988) reported results supporting this general belief, they did not conclude that learning goal orientation was superior to performance goal orientation in their writings. Dweck (1986) emphasizes the fact that goals affect subsequent behavior depending on the level of an individual's perceived ability (i.e., self-efficacy).

In an experimental study in which goals were manipulated, Elliot and Dweck (1988) found that individuals under the learning goal orientation displayed adaptive pattern regardless of the level of their perceived skill at performing the task. However the pattern exhibited by individuals under the performance goal condition depended on the level of their perceived skill. Individuals under performance goals condition who assessed their skill as high exhibited adaptive patterns; whereas those who assessed their skill as low exhibited maladaptive patterns. This finding suggests that perceived skill at performing the task may moderate the relationship between goal orientation and behavior (Kaplan & Midgley, 1997).

Yet, there has been some debate about the hypothesized interaction between perceived skill (self-efficacy) and goal orientation. Miller, Behrens, Greene, and Newman, 1993) claimed that pursuing performance goals would result in maladaptive responses regardless of their self-efficacy levels. They found that students with performance goals and high perceived ability did not exhibit more adaptive behaviors than those with low perceived ability. On the contrary, students with performance goals and high perceived ability reported the lowest levels of self monitoring, which is one of the most important indicators of self regulation and adaptive response. These results seem to contradict with the hypotheses and findings of Dweck and her colleagues (1988). Consistent with the

findings of Miller et al. (1993), Kaplan and Midgley (1997) found only little support for the role of perceived competence as a moderator between performance goals and patterns of behavior. Contrary to Dweck's theory, they found some evidence that perceived competence moderated the relation between learning goals and behavior (Kaplan & Midgley, 1997). Despite these contradictions, it is incorrect to accept Dweck's hypothesis as invalid because these studies have different methodologies that make comparison and conclusion impossible.

If goal orientation interacts with self-efficacy as Dweck (1986) suggests, feedback seeking efforts, as being adaptive responses of people, may be affected by the interaction of goal orientation with self-efficacy. So far, none of the studies have investigated the goal orientation, self-efficacy and feedback seeking linkage. In the present study, the impact of goal orientation and self-efficacy on longing for feedback and specific feedback seeking methods has been investigated.

2.4. FEEDBACK SIGN AND FEEDBACK SEEKING

Individuals exert effort to obtain feedback because feedback is a valuable resource. It is valuable because it can be used to reduce uncertainty about how well one is performing, to diagnose performance problems, and to self evaluate one's capabilities (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). There is more to performance feedback, however, than its informational content. Because feedback refers to oneself, it has an inherent affective quality; consequently, individuals react differently to feedback than to other types of information (Morrison & Cummings, 1992). Some studies found that individuals seek (or avoid) feedback considering the valence of feedback, not considering the content of it (e.g. Ilgen & Hamstra; Johnson & Nawrocki, cited in Morrison & Cummings, 1992). Individuals seem to be sensitive about the sign of the feedback: They tend to avoid negative information about themselves in order to protect their self esteem (e.g., Carver, Antonio, & Scheier, 1985; Conolley, Gerard, & Kline, 1978; Sachs, 1982) or purposefully try to obtain positive feedback about themselves in order to enhance their self esteem (e.g., Festinger, 1954; Gruder, 1977).

As Ashford and Cummings (1983) indicated, the desire to seek performance feedback depends in large part on whether the seeker expects the feedback to be favorable. This creates a conflict for individuals who believe they are performing poorly- a conflict between the desire to obtain diagnostic information (to improve their performance) and the desire to protect their self esteem by avoiding negative information about themselves (Morrison & Cummings, 1992). Studies investigating this conflict yielded mixed results. Some studies found that individuals are motivated most strongly by the desire to obtain diagnostic information about their abilities and performance (e.g., Trope, 1975; Trope & Bassock, 1982). Other studies, however, found that desire for protecting self esteem takes precedence and becomes more salient motive for people (e.g. Meyer & Starke, 1982; Sachs, 1982; Swann & Read, 1981). Depending on the expected feedback sign, individuals could increase or decrease their feedback search or use more defensive methods such as monitoring or indirect inquiry or an aggressive method such as direct inquiry. Considering this possibility, in the present study, the relationship between motives and feedback seeking behaviors are examined separately for negative and positive scenarios, which are written to create negative or positive feedback expectancy.

2.5. PRESENT STUDY

This study examines the effects of individual and situational variables on feedback seeking motives and behaviors of individuals. Learning-goal, performance-prove and performance-avoid orientations are expected to activate motives for feedback seeking (i.e., desire for useful information, desire for ego protection, and impression management motives). However, the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking motives is expected to be moderated by self-efficacy because self-efficacy may influence the perceptions of the cost and value of feedback and make one motive salient for individuals. Motives, on the other hand, are expected to influence the feedback seeking behaviors of individuals (i.e., individuals' longing for feedback seeking and the

way they search for feedback). As indicated before, while investigating the hypothesized relations between motives and feedback seeking behaviors, the effect of feedback sign is taken into account because individuals may behave differently when expecting negative or positive feedback.

In this study, *"longing for feedback"* reflects individuals' desire to exert effort for obtaining feedback. In addition to longing for feedback, in the present study, five feedback seeking methods are tested: direct inquiry from supervisors, direct inquiry from peers, monitoring supervisors, indirect inquiry, and third party feedback seeking.

2.5.1. HYPOTHESES

In this section, hypotheses of the study are presented under separate headings to be able to specify the expected relations between feedback sign, goal orientation, self-efficacy, motives, and feedback seeking behaviors.

2.5.1.1. Hypotheses Regarding Goal Orientation and Motives for Feedback Seeking

As indicated before, learning-oriented people give importance to acquiring new skills and gaining mastery in new situations. Any information that helps them to acquire new skills and gain mastery has an instrumental value for learning oriented people. So, a positive relationship between learning goal orientation and the desire for useful information is expected:

Hypothesis 1a: Learning goal orientation predicts (positively) desire for useful information.

Learning oriented people are not expected to be concerned about the negative evaluation that might be received in the feedback process because their

major priority is not to protect their ego or enhance their image but to learn new skills and gain mastery. Considering the priorities of these people, it is hypothesized that learning oriented people are motivated to seek feedback because they desire useful information, not because they want to enhance their image or protect ego.

Hypothesis 1b: Learning goal orientation predicts (negatively) desire for ego protection and defensive impression management motives.

Performance-prove oriented people try to enhance their image by seeking feedback after outstanding or good performance. When their performance expectations are high, these people typically employ assertive impression management tactics to convey responsible and hard working image in the eyes of other people. Therefore, performance-prove orientation is expected to be positively associated with assertive impression management motive:

Hypothesis 2a: Performance-prove orientation predicts (positively) assertive impression management motive.

As Elliot and Dweck (1998) suggests, performance-prove oriented people may exhibit adaptive behaviors if they perceive their abilities high. People scoring high on performance-prove orientation, but low on self-efficacy may discredit the diagnostic value of feedback because they believe that they cannot change their performance. On the other hand, people scoring high on both performance-prove orientation and self-efficacy may give importance to diagnostic information in order to outperform others in the future. Self-efficacy is likely to act as a moderator of the relationship between performance-prove orientation and motives by affecting people's opinions about malleability of their abilities. Adaptive (i.e., desire for useful information motive) and maladaptive (i.e., desire to protect ego and defensive impression management) motives are expected to emerge depending on self-efficacy level.

Hypothesis 2b: Performance-prove orientation predicts (positively) desire for ego protection, and defensive impression management motives if person has low self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2c: Performance-prove orientation predicts (positively) desire for useful information if person has high self-efficacy.

People with performance-avoid orientation are focused on avoiding negative evaluations, not improving their abilities. These people are expected to be enthusiastic about protecting their ego and image, but reluctant about obtaining diagnostic information.

Hypothesis 3a: Performance-avoid orientation predicts (positively) desire to protect ego and defensive impression management.

Hypothesis 3b: Performance-avoid orientation predicts (negatively) desire for useful information motive.

2.5.1.2. Hypotheses Regarding Motives for Feedback Seeking and Feedback Seeking Behaviors

In the present study, participants read two scenarios which are written to create positive and negative performance expectancy in their minds. After reading each scenario, participants are asked to indicate how frequently they will demonstrate each feedback seeking behaviors. Depending on the expected feedback sign (i.e., positive feedback and negative feedback), motives (i.e., desire for ego protection, desire for useful information, or desire for impression management) may become more salient and effective on feedback seeking behaviors. Realizing this possibility, the relationships between motives and behaviors are hypothesized and tested for positive and negative scenarios separately.

2.5.1.2.1. Hypotheses Regarding Motives for Feedback Seeking and Longing for Feedback

Feedback has an instrumental value because it includes information about acceptable performance standards, role expectations, and rules. Feedback reduces uncertainty and provides guidance to people for achieving goals. Many studies showed that people are aware of the instrumental value of feedback and seek feedback unless they are motivated to protect their ego and impress other people. Evidence indicates that as the perceived diagnostic value of feedback increases, individuals will seek it more frequently. (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Battman, 1988; Morrison & Cummings, 1992; and Tuckey et al., 2002). Based on this evidence, desire for useful information is hypothesized to be positively related to longing for feedback, which reflects people's efforts to seek feedback.

Hypothesis 4: Desire for useful information predicts (positively) longing for feedback in both positive and negative performance scenarios.

Morrison and Bies (1991) claimed that people sometimes attempt to enhance their images by seeking positive feedback even though that feedback has no informational value. People employing assertive impression management strategies generally try to enhance their image in the eyes of other people. And these strategies are positively related to people's tendency to seek feedback. Hence:

Hypothesis 5: Assertive impression management predicts (positively) longing for feedback in positive performance scenario.

People's desire to protect their ego and image may affect their likelihood of seeking feedback even when expecting positive feedback. Therefore, ego protection and defensive impression management motives are expected to negatively affect people's efforts for seeking feedback:

Hypothesis 6: Desire for protecting ego and defensive impression motives predict (negatively) longing for feedback in both positive scenario and negative scenarios.

2.5.1.2.2. Hypotheses Regarding Motives for Feedback Seeking and Methods of Feedback Seeking

People having desire for useful information motive give importance to the diagnostic value of the feedback. For this reason, these people may use all feedback seeking methods without considering their image costs. Considering the findings of the studies that have investigated the motives for feedback seeking (see attitudinal aspects of feedback seeking), it is reasonable to expect desire for useful information motive to be related to all methods of feedback seeking.

Hypothesis 7: Desire for useful information predicts (positively) direct inquiry, indirect inquiry, monitoring, and third-party feedback seeking in both positive and negative scenarios.

People employing assertive impression management strategies try to enhance their image in the eyes of other people. By asking direct questions about their performance, people may highlight their superior performance. Therefore it is reasonable to expect assertive impression management strategies to be positively related to direct inquiry.

Hypothesis 8: Assertive impression management predicts (positively) direct inquiry in positive scenario.

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As indicated before, monitoring, third party feedback seeking, and indirect inquiry are less risky feedback seeking methods because they do not draw attention to poor performance (as direct inquiry do). People who want to protect

their ego or image may use these methods to obtain necessary feedback; therefore these three methods are expected to be positively related to desire for ego protection and defensive impression management motives.

Hypothesis 9: Desire for ego protection and defensive impression management motives predict (positively) monitoring, third party feedback seeking, and indirect inquiry in both positive and negative scenarios.

2.5.1.3. Hypotheses Regarding Mediating Role of Motives

People having a particular goal orientation may have different motives when expecting negative or positive feedback and these motives may affect their feedback seeking behaviors substantially. Since motives are argued to be important determinants of behaviors (e.g., Ajzen, 1991), they are expected to mediate the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors. In this section, the hypotheses about possible mediation are presented. While doing that, the effects of feedback sign on motives are taken into consideration.

Hypotheses about the mediating role of desire for useful information motive:

Hypothesis 10a: Desire for useful information mediates learning goal orientation and longing for feedback linkage in both positive and negative scenarios.

Hypothesis 10b: Desire for useful information mediates learning goal orientation and direct inquiry linkage in both positive and negative scenarios.

Hypotheses 10c and 10d are about the mediating role of assertive impression management motive:

Hypothesis 10c: Assertive impression management mediates performance-prove and longing for feedback linkage in the positive scenario.

Hypothesis 10d: Assertive impression management mediates performance-prove and direct inquiry linkage in the positive scenario.

Hypotheses 10e and 10g are about the mediating role of defensive impression management motive:

Hypothesis 10e: Desire to protect ego and defensive impression management motives mediate performance-avoid orientation and longing for feedback linkage in both the positive and the negative scenarios.

Hypothesis 10f: Desire to protect ego and defensive impression management motives mediate performance-avoid orientation and indirect inquiry, third party feedback seeking, monitoring supervisor linkages in both the positive and the negative scenarios.

Figure 2.3. presents a graphical representation of the hypotheses.
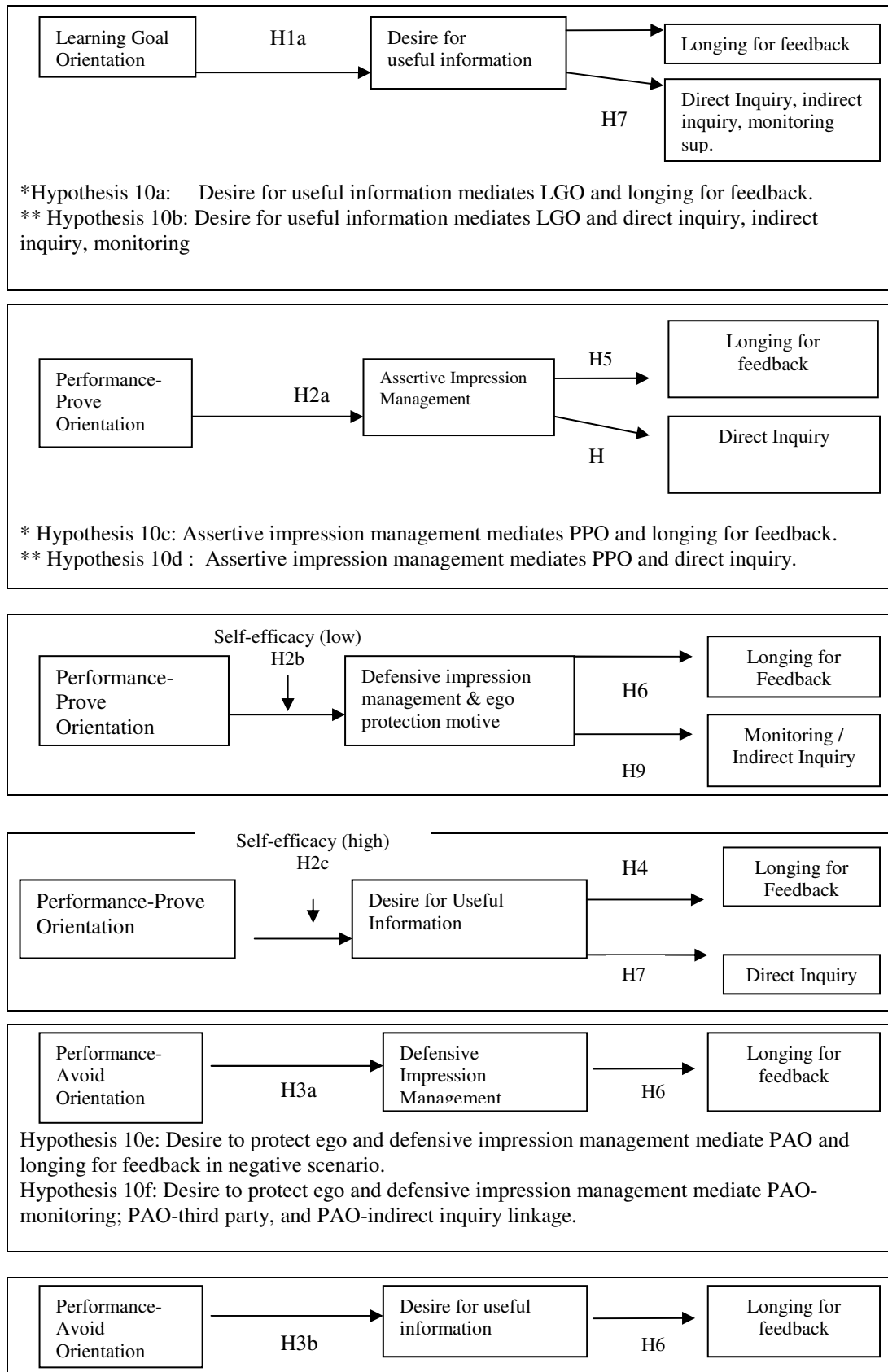
Figure 2.3. Graphical Representation of the Hypotheses.

2.5.1.4. Hypotheses Regarding Task Importance and Performance Level

Though there are no specific studies investigating the interaction between performance level and task importance, the following hypotheses are suggested considering the findings of the studies investigating the impact of feedback sign and diagnosticity of feedback (e.g., Morrison & Cummings, 1992). The diagnostic value of feedback for an important task is expected to be higher than the diagnostic value of feedback for an unimportant task because the consequences of poor performance in an important task are generally more severe. Therefore,

Hypothesis 11: People's longing for feedback is higher when they expect negative evaluation at an important task than when they expect negative evaluation at an unimportant task.

According to Ashford, Blatt, and VandeWalle (2003), instrumental motives (desire for useful information motive) dictate people to seek negative feedback, which is more diagnostic than positive feedback. By showing the mistakes, negative feedback may enable employees to improve their performance, which is not possible with positive feedback. Despite the diagnosticity of negative feedback, people may avoid seeking it because of image concerns or task characteristics. For unimportant tasks, the perceived usefulness of negative feedback may decline and people prefer seeking feedback only when they expect positive evaluation. For important tasks, however, the perceived usefulness of negative feedback may increase because mistakes at important tasks can be severe. Considering the possible interaction between task importance and diagnosticity of feedback, following hypothesis is developed.

Hypothesis 12: People's longing for feedback is higher when they expect negative evaluation than when they expect positive evaluation at an important task.

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Above hypotheses are related to possible interaction among task importance, performance-level, and longing for feedback. Although questions about specific feedback seeking methods were asked in the forth section of the survey (see Appendix E for the hypothetical situations and feedback seeking items), hypotheses were not developed regarding task importance, performance expectancy and specific feedback seeking methods relationships. However, exploratory analyses were conducted to examine the effects of task importance and performance expectancies on specific feedback seeking methods.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This study investigated the effects of individual (i.e., goal orientation and self-efficacy) and situational (i.e., feedback sign, performance level, task importance) factors on feedback seeking motives and behaviors of employees. In this chapter, sample characteristics, measures used, procedure followed and the analyses conducted are presented.

3.1. Sample

A total of 246 questionnaires were distributed to the employees of private- and state-owned companies operating in different industries in Turkey. Two hundred four questionnaires were returned by the respondents, constituting a 83 % response rate. Majority of the questionnaires were answered by the employees of Ziraat Bank (N = 40 with a response rate of 80%), Halk Bank (N = 39 with a response rate of 78 %). The remaining questionnaires were answered by the employees of private companies. Majority of the participants (N = 125) were working at private-owned companies, which were either banks, ground service providers or pharmaceutical firms. The remaining participants (N = 79) were working at public banks–Halk Bank and Ziraat Bank (see Table 3.1 for the company specific details and response rates).

Table .3.1. The Company Specific Details and Response Rates of Participants

Company name	The industry	Ownership	Number of questionnaires distributed	Response rate
Ziraat Bank	Finance (Banking)	State-owned bank	50	80 %
Halkbank	Finance (Banking)	State-owned bank	50	78 %
Akbank	Finance (Banking)	Private bank	35	90%
T.Ekonomi Bank	Finance (Banking)	Private bank	5	80%
MNG Bank	Finance (Banking)	Private bank	10	80%
A pharmaceutical company*	Pharmaceutical Company	Multinational, private company	16	100%
A pharmaceutical company*	Pharmaceutical Company	Multinational, private company	15	80%
A pharmaceutical company*	Pharmaceutical Company	Private company	5	100%
Havaş	Ground Service Provider	Private company	50	86%
Çelebi	Ground Service Provider	Private company	10	50%
			Total = 204	Return rate = 83%

Note. These pharmaceutical companies did not want their name to be disclosed.

Of the participants, 53.4 percent were female. The average age of the participants was 32.19 years with a mode of 28 years. The participants had high school (14.7%), occupation high school (7.4%), bachelor of science (70.1%) master (6.9%) or Ph. D (1.0%) degrees. The average tenure of the employees at the present company was 75.06 months (6.25 years), with a standard deviation of 79 months (6.58 years). The average of total tenure (number of years spent working) was 114.6 months (9.55 years), with a standard deviation of 81.8 months (6.82 years). The characteristics of the sample are presented in the Table 3.2.

All participants were white-collar employees, who had at least one supervisor and one peer from whom they could obtain feedback. Regardless of the company they were working for, all participants were responsible for providing services to customers and preparing reports if requested. In this respect, combining data from the employees of different companies and industries did not seem to be a problem. However, the effects of ownership and company type were controlled by dummy coding these variables.

Table 3.2. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample by Organization

	Ziraat Bank	Halk Bank	Akbank	TEB	MNG Bank	Havaş	Çelebi	A Pharmeceutical Company*	A Pharmeceutical Company*	A Pharmeceutical Company*	All Sample
Age											
Mean	34.4	37.26	33.16	27.50	31.88	27.51	24.40	30.25	31.62	29.00	32.19
Std. dev	6.96	6.60	8.19	0.58	3.60	3.98	0.89	4.99	4.26	1.87	6.87
Gender (freq)											
Female	21	18	19	3	4	24	5	8	4	3	109
Male.	19	21	12	1	4	19	-	8	8	2	95
Education (freq)											
High Sch.	4	10	1	-	-	14	-	-	1	-	30
Occ.H.sch	3	3	3	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	15
University	27	24	24	3	7	23	5	14	10	5	143
Master	6	1	3	1	-	-	-	2	1	-	14
Doctora	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2
Position Tenure											
Mean	113.0	131.3	62.10	31.50	70.87	32.53	8.80	43.81	64.92	24.20	75.06
Std. dev.	95.41	88	68.55	20.42	31.34	27.59	4.44	46.56	88.20	28.20	79.40
Total Tenure	147.20	164.1	119.23	45.00	108.00	82.21	16.80	81.81	99.42	43.20	114.60
Mean	87.19	86.9	88.29	18.00	43.97	49.47	10.73	56.74	76.02	34.31	81.84
Std. dev.											

Note. * These pharmaceutical companies did not want their name to be disclosed.

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3.2. Measures

The questionnaire package used in this study consisted of six sections. The details of these sections will be explained in the following parts. The whole package can be found in Appendices A, B, C, D, E, F, and G.

The First Section: Demographic Questionnaire

The first section included questions about demographic measures, namely, sex, age, and education, and questions about employment status, namely, tenure at the position and total tenure. The data obtained from this section was expected to provide important insights about the characteristics of the participants and served as important variables that could affect the feedback seeking motives and behaviors of employees (see Appendix A for demographic questionnaire).

The Second Section: Scenarios

The second section included two scenarios, which asked participants to imagine themselves in two hypothetical situations. Participants were asked to imagine that they were held responsible for completing certain tasks (for the first scenario, the task is writing a report; for second scenario, the task is preparing an analysis). Then, participants were presented with specific details about the task and informed that they finished the task somehow. After the information about tasks, participants were given some cues regarding their performance at these tasks. The aim for presenting these cues was to create performance expectancy in the minds of the participants. With this manipulation, the effects of performance expectancy thus the effects of expected feedback sign on feedback seeking behaviors were hoped to be understood.

Scenario 1:

In the first scenario, participants were asked to imagine themselves in a situation in which they were responsible for writing a report about an important subject. In order to see how performance expectancy affected feedback seeking behaviors, participants were given cues about their performance level. The scenario was written to create positive performance expectancy. (If the scenario was successful at creating such expectancy, participants would think that their report was good). In here, the performance expectancy for the report was not created by presenting the opinions of supervisors or peers; rather it was created by presenting the performance as the opinions of participants themselves.

After given cues about the performance level, participants were presented some choices, concerning the courses of actions to be taken, such as giving the report without asking the opinions of others or revising it considering the opinions of significant others or previous reports. After the scenario was presented, nine feedback seeking behaviors were listed and participants were asked to indicate how frequent they would demonstrate each of these behaviors.

The behaviors intended to measure the desire for feedback seeking (i.e. longing for feedback) and the propensity of using specific feedback seeking methods. To measure *"longing for feedback"*, participants were asked to indicate whether they would search for feedback or feel their feelings and opinions enough, and not seek feedback. Item measuring longing for feedback was not written to measure how people would seek feedback, rather written to measure people's desire for obtaining feedback. Other behavior items, however, were written to understand how people would seek feedback. They were intended to measure people's likelihood of seeking feedback through direct inquiry, monitoring, indirect inquiry, third parties. For example, monitoring, which is one of the most prominent feedback seeking methods, was framed as "I would observe the behaviors of my peers in order to learn how they evaluate my performance." Participants were expected to indicate the frequency with which they would show these behaviors (1 = Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Usually, and 5 =

Always). See Appendix B for Scenario 1, feedback seeking behaviors and the methods corresponding to these behaviors.

In order to understand whether the scenario was successful at creating positive performance expectancy as intended, one manipulation check item was added (i.e., What is the performance level in this report?"). With this item, participants were asked to indicate their performance expectancy for the report. The answers represents different performance levels (1 = Very bad; 2 = Bad; 3 = Neither bad, nor good; 4 = Good; 5 = Very good.). Since this scenario was intended to create positive performance expectancy, the average performance level was expected to be above 3 in order to use this scenario for the analyses.

Scenario 2:

In the second scenario, participants were asked to imagine that they were held responsible for preparing a complex analysis. As in the first scenario, participants were given cues about their performance level in order to see how performance expectancy affects their feedback seeking behaviors. This time, the scenario was written to create negative performance expectancy in participants. As in the first scenario, the performance expectancy for the analysis was not created by presenting the opinions of supervisors or peers; rather it was created by presenting the performance as the opinions of participants themselves.

After being presented with cues about the performance level, participants were presented with some choices, concerning courses of action to be taken, such as asking the opinions of supervisors or peers. Yet, they were reminded the fact that asking opinions of others might highlight their mistakes, which in turn might be reflected on their performance appraisals. Then, the participants were asked to indicate the frequency with which they would engage in seven feedback seeking behaviors listed.

As in Scenario 1, the behaviors in Scenario 2 intended to measure the feedback seeking desire (i.e., longing for feedback) and different feedback seeking methods. For example, one of the feedback seeking behaviors was "I would go to

my supervisor and ask what s/he thinks about my analysis." Feedback seeking methods rated by the participants were again direct inquiry from supervisor, direct inquiry from peers, indirect inquiry, inquiry through third parties, monitoring supervisor and monitoring peers. Participants chose one of the five alternatives to indicate the frequency with which they would show these behaviors using the same 5-point scale in Scenario 1 (see Appendix C for Scenario 2, feedback seeking behaviors and the methods corresponding to these behaviors).

In order to understand whether the scenario was successful at creating negative performance expectancy as intended, one manipulation check item was added (i.e., What is the performance level in this report?"). With this item, participants were asked to indicate their performance expectancy for the report on the same scale used in Scenario 1. Since this scenario was intended to create negative performance expectancy, the average performance level was expected to be 3 or less in order to be included in the analyses.

The Third Section: Self-Efficacy Scale

Self-efficacy was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerussalem (1992). This scale measures the general sense of self-efficacy which involves people's beliefs about their capability to perform novel or difficult tasks. Items are not domain-specific. For example, one of the items was "I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough". In the original version, these ten items were rated using a four-point Likert type scale (1 = Not at all true; 4 = Exactly true).

The scale was translated into 27 different languages, including Turkish. Although Yeşilay (1996) translated the scale into Turkish, she did not report the reliability estimate of the scale for the Turkish sample. However, other researchers reported the Cronbach Alpha values ranging from 0.76 to 0.90 (the majority in the high 0.80s) for different nations (e.g., Rimm & Jerussalem, 1999; Zhang & Schwarzer, 1995). In this study, the alpha coefficient was found to be .88 for this scale (see Analysis section for details).

However, for practical concerns, the scale of this measure was converted into 5-point Likert type scale because all the measures in this study used 5-point scale. The self-efficacy questionnaire is presented in Appendix D.

The Forth Section- Hypothetical Performance Episodes

In this section, four hypothetical situations were presented to the participants. Like the scenarios in the second section, these hypothetical situations were written to create performance expectancy in order to understand how performance level affected specific feedback seeking methods and desire for feedback. For this purpose, participants were given information about their performance levels in these hypothetical situations. Besides performance level, task importance was also manipulated in these situations. As in scenarios, participants were asked to indicate the frequency of demonstrating feedback seeking behaviors when faced with such a situation. The behaviors again intended to measure the desire for feedback (i.e. longing for feedback) and the propensity of using specific feedback seeking methods. Ratings were done on a five-point scale (1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Usually, and 5 = Always).

The First Hypothetical Situation: Above Average Performance at an Important Task

In this hypothetical situation, participants were asked to indicate how frequent they would demonstrate the feedback seeking behaviors when they feel they performed **well** (perform above the average) at **an important task**.

Participants were asked to rate seven behaviors which were related to feedback seeking desire and methods (e.g., *"I would observe the behaviors of my peers in order to learn how they evaluate my performance"*). The first hypothetical situation, feedback seeking behaviors and the methods corresponding to these behaviors are presented in Appendix E.

The Second Hypothetical Situation: Below Average Performance at an Important Task

In this hypothetical situation, participants were asked to indicate how frequent they would demonstrate the behaviors when they feel they performed **below average** at **an important task.**

As the in the first situation, participants were asked to rate seven feedback seeking items which were again related to different feedback seeking behaviors (e.g., *"I would pay more attention to how my supervisor behaves to me in order to learn how s/he evaluates my performance")*. The second hypothetical situation, feedback seeking behaviors and the methods corresponding to these behaviors are presented in Appendix E.

The Third Hypothetical Situation- Above Average Performance at Unimportant Task

In this hypothetical situation, participants were asked to indicate how frequent they would demonstrate the behaviors when they feel they performed **well (perform above average) at** *an unimportant task*.

For this hypothetical situation, participants were requested to rate eight feedback seeking behaviors (e.g., *"I would request people close to me to obtain information about the opinions of my supervisor")*. The third hypothetical situation, feedback seeking behaviors and the methods corresponding to these behaviors are presented in Appendix E.

The Forth Hypothetical Situation- Below Average Performance at Unimportant Task

In this hypothetical situation, participants were asked to indicate how frequent they would demonstrate the behaviors (behaviors listed below the

hypothetical situation) when they feel they performed *badly* (**perform below average**) at *an unimportant task.*

As in the third hypothetical situation, participants were requested to rate eight feedback seeking behaviors *(e.g., "I would go to my supervisor, ask his/her opinions about my performance and request him/her to give feedback")* in the forth hypothetical situation. See Appendix E for the forth hypothetical situation, feedback seeking behaviors, and the methods corresponding to these behaviors.

The Fifth Section: Goal Orientation Questionnaire

Goal orientation of the participants was measured using a 13-item scale developed by VandeWalle (1997). This scale measures three distinct types of goal orientation: performance-prove, performance-avoid, and learning goal orientation, using a six-point Likert type scale (from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree"). One of the learning orientation items was "*I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from*". One of the items measuring performance-prove orientation was "*I am concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworkers*" and one of the item measuring performance-avoid orientation was "*I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly*". In an American sample, the internal consistency values of the subscales were found to be satisfactory with values of 0.88 for learning goal orientation, 0.84 for performance-prove orientation and 0.83 for performance-avoid orientation scale. Since this scale has not been used in a Turkish study, there were no data concerning its reliability. In this study, internal consistency values were found to be .85, .75 and .71 for learning goal, performance-prove, and performance-avoid orientations respectively (see Chapter 4 for the detailed explanations of the reliability and factor analyses).

The original scale was translated into Turkish by a graduate psychology student and the researcher independently. Then another psychology student fluent in both languages examined these two translations and the original scale to

determine for each item which translation better reflected the meaning of the item. By this way, the conceptual equivalence of the items in both languages would be assured.

After forming the Turkish version, the rating scale of this measure was converted into a 5-point Likert type scale in order to make statistical analysis more reliable and consistent (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree, nor Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree). See Appendix F for goal orientation questionnaire.

The Sixth Section: Feedback Seeking Motives Scale

The scale developed by Tuckey et al. (2002) was used to measure the motives for feedback seeking. This scale is composed of four subscales each measuring different motives that may affect the feedback seeking behaviors of people. More specifically, the subscales are related to desire for useful information, desire to protect one's ego, assertive impression management, and defensive impression management motives, and all items were rated on a 6-point scale (1 = Extremely true, 6 = Extremely untrue).

In the original version, there are eight items in each subscale. Some of these items, however, are too similar to each other. Since the omission of these items was not expected to affect the results, these items were not included in the scale. With the elimination of five items, total number of items decreased to twenty-seven, 8 items for *desire for useful information* motive; 6 items for *desire to protect ego* motive; 5 items for *defensive impression management* motive and 8 items for *assertive impression management motive*. The motive questionnaire is presented in Appendix G.

Again, a graduate psychology student and the researcher translated the scale into Turkish independently. Then another psychology student examined these two translations and the original scale to determine for each item which translation better reflected the original meaning to maximize the conceptual equivalence of the items in both languages. As in goal orientation scale, the motive measure was converted into a five-point Likert type scale in order to be

consistent in the measurement. With this conversion, all items were rated on a 5-point scale in which 1 represents 'certainly not correct' and 5 represents 'certainly correct'.

Tuckey et al (2002) reported the internal consistency values for each scale as 0.82 for the desire for useful information subscale, 0.85 for the defensive impression management subscale, 0.91 for the desire to protect ego motive subscale, and 0.59 for the assertive impression management subscale. To the knowledge of the author, this measure has not been used in Turkey before. In this study, factor structure of the motive scale was found to be different from the factor structure found by Tuckey et al. (2002). A three- factor solution was obtained with internal consistency values of .81 for desire for useful information, .79 for indifference to sign of feedback motive and .78 for defensive motives. See Chapter 4 for detailed explanation of factor structure of motive scale.

3.3. Procedure

Human resource managers of the companies were first contacted to explain the purpose and scope of the study and they were asked whether they would participate in the study. After taking their informed consent, the questionnaires were distributed to white-collar employees, who agreed to take part in the study. Yet, the order scenarios and hypothetical situations are presented might affect the results. In order to test this possibility and control for the order effects, four versions of the package were prepared by changing the order of the scenarios and the hypothetical situations (See Appendix H for version details). These four versions were distributed to participants randomly.

Data were collected over a three-month period from November, 2005 to January 2006. In the data collection process, the participants were ensured about the confidentiality of their responses (See Appendix A for questionnaire information form).

3.4. Analyses

Different analyses were used to test the hypotheses and to investigate the feedback seeking patterns of employees in response to performance expectancy and perceived task importance. Yet, before testing the hypotheses and conducting exploratory investigations, exploratory factor analyses were conducted to investigate the factors/dimensions underlying self-efficacy, goal orientation and motive scales. Based on the findings of these analyses, factor scores were obtained and these scores were used to test the hypotheses.

Multiple regression analyses were carried out for testing the hypotheses. In these analyses, each feedback seeking behavior (behaviors listed in scenario 1 and 2) was regressed on goal orientation, self-efficacy and motive scores of participants and the possible mediations were investigated by following the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986).

In order to investigate the effects of perceived task importance and performance expectancy on feedback seeking behaviors, 2x2 repeated measures ANOVA were conducted for each feedback seeking behavior listed in hypothetical situations.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS

4.1. Overview

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the role of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and performance level on feedback seeking behaviors of employees. Another purpose was to investigate the main and interaction effects of task importance and performance level on specific feedback seeking behaviors. In the first section, the results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses are presented in order to explicate the factor structure of the measures. In the second section, descriptive statistics and correlations concerning the important variables of interest are presented. In the third section, results of regression analyses and in the last section, results of the repeated measures ANOVA testing the hypothesized relations among important variables are presented.

4.2. Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the self-efficacy, goal-orientation, and feedback seeking motives scales. The results of these analyses are presented separately in the following sections.

4.2.1. Exploratory Analysis on the Self-Efficacy Scale

As indicated before, self-efficacy was measured using the 10-item scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerussalem (1992). The items in this scale were

written to tap into only one factor, which is general sense of efficacy. Consistent with the theory, previous studies using this scale reported single factor structure explaining considerable amount of variance in the scale items. Since there was no reason to suspect about the factor structure of self-efficacy scale, similar result regarding the factor structure was expected in the present study as well.

In order to investigate the factor structure of the self-efficacy scale, a principle component analysis was conducted (using SPSS 10.0, 1999). This analysis suggested a single factor structure explaining 49.43% of the total variance. All of the self-efficacy items were found to be strongly related to this factor, with loadings ranging from 0.59 to 0.78. Reliability of this scale was found to be .88. The loadings of these items are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Items Loadings and Explained Variance for the Self-Efficacy Scale

Items	Factor Loadings
1. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	0.66
2. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	0.68
3. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	0.59
4. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	0.74
5. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	0.71
6. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	0.74
7. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	0.71
8. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	0.78
9. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	0.69
10. When I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	0.72
Explained Variance (%)	49.43

4.2.2. Exploratory Analysis on the Goal Orientation Scale

The goal orientation scale used in this study is intended to measure three trait based orientations, namely performance-prove, performance-avoid, and learning orientation. In student and employee samples, VandeWalle (1997) demonstrated the existence of a three-factor structure. This scale had not been

tested in the Turkish context before. In order to understand whether the three-factor structure best represented the goal orientation of Turkish employees, first a principle component analysis (using SPSS, 1989) and then a confirmatory factor analysis (using LISREL 8.0, Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999) were conducted.

In the principle component analysis, with Varimax rotation, three different criteria (i.e., Kaiser Criterion, scree plot criterion, and Thorestore criterion) were used to determine the number of factors for the goal orientation scale. These three criteria suggested the existence of a three-factor structure. The three factors explained 59.12 % of the variance in goal orientation. Loadings on the factors were satisfactory with values ranging from 0.42 to 0.83 (see Table 4.2). Except for Item 7, all items loaded on only one factor. Although Item 7 loaded on both learning-goal orientation (LGO) and performance-avoid orientation, it was accepted as an indicator of LGO because of its relatively high loading on this factor and content. Alpha coefficients were .85, .75, and .71 for learning, performance-prove, and performance-avoid orientations, respectively.

Table 4.2. Item Loadings and Explained Variance for the Goal Orientation Scale

	Items	Factor Loadings		
		LGO	PPO	PAO
1	I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.	.74		
4	I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.	.83		
7	I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I will learn new skills.	.71		.42
10	For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.	.68		
13	I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.	.76		
3	I am concerned with showing that I can perform better than my co-workers.		.77	
6	I try to figure what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.		.47	
9	I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.		.77	
12	I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.		.79	
2	I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.			.79
5	Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.			.76
8	I am concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.			.59
11	I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly			.67
Explained Variance (%)		23.6	16.8	18.68

In addition to the principle component analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also conducted to assure whether the number of factors and the loadings of the goal orientation items were in line with the three-factor structure proposed by VandeWalle (1997). In the confirmatory factor analysis, maximum likelihood estimation was used to test the hypothesized structure. The model chi- square was significant with χ^2 (62, N = 202) = 110.161, p < 0.05. Ideally, a non-significant chi-square is desired but if chi-square value turns out to be less than the two times of the degrees of freedom, the model is again regarded as acceptable (Carmines & McIver, 1981). In the present case, model chi-square satisfied this criterion. The other fit indexes also indicated a relatively good fitting model. For example, Root Mean Square Approximation (RMSEA) was found to be 0.062, which was smaller than 0.08 cut-off value (e.g., Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Steiger, 1989). The comparative fit (CFI) and goodness of fit (GFI) indexes also turned out to be satisfactory with values of 0.94 and 0.92, respectively.

The three-factor model seemed to be satisfactory, but, to assume its relative goodness, it was compared against a two-factor and a single factor alternatives. Table 4.3 summarizes the goodness of fit values for the three, two, and one-factor models.

Table 4.3. Goodness of Fit Values for the Measurement Models

Model/Model Comparison Tests	χ^2	df	p	χ^2 / df	CFI	GFI
Three-factor model	110.16	62	.00	1.78	.936	.922
Two-factor model	271.906	64	.00	4.25	.801	.828
One-factor model	510.042	65	.00	7.85	.632	.719
Model 3 versus Model 1	399.882	3	.00			
Model 3 versus Model 2	238.136	2	.00			

Note. χ^2 = Chi-square, df: "Degrees of Freedom, CFI: "Comparative Fit Index", GFI: "Goodness of Fit Index".

The comparison of the GFI statistics for the three models suggested that the three-factor model had a better fit to the data than did both the one- and two-factor models. The nested model comparisons demonstrated the superiority of the three-factor model over the other two competing models. The nested comparison of the three- and the two-factor models produced a $\Delta \chi^2$ value of 238.136 (p < .01)

and the nested comparison of the three- and one-factor models produced $\Delta \chi^2$ value of 399.882 ($p < .01$). Model-chi square values and goodness of fit indices seemed to improve when the three-factor model was used.

4.2.3. Exploratory Analysis on the Feedback Seeking Motives Scale

This scale was developed by Tuckey, Brewer, and Williamson (2002) to measure four different types of motives, which are namely desire for useful information, desire for ego protection, assertive, and defensive impression management motives. Confirmatory factor analysis conducted with the US student and employee samples suggested the existence of a four-factor structure, composing of desire for useful information, desire for ego protection, assertive and defensive impression management scales. In the present study, the shorter version of Tuckey et al.'s scale was used to keep the questionnaire shorter. The factor structure was expected to be similar to that of reported by Tuckey et al., although the short version was used. Yet, results yielded a different factor structure.

An initial exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation yielded a six-factor solution. Four items loaded on conceptually irrelevant factors and five items loaded on none of the factors. These items were deleted and a final factor analysis was run with the remaining 18-items. Results suggested the existence of a three-factor structure. All of the eighteen items loaded on one of the three factors using a cut off value of .40 for the loadings. There was no item that loaded on more than one factor. The item loadings and the variance explained by each factor are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Item Loadings and Explained Variance for the Feedback Seeking Motives Scale

Item#	ITEMS	Factor Loadings		
		F1	F2	F3
16	I do not really care if people know what type of feedback I received.	.76		
13	I do not really care if people hear the good feedback that is given to me.	.67		
14	I am not really concerned whether or not I receive useful information about my performance.	.67		
15	I do not really worry about getting negative feedback because I still feel I am a person of worth.	.63		
26	It does not worry me if people know how I have performed at something.	.62		
20	I do not care either way if people see me asking my supervisor for feedback	.60		
27	I do not really need to impress others by letting them know about the positive feedback I receive regarding my performance.	.57		
8	Receiving negative feedback would not really change the way I feel about myself.	.53		
17	When I receive praise, I do not really want others to hear it.	.43		
22	I worry about receiving feedback that is likely to be negative because it hurts to be criticized.		.78	
23	I am usually concerned about other people hearing the content of the individual feedback I receive.		.76	
5	I am concerned about what people would think of me if I were to ask for feedback.		.74	
19	I try to avoid negative feedback because it makes me feel bad about myself		.67	
12	It is hard to feel good about myself when I receive negative feedback		.66	
11	I would like to receive more useful information about my performance.			.82
1	It is important to me to obtain useful information about my performance.			.79
3	Receiving feedback about my performance helps met o improve my skills.			.78
7	I would like to obtain more information to let me know how I am performing			.78
	EXPLAINED VARIANCE (%)	19.4	15.8	15.7

Note. F1 = Indifference to sign of feedback; F2 = Defensive Motive; F3 = Desire for Useful Information motive.

The factors were given names considering the content of the items loading on them. The first factor composed of nine items that reflected people's indifference to sign of feedback. People scoring high on this factor are expected to

be basically indifferent to the sign of feedback. People having this motive are not expected to mind whether other people hear the content of the feedback they receive or whether they take negative or positive feedback. This indifference seems to be opposite of the defensive impression motive, which makes people sensitive and sometimes reluctant about receiving negative feedback, and assertive impression motive, which make people enthusiastic about receiving positive feedback. Considering the item meanings, this motive was named as *"indifference to sign of feedback."* The alpha coefficient for this motive was found to be .79.

The second factor composed of five items that reflected people's reluctance to seek feedback. People scoring high on this factor are expected to protect their self-esteem and image by avoiding negative feedback. This factor seemed to be a combination of desire for ego protection and defensive impression management motives mentioned in the literature. Since people show defensiveness not only to protect their image (as in the case of defensive impression management) but also to protect their ego, this factor was named as *"defensive motive."* The alpha coefficient was found to be .78 for defensive motive.

The third factor composed of four items that reflected people's desire to search for useful information. People scoring high on this factor are expected to seek feedback in order to obtain diagnostic information. This factor seemed to be the same as *desire for useful information motive* cited in the literature; therefore this factor was named as *"desire for useful information."* The alpha coefficient was .81 for this motive.

The factor structure obtained in this study was not identical to the factor structure reported by Tuckey et al. (2002). See Table 4.5 for the comparison of the findings of Tuckey et al. and the present study concerning the feedback seeking motives.

Table 4.5. Comparison of the Motives Identified by Tuckey et al. (2002) and the Motives Identified in Present Study.

Motives identified by Tuckey et al. (2002)	Motives identified in the present study	Similarities/ Differences
Desire for useful information	Desire for useful information	Same
Desire to protect ego Defensive Impression management	Defensive motive	Defensive motive is a combination of desire to protect ego and defensive impression management. motives.
Assertive Impression Management	Indifference to sign of feedback motive	Indifference motive is the opposite of assertive and defensive impression management motives.

4.3. Descriptive Statistics

Before testing the hypotheses, means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the dependent and independent variables were computed. Then, the correlations were analyzed to understand the nature of the relationships between the variables of interest.

As it can be seen in Table 4.6, mean scores of the self-efficacy, desire for useful information, learning-goal, and performance-prove orientation subscales were all above the mid-point of the 5-point scale (M = 3.86 ; M = 4.14, M = 4.03 ; M = 3.80, for the self-efficacy, desire for useful information, learning-goal, and performance-prove orientation scales, respectively). In general, participants seemed to be confident about their abilities, wanted to develop these abilities through obtaining diagnostic information and wanted to prove themselves to other people. The mean scores of the other subscales (i.e., defensive motive and performance-avoid orientation) were found to be below, yet, very close to the mid-point of the scale, with mean values 2.81 and 2.76 for performance-avoid orientation and defensive motive, respectively.

As seen from the mean scores, the likelihood of demonstrating certain behaviors while expecting positive evaluation (as in the case of Scenario 1) was different from the likelihood of demonstrating the same behaviors while expecting negative evaluation. For example, people were more likely to request other people to obtain information about their performance (i.e., feedback seeking through third parties) or ask direct questions to their supervisors or peers (i.e., direct inquiry from supervisors/peers) when expecting a negative evaluation.

The reliability coefficients of the scales were fairly good, with values ranging from .71 to .88. The standardized alpha coefficient of self-efficacy scale ($\alpha = .88$) was similar to the coefficients reported by other researchers (e.g., .88 for Polish participants, .86 for South Korean participants, as reported by Luszczynska, Scholz, Schwarzer, 2005). Alpha coefficients of learning goal (LGO), performance-prove (PPO), and performance-avoid orientations (PAO) were .85, .75, and .71 respectively. Alpha coefficients for motive subscales were satisfactory, .81 for desire for useful information, .79 for indifference to sign of feedback, and .78 for defensive motive.

Table 4.6. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations Concerning the Variables of Interest.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Self-efficacy	**.88 (N = 10)**											
2. Learning-goal orientation	.40**	**.85 (N = 5)**										
3. Performance-prove orientation	.19**	.49**	**.75 (N = 4)**									
4. Performance-avoid orientation	-.22**	-.17*	.25**	**.71(N = 4)**								
5. Desire for useful info. Motive	.11	.47**	.43**	.06	**.81(N = 4)**							
6. Indifference motive	.20**	.24**	-.10	-.07	.08	**.79 (N = 9)**						
7. Defensive motive	-.24**	-.27**	.15*	.50**	-.09	-.27**	**.78(N = 5)**					
8. Direct inquiry from sup (S1)	-.02	.16*	.22**	.01	.20**	-.08	-.05	-				
9. Direct inquiry from sup. (S1)*	.13	.19**	.23**	.08	.22**	.08	-.02	.19**	-			
10. Direct inquiry from peers (S1)	.06	.06	.16*	.04	.23**	-.13	-.07	.41**	.07	-		
11. Indirect inquiry (S1)	.14	.07	.22**	.19**	-.005	.02	.18**	.008	.08	.04	-	
12. Third party f. seeking (S1)	-.005	-.06	.21**	.25**	.07	-.05	.30**	.01	.17*	.13	.39**	-
13. Monitoring supervisor (S1)	-.03	.17*	.32**	.14*	.19**	-.06	.18**	.20**	.06	.04	.29**	.08
14. Monitoring peers (S1)	.09	.14	.37**	.16*	.14	-.17*	.25**	.15*	.19**	.15*	.29**	.31**
15. Longing for feedback (S1)	-.14*	.04	-.08	-.18**	.11	-.08	- .15*	.13	-.14*	.08	-.21**	-.12
16. Longing for feedback* (S1)	.11	-.02	-.17*	-.23**	-.05	.09	-.18*	-.09	-.15*	-.01	-.07	-.04
17. Direct inquiry from. Sup. (S2)	-.01	.12	.04	-.06	.16*	.10	-.20**	.34**	.33**	.14*	-.02	-.12
18. Direct inquiry from peers (S2)	.05	.02	-.03	.03	.11	-.08	-.07	.28**	-.01	.48**	.06	.06
19. Indirect inquiry (S2)	.07	-.003	.20**	.29**	-.01	.001	.28**	.06	.12	-.05	.56**	.37**
20. Third party f. seeking (S2)	-.006	.034	.34**	.45**	.16*	-.13	.28**	.06	.04	.13	.43**	.49**
21. Monitoring supervisor (S2)	-.14	-.03	.23**	.26**	.16*	-.14*	.29**	.14*	.18*	.04	.20**	.15*
22. Longing for feedback (S2)	-.10	.06	-.05	-.29**	.19**	.03	-.17*	.19**	.03	.19**	-.08	-.09
23. Longing for feedback* (S2)	.05	.01	-.08	-.27**	-.01	-.007	-.26**	.02	.00	.02	-.29**	-.3**
24. Age (yrs)	.05	.05	-.07	-.06	.03	.06	-.03	-.02	-.03	-.12	-.13	.001
25. Gender	-.004	-.003	.06	.09	-.001	-.12	.04	.08	.18**	.009	-.07	-.05
26. Education	-.16*	.03	.02	-.05	.11	-.01	-.02	-.01	.05	-.09	-.10	.00
27. Company tenure	.09	.02	-.008	-.03	.05	-.04	-.02	.05	.08	-.02	-.13	-.07
28. Total tenure	.12	.05	-.08	-.12	.04	.06	-.08	-.03	.02	-.08	-.12	-.04
Mean	3.86	4.03	3.80	2.81	4.14	3.26	2.76	3.77	3.52	3.39	2.20	2.00
Standard Deviation	0.64	0.71	0.76	0.87	0.71	0.66	0.83	1.22	1.23	1.02	1.28	1.15

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for self-efficacy, goal orientation, motives, and feedback seeking items: 1 = "Not certainly true" and 5 = "Certainly true" for self-efficacy and motive items, and 1= "Strongly disagree" and 5= "Strongly agree" for goal orientation items. Education: 1= "Primary school", 2 = "Secondary school", 3 = "High school", 4 = "Two-year college", 5 = "University graduate", 6 = "Master", and 7 = "Doctorate." Company tenure and total tenure were measured in terms of months. S1 = Scenario 1 (positive scenario); S2 = Scenario 2 (negative scenario). * Items asked for exploratory purposes. Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in bold. Numbers in the parentheses represent the number of items measuring the construct.

Table 4.6. (continued)

Variables	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
13. Monitoring supervisor	-															
14. Monitoring peer (S1)	.45**	-														
15. Longing for feedback (S1)	-.08	-.04	-													
16. Longing for feedback* (S1)	-.26**	-.13	.05	-												
17. Direct inquiry from supervisor (S2)	-.01	-.05	.02	.07	-											
18. Direct inquiry from peers (S2)	.04	.03	.13	.03	.21**	-										
19. Indirect inquiry (S2)	.29**	28**	-.15*	.00	-.03	.02	-									
20. Third party f. seeking (S2)	.15*	26**	-.08	.14*	-.02	.16*	.46**	-								
21. Monitoring supervisor (S2)	.54**	31**	-.07	.10	.03	.03	.29**	.27**	-							
22. Longing for feedback (S2)	-.03	-.11	.46**	-.02	.17*	.10	-.16*	-.09	.03	-						
23. Longing for feedback* (S2)	-.17*	-23*	.25**	.05	.28**	.03	-.31**	-.31**	-.27**	.19*	-					
24. Age (in years)	-.07	-.07	-.08	-.02	-.07	-.04	-12	-13	-.13	-.17*	-.08	-				
25. Gender	-.08	.00	.00	.01	.17*	.01	-.04	-.08	-.05	-.02	.15*	-.20**	-			
26. Education	.09	-.05	-.06	-.03	.09	-.04	-.06	-.03	.12	.03	-.04	-.21**	-.02	-		
27. Company tenure	-.01	.02	-.13	.05	.09	-.03	-.15*	-.15*	-.12	-.16*	-.08	.76**	-.005	-.27**	-	
28. Total tenure	-10	-.07	-.07	-.007	.07	-.02	-.14	-.15*	-.16*	-.15*	-.09	.89**	-.18**	-.31**	.78**	-
Mean	3.17	2.89	3.96	3.81	4.0	3.61	2.13	2.54	3.12	3.91	4.02	32.21	-	-	75.44	114.7
Standard Deviation	1.20	1.24	1.23	1.14	1.08	1.10	1.23	1.31	1.27	1.22	1.08	6.88	-	-	79.67	81.87

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for self-efficacy, goal orientation, motives, and feedback seeking items: 1 = "Not certainly true" and 5 = "Certainly true" for self-efficacy and motive items, and 1= "Strongly disagree" and 5= "Strongly agree" for goal orientation items. Education: 1= "Primary school", 2 = "Secondary school", 3 = "High school", 4 = "Two-year college", 5 = "University graduate", 6 = "Master", and 7 = "Doctorate." Company tenure and total tenure were measured in terms of months. S1 = Scenario 1 (positive scenario); S2 = Scenario 2 (negative scenario). * Items asked for exploratory purposes. Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in bold. Numbers in the parentheses represent the number of items measuring the construct.

4.3.1. Correlations among Goal Orientation, Self-efficacy, and Motives Scales

Although in general, the correlations between variables were in the expected direction (see Table 4.6 for correlations), the correlation between learning and performance-prove orientations was found to be somewhat higher than expected ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). Previously, VandeWalle (1997) reported positive but lower correlations between these two orientations ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). However, the other correlations - the correlation between learning and performance-avoid orientations ($r = -.17$, $p < .05$) and the correlation between two performance orientations (performance-avoid and prove, $r = .25$, $p < .01$) were similar to the correlations reported by VandeWalle (1997).

The correlations among the three goal orientation constructs and self-efficacy were also in line with the theory. General self-efficacy was found to be positively correlated with learning-goal and performance-prove orientations ($r = .49$, $p < .01$ and $r = .19$, $p < .01$ respectively), but negatively correlated with performance-avoid orientation ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$).

Correlations between the motives and goal orientation, and between motives and self-efficacy were moderate but all in the expected direction. Self-efficacy had positive correlation with indifference motive ($r = .20$, $p < .01$), but a negative correlation with defensive motive ($r = -.24$, $p < .01$). Learning-goal orientation had significant correlations with all of the three motives (i.e., positively correlated with desire for useful information and indifference motives; negatively correlated with defensive motive). Performance-prove orientation was positively correlated with desire for useful information and defensive motives. Performance-avoid orientation, on the other hand, was found to be positively related to defensive motive, as can be expected.

4.3.2. Correlations among Independent Variables and Dependent Variables

As indicated in the literature review, expected feedback sign may affect the desire for seeking feedback and the way people choose to seek it (i.e., specific methods of feedback seeking). The correlations between this study's independent

variables (i.e., self-efficacy, goal orientation, and motives) and the dependent variables (i.e., feedback seeking behaviors) are expected to show different patterns when expecting positive or negative feedback. Considering this possibility, correlations were investigated separately for positive and negative scenarios.

4.3.2.1. Correlations among Independent and Dependent Variables in the Positive Scenario

As seen from the correlation matrix (see Table 4.6), self-efficacy did not have significant correlations with any of the feedback seeking methods. In general, people's confidence about their abilities did not affect the way they searched for feedback. Self-efficacy correlated significantly with desire for feedback (i.e., longing for feedback) only. Unexpectedly, however, self-efficacy was negatively correlated with longing for feedback. People's desire for feedback seemed to decrease as their self-efficacy increased.

Learning-goal orientation had significant correlations with two of the feedback seeking methods, which are direct inquiry from supervisor and monitoring supervisor. Contrary to expectations, the other feedback seeking methods did not correlate with learning-goal orientation for the positive scenario. Performance-prove orientation, on the other hand, had positive correlations with longing for feedback and all of the feedback seeking methods. Positive performance expectations seemed to affect mostly the feedback seeking behaviors of performance-prove oriented people. Performance-avoid orientation had positive correlations with only three of the feedback seeking methods, which are third party feedback seeking, indirect inquiry, and monitoring. These methods are indirect forms of feedback seeking, which reduce the potential cost of feedback seeking. As expected, there was a negative correlation between longing for feedback, and performance-avoid orientation ($r = -.18$, $p < .01$). Even when expecting positive evaluation, people with performance-avoid orientation showed reluctance to seek performance feedback.

As for motives and behaviors linkage, the correlations were in general in the expected directions. For example, desire for useful information was found to

be positively correlated with direct inquiry from supervisor and longing for feedback, which was in line with the adaptive nature of this motive. Contrary to desire for useful information motive, defensive motive was found to be negatively related to longing for feedback and this meant that people having defensive motive were reluctant to seek feedback even when they expected positive evaluations. The other motive, which is indifference to sign of feedback, had no significant correlations with feedback seeking behaviors.

4.3.2.2. Correlations among Independent and Dependent Variables in the Negative Scenario

As in the positive performance scenario, self-efficacy was not significantly related to any of the feedback seeking behaviors. Contrary to the expectations, high self-efficacy did not decrease the perceived cost of negative feedback and lead people to seek feedback with different methods.

Like self-efficacy, learning-goal orientation did not have significant relations with any of the feedback seeking behaviors. The diagnostic value of negative feedback did not lead learning-oriented people to seek more feedback or use different feedback seeking strategies. Performance-prove and performance-avoid orientations had positive correlations with indirect methods of feedback seeking (i.e., third party feedback seeking, indirect inquiry, monitoring). These methods appeared to reduce the image costs associated with feedback seeking, which are important for people with these orientations.

The relationship between desire for useful information motive and feedback seeking behaviors were again as expected. Because negative feedback is diagnostic, people high on desire for useful information motive indicated strong desire for feedback (this is evidenced by a positive correlation between this motive and longing for feedback, $r = .19$, $p < .01$). Moreover, this motive was positively correlated with three of the specific feedback seeking methods, which are direct inquiry from supervisors, monitoring supervisor, and third party feedback seeking.

As in Scenario 1, defensive motive was negatively correlated with longing for feedback. Yet, this time, correlations were found to be higher, which signaled stronger feedback seeking avoidance when expecting negative evaluation ($r = -.17$, $p < .05$). People having this motive seemed to avoid seeking feedback through direct inquiry. They tended to use indirect methods, which were evidenced by the observed positive correlations between these methods and defensive motive. As in the Scenario 1, indifference motive did not seem to affect any of the feedback seeking methods.

4.4. Scenario Manipulation Check

Before testing the hypotheses, it was necessary to understand whether the scenarios manipulated the performance expectancy as intended. As it is indicated above, Scenario 1 was written to create positive performance expectancy, whereas Scenario 2 was written to create negative performance expectancy. Therefore, the mean perceived performance score for the first scenario was expected to be significantly higher than the mean perceived performance score for the second scenario.

A simple dependent t-test was conducted for this manipulation check. The mean perceived performance score for the first scenario ($M = 3.93$; $SD = .53$) and for the second scenario ($M = 2.70$; $SD = .67$) were significantly different, $t\,(201) = 19.02$; $p < .001$, suggesting that scenarios worked as intended.

4.5. Revisions of the Hypotheses

The initial hypotheses involving motives were developed based on the expectation of a similar factor structure reported by Tuckey, Brewer, and Williamson (2002) for the motive scale. However, unlike the goal orientation scale, the factor structure of the motive scale appeared to be quite different for the Turkish sample. Hence, hypotheses that were developed on the assumption of the original four-factor motive structure needed to be reworded using the same theoretical framework. In other words, since the motives reported in this study

were different from the motives reported by Tuckey et al., eight hypotheses were reworded to fit the emerging factor structure of the motives observed in the Turkish sample. In Table 4.7., original and reworded hypotheses are presented.

Table 4.7. Original and Reworded Hypotheses of the Study

Original Hypotheses	Reworded Hypotheses
1a: Learning-goal orientation (LGO) predicts (positively) desire for useful information.	1a: Same as the original hypothesis
1b: LGO predicts (negatively) desire for ego protection and defensive impression management.	1b: LGO predicts (negatively) defensive motive.
2a: Performance-prove orientation (PPO) predicts (positively) desire for assertive impression management.	Not tested.
2b: PPO predicts (positively) desire for ego protection and defensive impression management motives if person has low self-efficacy.	2a: PPO predicts (positively) defensive motive if person has low efficacy.
2c: PPO predicts (positively) desire for useful information if person has high self-efficacy	2b: Same as the original hypothesis.
3a: Performance-avoid orientation (PAO) predicts (positively) desire to protect ego and defensive impression management	3a: PAO predicts (positively) defensive motive.
3b: PAO predicts (negatively) desire for useful information motive.	3b: Same as the original hypothesis.
4: Desire for useful information predicts (positively) longing for feedback in both positive scenario and negative scenarios.	4: Same as the original hypothesis.
5: Assertive impression management predicts (positively) longing for feedback in positive scenario.	Not tested.
6: Desire for protecting ego and defensive impression motives predict (negatively) longing for feedback in both positive scenario and negative scenarios.	5: Defensive motive predicts (negatively) longing for feedback in both positive and negative scenarios.
7: Desire for useful information predicts (positively) direct inquiry, indirect inquiry, monitoring and third-party feedback seeking in both positive and negative scenarios	6: Same as the original hypothesis.
8: Assertive impression management predicts (positively) direct inquiry in positive scenario	Not tested.

Table 4.7. Continued.

Original Hypotheses	Reworded Hypotheses
9: Desire for ego protection and defensive impression management motives predicts (positively) monitoring, third party feedback seeking, and indirect inquiry in both positive and negative scenarios.	*7: Defensive motive predicts (positively) monitoring, third party feedback seeking, and indirect inquiry in both positive and negative scenarios.*
10c: Assertive impression management mediates PPO and longing for feedback linkage in positive scenario.	Not tested.
10d: Assertive impression management mediates PPO and direct inquiry linkage in positive scenario.	Not tested.
10e: Desire to protect ego and defensive impression management motives mediate PAO and longing for feedback linkage in positive and negative scenarios.	8c: Defensive motive mediates PAO and longing for feedback linkage in positive and negative scenarios.
10f: Desire to protect ego and defensive impression management motives mediate PAO and indirect inquiry, third party feedback seeking, monitoring supervisor linkages.	8d: Defensive motive mediates PAO and indirect inquiry, third party feedback seeking, monitoring supervisor linkages.

Note. The hypotheses about task importance and performance level were not reworded; therefore not presented in this table.

4.6. Hypothesis Testing

The major purpose of the present study was to investigate the role of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and feedback sign on feedback seeking behaviors of employees. In this section, firstly, hypotheses about goal orientation and motives, secondly, hypotheses about motives and longing for feedback, and thirdly, hypotheses about motives and specific methods of feedback seeking were tested. Finally, the mediating effects of motives were examined to demonstrate the linkage between goal orientation, and feedback seeking behaviors.

4.6.1. The Hypotheses about Goal Orientation and Motives

The first hypothesis was about the learning-goal orientation and motives.

Hypothesis 1a: Learning-goal orientation predicts (positively) desire for useful information.

Hypothesis 1b: Learning-goal orientation predicts (negatively) defensive motive.

To test these hypotheses, desire for useful information (DUI), and defensive motives were regressed firstly on the control variables and then on the learning-goal orientation (LGO) scores of participants. Two regression analyses were conducted to examine the proposed relations. Results of these analyses are presented in Table 4.8 and 4.9.

Table 4.8. Predicting Desire for Useful Information from Learning-Goal Orientation: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F change	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.013	.013	.370			
Ownership Status				-.09	.14	-.06
Company type				-.12	.15	-.09
Age				-.008	.02	-.08
Gender				-.004	.11	-.003
Education				.13	.13	.08
Company Tenure				.001	.001	.07
Total Tenure				.001	.002	.07
Step 2	.23**	.216**	54.22**			
Ownership Status				.04	.13	.03
Company type				-.09	.13	-.06
Age				-.011	.02	-.11
Gender				-.009	.10	-.006
Education				.10	.12	.06
Company Tenure				.001	.001	.06
Total Tenure				.001	.001	.05
LGO				.47**	.06	.47**

Note. Ownership Status: 1 = Public, 2 = Private. Company Type: 1 = Banking, 2 = Other companies (pharmaceutical, ground service provider). Education: 1 = Non-university graduate, 2 = University graduate. LGO = Learning Goal Orientation. $R = .12$, $p > .01$, $F (7, 201) = .37$, $p > .01$ in the first step, $R = .48$, $p < .01$, $F (8, 201) = 7.19$, $p < .01$ in the second step. $p** < .01$.

As seen in Table 4.8, the control variables did not contribute significantly to the prediction of DUI ($R = .12$, $p > .01$, $F (7, 201) = .370$, $p > .01$). When LGO was added in the second step, however, this variable contributed significantly to

the prediction of DUI, $R = .48$, $F (8, 201) = 7.19$, $p < .01$. Examination of the beta weights indicated that the effects of control variables were not significant in the first and second steps ($p > .01$). The effect of LGO on DUI was found to be significant ($\beta = .47$, $p < .01$). The relationship between LGO and DUI was positive, indicating that the desire for obtaining useful and diagnostic information increased as people became more learning oriented; yielding support for Hypothesis 1. This finding is in line with the adaptive nature of learning orientation.

The second part of Hypothesis 1 was tested by regressing LGO on defensive motive. The first step of the regression analysis, in which defensive motive was regressed on control variables, was insignificant ($R = .23$, $p > .01$, $F (7, 201) = 1.57$, $p > .01$). However, the effects of company type and tenure turned out to be significant in this step ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .05$ for company type; $\beta = -.35$, $p < .05$ for total tenure). When LGO was added in the second step, it contributed significantly to the prediction of defensive motive, $R = .31$, $p < .01$, $F (8, 201) = 2.62$, $p < .05$. As in first step, the effects of company type ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .05$) and total tenure ($\beta = -.34$, $p < .05$) were significant in the second step, meaning that experienced employees and employees working at pharmaceutical and ground service companies were less motivated to protect their ego and manage their impression. Besides total tenure and company type, LGO contributed significantly to the prediction of defensive motive ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$). It seemed that people were less motivated to protect their ego and image when they gave priority to learning (see Table 4.9). This finding is consistent with the findings of the previous studies (e.g., VandeWalle, 2001; Tuckey, Brewer, Williamson, 2002), which found LGO to be associated with effort, persistence, and willingness to seek help and information.

Table 4.9. Predicting Defensive Motive from Learning-Goal Orientation: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.05	.05	1.57			
Ownership Status				-.07	.17	-.04
Company type				-.37*	.17	-.22*
Age				.02	.02	.16
Gender				-.03	.12	-.02
Education				-.26	.15	-.13
Company Tenure				.001	.001	.03
Total Tenure				-.003*	.002	-.35*
Step 2	.10**	.05**	9.44**			
Ownership Status				-.14	.16	-.08
Company type				-.39*	.16	-.23*
Age				.02	.02	.17
Gender				-.03	.12	-.02
Education				-.25	.15	-.12
Company Tenure				.001	.001	.03
Total Tenure				-.003*	.002	-.34*
LGO				-.25**	.08	-.21**

Note. Ownership Status: 1 = Public, 2 = Private. Company type: 1 = Banking, 2 = Other companies (pharmaceutical, ground service provider). Education: 1 = Non- university graduate, 2 = University graduate. LGO = Learning Goal Orientation. $R = .23$, $p > .01$, $F (7, 201) = 1.57$, $p > .01$ in the 1st step, $R = .31$, $p < .01$, $F (8, 201) = 2.62$, $p < .05$ in the 2nd step. $p* < .05$, $p** < .01$.

The findings of the two regression analyses supported the first hypothesis. That is, learning-goal orientation was found to be a significant predictor of desire for useful information and defensive motives.

Second hypothesis was about performance-prove orientation (PPO) – motive linkage. While investigating this linkage, the effect of self-efficacy was taken into account because self-efficacy was likely to act as a moderator of the relationship between PPO and motives by affecting people's opinions about malleability of their abilities. People with low self-efficacy may discredit the diagnostic value of feedback because they tend to believe that they cannot change their performance. On the other hand, people with high self-efficacy may give importance to diagnostic information in order to outperform others in the future. Hence,

Hypothesis 2a: PPO predicts (positively) defensive motive if person has low self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 2b: PPO predicts (positively) desire for useful information if person has high self-efficacy.

To test Hypothesis 2a, a moderated regression analysis was conducted by regressing defensive motive on centered PPO, centered self-efficacy scores and their interaction (see Table 4.10.). The first step, in which defensive motive was regressed on control variables (i.e., company type and total tenure) was significant ($R = .19$, $F(2, 201) = 3.52$, $p < .05$). When self-efficacy and PPO scores were added in the second step, these variables also contributed to the prediction of defensive motive, $R = .31$, $F(4, 201) = 5.37$, $p < .01$). The increment in the second step was significant ($R^2 = .10$, $F_{inc}(2, 201) = 7.02$, $p < .05$). However, when interaction of self-efficacy and PAO was added in the third step, the increment in this step was found to be insignificant ($R^2 = .00$, $F_{inc}(1, 201) = .001$, $p > .05$), yielding no support for the moderation, hence Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

When beta weights were examined, both PPO and self-efficacy were found to be significant predictors of defensive motive. PPO was a significant predictor of the defensive motive in both second and third steps ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$ in the first and second steps). Desire to protect ego and image seems to increase as people become more focused on proving their abilities to others. As PPO, self-efficacy significantly predicted defensive motive ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$, in the second and third steps). When people were confident about their abilities, they tended to be less defensive toward feedback. Contrary to the expectations, self-efficacy-PAO interaction was not found to be significant a predictor of defensive motive ($\beta = -.002$, $p > .01$. Self-efficacy did not moderate the relationship between PPO and defensive motive.

Table 4.10. The Relationship among Performance-Prove Orientation, Self-efficacy, Defensive Motive: Summary of the Moderated Regression Analysis

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.03*	.03*	3.52*			
Company Type				-.31*	.13	-.18*
Total Tenure				-.001	.001	-.14
Step 2	.10**	.07**	7.02**			
Company Type				-.22	.13	-.13
Total Tenure				-.001	.001	-.08
S. Efficacy (centered)				-.26**	.09	-.20**
PPO (centered)				.23**	.08	.21**
Step 3	.10*	.00	.001			
Company Type				-.22	.13	-.13
Total Tenure				-.001	.001	-.08
S. Efficacy (centered)				-.26**	.09	-.20**
PPO (centered)				.23**	.08	.21**
S. Efficacy*PPO				-.003	.11	-.002

Note. Company type: 1 = Banking, 2 = Other companies (pharmaceutical, ground service provider). Total tenure is measured in terms of months. PPO = Performance-prove orientation. R = .19, $p < .05$, $F (2, 201) = 3.52$, $p < .05$ in the first step, $R = .31$, $p < .01$, $F (4, 201) = 5.37$, $p < .01$ in the second step, $R = .31$, $p < .01$, $F (5, 201) = 4.28$, $p < .01$ in the third step.

To test Hypothesis 2b, a moderated regression analysis was conducted by regressing desire for useful information motive (DUI) on centered performance-prove orientation, centered self-efficacy scores and their interaction. The control variables were not included in the regression equations, because their effects were found to be insignificant in predicting DUI motive (see the results of Hypothesis 1). The results of moderated regression analysis are presented in Table 4.11.

The first step, in which DUI was regressed on self-efficacy and PPO, was significant with $R = .43$, $p < .01$, $F (2, 201) = 22.07$, $p < .01$. However, when interaction of self-efficacy and PAO was added to test the moderation, the increment in the second step was insignificant ($R^2 = .00$, $F_{inc} (1, 201) = .289$, $p > .05$). This indicates the absence of moderation effect, hence yielding no support for Hypothesis 2b.

PPO was found to be a significant predictor of DUI in both first and second steps ($\beta = .39$, $p < .01$ for the 1st; $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$ for the 2nd steps). Yet, neither self-efficacy, nor self-efficacy-PAO interaction was found to be significant predictors of desire for useful information motive. Since people with higher performance-prove orientation are focused on outperforming others or differentiating themselves from others, they seem to be motivated to obtain information that give them competitive advantage. Yet, self-efficacy did not affect the relationship between PPO and DUI.

Table 4.11. The Relationship among Performance-Prove Orientation, Self-efficacy, Desire for Useful Information Motive: Summary of the Moderated Regression Analysis

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.18**	.18**	22.07**			
S. Efficacy (centered)				.04	.07	.03
PPO (centered)				.39**	.06	.42**
Step 2	.18**	.00	.289			
S. Efficacy (centered)				.04	.07	.04
PPO (centered)				.39**	.06	.42**
S. Efficacy*PPO				.05	.08	.04

Note. PPO = Performance-Prove Orientation. $R = .43$, $p < .01$, $F (2,201) = 22.07$, $p < .01$ in the first step, $R = .43$, $p < .01$; $F (3, 201) = 14.76$, $p < .01$ in the second step. p** < .05.

The Hypothesis 3a was about the relationship between performance-avoid orientation (PAO) and defensive motive. Since people with PAO are focused on avoiding negative evaluations, they may be reluctant to seek feedback. Realizing this possibility, the relationship between PAO and defensive motive was hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 3a: PAO predicts (positively) defensive motive.

To test this hypothesis, defensive motive was regressed firstly on company type and total tenure, which were found to be significant predictors of defensive motive before, and then regressed on PAO. The effects of other variables (i.e.,

ownership status, age, gender, education, total tenure) were not controlled because they were not significant predictors of defensive motive (see the results of Hypothesis 1). The first step of the regression was significant, $R = .19$, $p < .05$, $F (2, 201) = 3.52$, $p < .05$. When PAO was added, it contributed significantly to the prediction of defensive motive, $R = .53$, $p < .01$, $F (3, 201) = 25.68$, $p < .01$. At the second step, the effect of company type was significant ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$), meaning that employees working at the pharmaceutical and ground service companies seemed to be less motivated to protect their ego and manage their impression. The effect of PAO was also significant in the second step, $\beta = .50$, $p < .05$ (see Table 4.12). The relationship between PAO and defensive motive was found to be in line with Hypothesis 3a: People who want to avoid negative judgments about their abilities tended to be motivated to protect their ego and image.

Table 4.12. Predicting Defensive Motive from Performance-Avoid Orientation: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change	B	SE B	β
Step 1	.03*	.03*	3.52*			
Company type				-.31*	.13	-.18*
Total Tenure				-.001	.001	-.14
Step 2	.28**	.25**	67.67**			
Company type				-.22*	.11	-.13*
Total Tenure				-.001	.001	-.06
PAO				.48**	.06	.50**

Note. Company type: 1 = Banking, 2 = Other companies (pharmaceutical, g. service provider). Total tenure was measured in terms of months. PAO = Performance-Avoid Orientation. $R = .19$, $p < .05$, $F (2, 201) = 3.52$, $p < .05$ in the 1st step, $R = .53$, $p < .01$, $F (3, 201) = 25.68$, $p < .01$ in the 2nd step. $p* < .05$, $p** < .01$.

Hypothesis 3b was about the relationship between performance-avoid orientation (PAO) and desire for useful information (DUI). People with PAO may not have a desire to obtain useful information because they are focused on avoiding negative evaluations, not improving their abilities. Realizing this possibility, the relationship between PAO and DUI was hypothesized to be as follows:

Hypothesis 3b: PAO predicts (negatively) DUI.

To test this hypothesis, DUI was regressed only on PAO. The effects of other variables were not controlled because they were not significant predictors of DUI motive (see the results of Hypothesis 1a). Results are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. Predicting Desire for Useful Information from Performance-Avoid Orientation: Summary of the Regression Analysis

Variable	R^2	F	B	SE B	β
PAO	.004	.80	.05	.06	.06

Note. PAO = Performance-Avoid Orientation. $R = .06$, $p > .05$, $F (1, 201) = .80$, $p > .05$ in the regression model; $p^* < .05$, $p^{**} < .01$.

The regression equation was insignificant ($R = .06$, $p > .05$, $F (1, 201) = .80$, $p > .05$). Contrary to the expectations, PAO did not significantly predict DUI. People with high performance-avoid orientation seemed to be neither enthusiastic nor reluctant about obtaining diagnostic information probably because they believed that such information could draw attention to their deficiencies.

4.6.2. Hypotheses about Motives and Longing for Feedback

Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5 were related to motives and longing for feedback. Considering the results of previous analyses (e.g., Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002), longing for feedback was expected to increase as desire to obtain useful information increased. Hypothesis was worded as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Desire for useful information (DUI) predicts (positively) longing for feedback in both positive and negative scenarios.

This hypothesis was tested separately for the two scenarios using hierarchical regression analyses. In these two regression analyses, order of the scenarios (whether positive scenario presented first or second) was used as the control variable. The results are presented in Table 4.14.

In the positive scenario, the first and second steps of the regression analysis turned out to be insignificant, which means order of the scenarios and DUI did not have a significant effect on longing for feedback, $R = .01$, $p > .05$, $F (1, 201) = .04$, $p > .05$ in the first step, $R = .11$, $p > .05$, $F (2, 201) = 1.27$, $p > .05$ in the second step. Contrary to the expectations, DUI did not predict longing for feedback in the positive scenario ($\beta = .11$, $p > .05$).

For the negative scenario, only the second step was found to be significant, $R = .19$, $p < .05$; $F (2, 201) = 3.82$, $p < .05$. This time, DUI was found to be a significant predictor of longing for feedback ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$). There was a positive relationship between these two variables, which meant that people wanted to obtain more feedback when they desired and needed useful and diagnostic information. So Hypothesis 4 was supported only for the negative scenario. When expecting negative evaluation, people seem to have a desire for obtaining diagnostic feedback.

Table 4.14. Relationship between Desire for Useful Information Motive and Longing for Feedback: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change	B	SE B	β
POSITIVE SCENARIO						
Step 1	.00	.00	.04			
Order of scenarios				.04	.17	.01
Step 2	.01	.01	2.51			
Order of scenarios				-.008	.18	-.003
DUI				.20	.12	.11
NEGATIVE SCENARIO						
Step 1	.001	.001	.168			
Order of scenarios				.07	.17	.03
Step 2	.04**	.036	7.47**			
Order of scenarios				-.002	.17	-.001
DUI				.33**	.12	.19**

Note. Order of scenarios: 1 = Negative Scenario, 2 = Positive Scenario. DUI = Desire for useful information. For positive scenario, $R = .01$, $p > .05$, $F (1, 201) = .04$, $p > .05$ in the first step, $R = .11$, $p > .05$, $F (2, 201) = 1.27$, $p > .05$ in the second step. For negative scenario, $R = .03$, $p >.05$, $F (1, 201) = .168$, $p > .05$ in the first step, $R = .19$, $p < .01$, $F (2, 201) = 3.82$, $p < .05$ in the second step, $p* < .05$; $p** < .01$.

The last hypothesis was about defensive motive and longing for feedback linkage. Desire for protecting ego and image was expected to reduce longing for

feedback because feedback could draw attention to deficiencies and expose one's need for help.

Hypothesis 5: Defensive motive predicts (negatively) longing for feedback in both positive and negative scenarios.

In order to test this hypothesis, longing for feedback was regressed firstly on the order of the scenarios, company and total tenure, and then on defensive motive. In addition to the order of the scenarios, company and total tenure were used as control variables because they had significant correlations with longing for feedback. Two regression analyses were again performed separately for the two scenarios. The results of these two analyses are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. Relationship between Defensive Motive and Longing for Feedback: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Variable	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change	B	SE B	β
POSITIVE SCENARIO						
Step 1	.02	.02	1.24			
Order of Scenarios				.00	.18	.00
Company Tenure				-.003	.002	-.18
Total Tenure				.001	.002	.07
Step 2	.04*	.02	4.52*			
Order of Scenarios				-.02	.17	-.06
Company Tenure				-.003	.002	-.17
Total Tenure				.001	.002	.05
Defensive Motive				-.22*	.10	-.15*
NEGATIVE SCENARIO						
Step 1	.03	.03	1.80			
Order of Scenarios				.03	.17	.01
Company Tenure				-.001	.002	-.10
Total Tenure				-.001	.002	-.08
Step 2	.06	.03	6.34*			
Order of Scenarios				.008	.17	.003
Company Tenure				-.001	.002	-.08
Total Tenure				-.001	.002	-.10
Defensive Motive				-.26*	.10	-.18*

Note. Order of scenarios: 1 = Negative Scenario, 2 = Positive Scenario. Company and total tenure was measured in terms of months. For positive scenario, R = .14, p > .05, F (3, 201) = 1.24, p > .05 in the first step, R = .20, p > .05, F (4, 201) = 2.07, p > .05 in the second step. For negative scenario, R = .16, p > .05, F (3, 201) = 1.80, p > .05 in the first step, R = .24, p < .05, F (4, 201) = 2.97, p < .05 in the second step, p* < .05; p** < .01.

First and the second step of the regression analysis turned out to be insignificant in the positive scenario, $R = .14$, $p > .05$, $F (3, 201) = 1.24$, $p > .05$ in the 1st step; $R = .20$, $p > .05$, $F (4, 201) = 2.07$, $p > .05$ in the 2nd step. Neither company tenure, nor the order of the scenarios was found to be significant contributor of longing for feedback behavior at the first and second steps. In line with the expectations, defensive motive predicted longing for feedback significantly in the positive scenario ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$). The sign of this relation was negative, indicating that longing for feedback decreased as people become more defensive in receiving feedback.

In the negative scenario, the first step was insignificant, but, the second step was significant, $R = .24$, $p < .05$, $F (4, 201) = 2.97$, $p < .05$. As seen from the beta weights, only defensive motive was a significant predictor of longing for feedback ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$). There was a negative relationship between these two variables, which meant that people wanted to obtain less feedback if they desired to protect their image and ego. In both scenarios, defensive motive was negatively related to longing for feedback, yielding support for Hypothesis 6.

4.6.3 Hypotheses about Motives and Specific Methods of Feedback Seeking

With *'longing for feedback item'*, feedback seeking efforts were assessed without focusing on specific feedback seeking methods. In the present study, in addition to asking whether they would seek feedback, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they would use specific feedback seeking methods. Five feedback seeking methods were included: Direct inquiry from supervisors, direct inquiry from peers, monitoring supervisors, indirect inquiry, and third party feedback seeking. The following hypotheses were about the relationship between motives and these specific feedback seeking methods. While desire for useful information motive was expected to be positively related to all feedback seeking methods, defensive motive was expected to be positively related to indirect feedback seeking methods. These expectations were stated as follows:

Hypothesis 6: Desire for useful information predicts (positively) direct inquiry, indirect inquiry, monitoring and third-party feedback seeking in both positive and negative scenarios.

To test this hypothesis, feedback seeking methods were regressed separately on desire for useful information motive. Since method choice could be affected by feedback sign, regression analyses were conducted separately for positive and negative scenarios. Again, order of the scenarios was used as the control variable. However, the effects of the order turned out to be insignificant ($p > .05$) in all regression analyses. For this reason, only the effects of the desire for useful information on feedback seeking methods are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. Predicting Methods of Feedback Seeking from Desire for Useful Information Motive: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Variable	R^2	F	B	SE B	β
Positive Scenario					
Second steps*					
D. Inquiry from Sup.	.05	2.65*	.38**	.12	.22**
D. Inquiry from Peers	.08	3.99**	.37**	.10	.25**
Monitoring Supervisor	.04	2.14	.30*	.12	.18*
Indirect Inquiry	.01	.66	-.003	.13	-.002
Third Party	.02	1.16	.14	.12	.08
Negative Scenario					
Second Steps*					
D. Inquiry from Sup.	.03	1.74	.25*	.11	.16*
D. Inquiry from Peers	.02	.87	.19	.11	.12
Monitoring Supervisor	.06	3.22*	.33*	.13	.18*
Indirect Inquiry	.005	.244	-.03	.13	-.02
Third Party	.04	1.81	.30*	.13	.16*

Note. * Regression analyses were conducted separately for each feedback seeking method. In all regression analyses, order of the scenarios was used as a control variable in the first step. In this table, only the results involving the effects of desire for useful information on each feedback seeking method were presented. $p* < .05$; $p** < .01$.

Desire for useful information (DUI) significantly predicted monitoring supervisor ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$), direct inquiry from supervisor ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$), and direct inquiry from peers ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$) in the positive scenario. The other methods (i.e., indirect inquiry and third party feedback seeking) could not be predicted by this motive. In the negative scenario, DUI significantly predicted

monitoring supervisor (β = .18, $p < .05$), direct inquiry from supervisor (β = .16, $p < .05$) and third party feedback seeking (β = .16, $p < .05$). For this scenario, DUI did not significantly predict direct inquiry from peers and indirect inquiry. Since DUI did not predict all feedback seeking methods as stated in Hypothesis 6, this hypothesis was only partially supported.

Hypothesis 7 was about defensive motive and feedback seeking methods. Defensive motive was expected to be positively related to indirect and subtle ways of feedback seeking because these methods enable people to protect their ego and minimize adverse effects of negative feedback. Hypothesis 7 was:

Hypothesis 7: Defensive motive predicts (positively) monitoring, third party feedback seeking, indirect inquiry in both positive and negative scenarios.

This hypothesis was tested by regressing each feedback seeking method on defensive motive separately. Again, regression analyses were conducted separately for positive and negative scenarios. As in Hypothesis 6, order of the scenarios was used as the control variable. As seen from Table 4.17, defensive motive significantly predicted monitoring supervisor (β = .19, $p < .05$), indirect inquiry (β = .18, $p < .05$), and third party feedback seeking (β = .30, $p < .01$) in the positive scenario. In the negative scenario, again, it predicted monitoring supervisor (β = .29, $p < .01$), indirect inquiry (β = .28, $p < .01$), and third party feedback seeking (β = .28, $p < .01$), yielding support for Hypothesis 7. People who wanted to protect their ego and image seemed to have preferred seeking feedback through indirect methods (i.e., indirect inquiry, third party feedback seeking, and monitoring supervisor) very likely because these subtle methods reduce image and ego costs.

Table 4.17. Predicting Methods of Feedback Seeking from Defensive Motive: Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Variable	R^2	F	B	SE B	β
Positive Scenario					
Second steps*					
Monitoring Supervisor	.05	4.66*	.27*	.10	.19*
Indirect Inquiry	.04	3.93*	.28*	.11	.18*
Third Party	.10	11.06**	.41**	.09	.30**
Negative Scenario					
Second steps*					
Monitoring Supervisor	.09	9.97**	.45**	.10	.29**
Indirect Inquiry	.08	8.38**	.41**	.10	.28**
Third Party	.08	8.26**	.44**	.11	.28**

Note. * Regression analyses were conducted separately for each feedback seeking method. In this table, only the results involving the effects of defensive on each feedback seeking methods were presented. In all regression analyses, order of the scenarios was used as the control variable in the first step. $p^* < .05$; $p^{**} < .01$.

Before presenting the results of analyses, testing the mediating effects of motives, the findings concerning the goal orientation, feedback seeking motives and behaviors are summarized in Figure 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3.
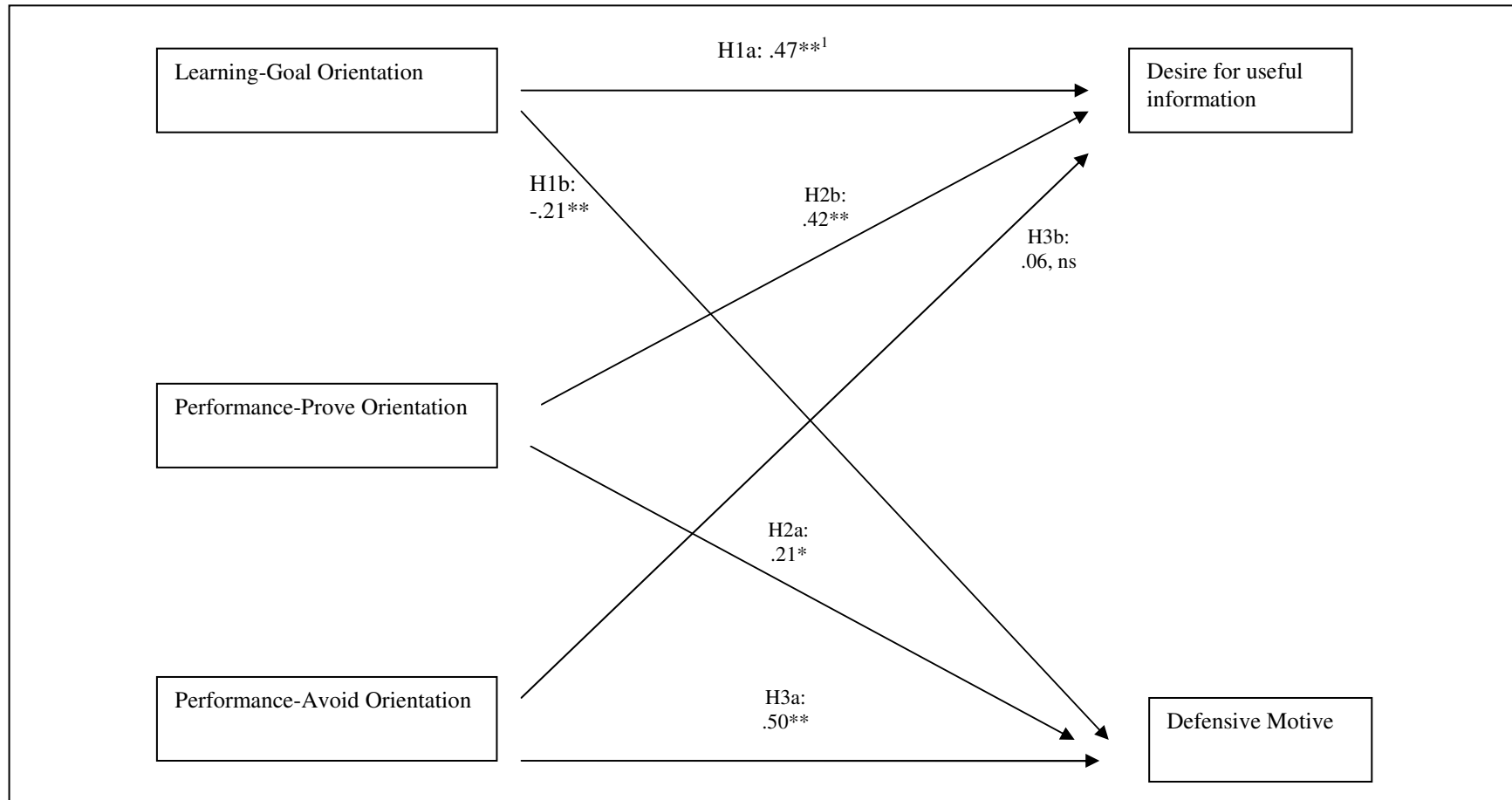
Figure 4.1. Summary of the Findings: Relationship between Goal Orientation and Motives for Feedback Seeking.
ns: non-significant. [1]: Coefficients represent beta weights from their respective analyses.
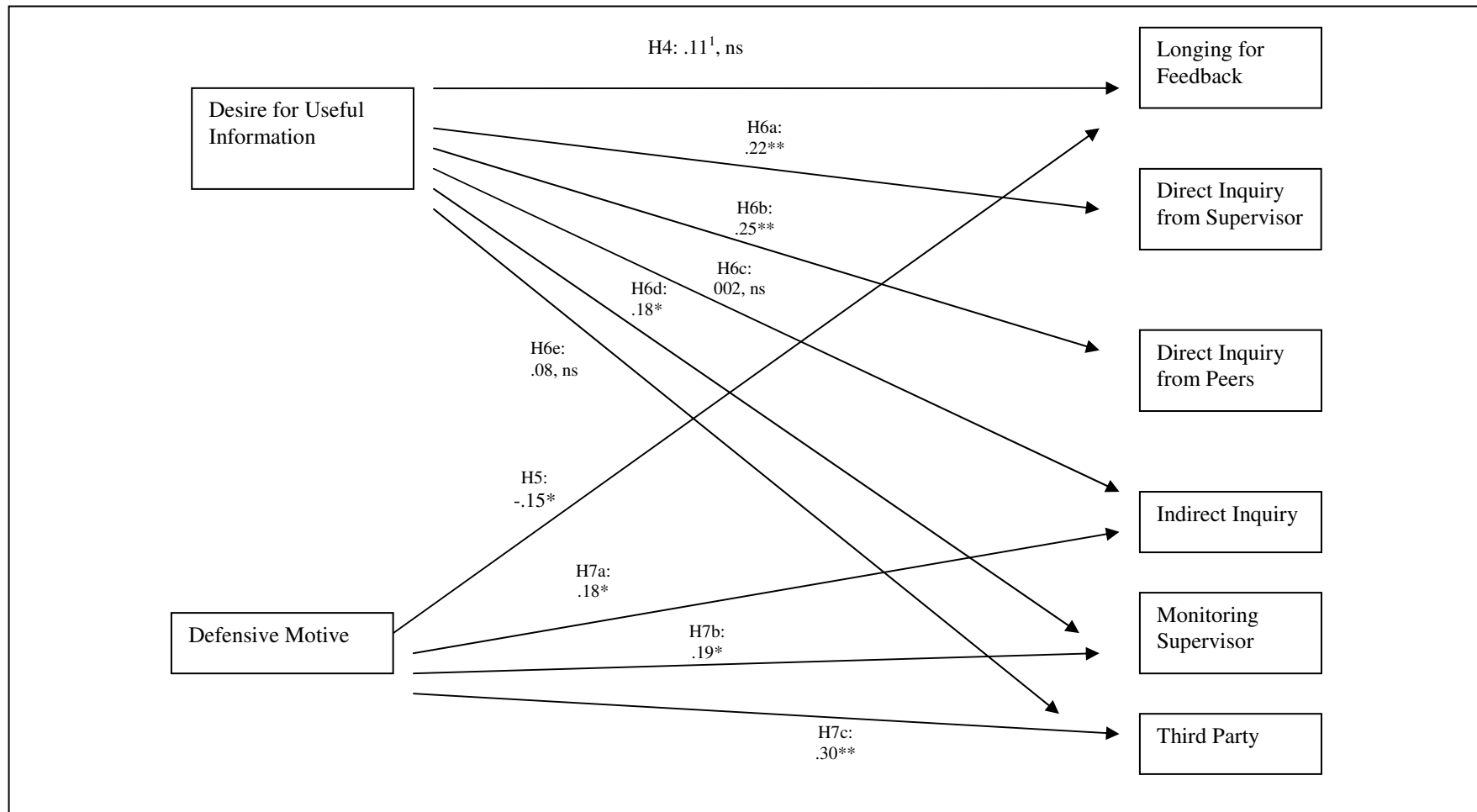
Figure 4.2. Summary of the Findings: Relationship Between Feedback Seeking Motives, and Feedback Seeking Behaviors in the Positive Scenario. ns: non-significant. [1]: Coefficients represent beta weights from their respective analyses.

Desire for Useful Information

H4:
.19**[1]

Longing for Feedback

H6a:
.16*

H6b:
.12, ns

Direct Inquiry from supervisors

H6c:
-.02, ns

H6d:
.18*

Direct Inquiry from peers

H6e:
.16*

Indirect Inquiry

H5:
-.18*

Monitoring Supervisor

Defensive Motive

H7a:
.28**

H7b:
.29**

Third Party

H7c:
.28**
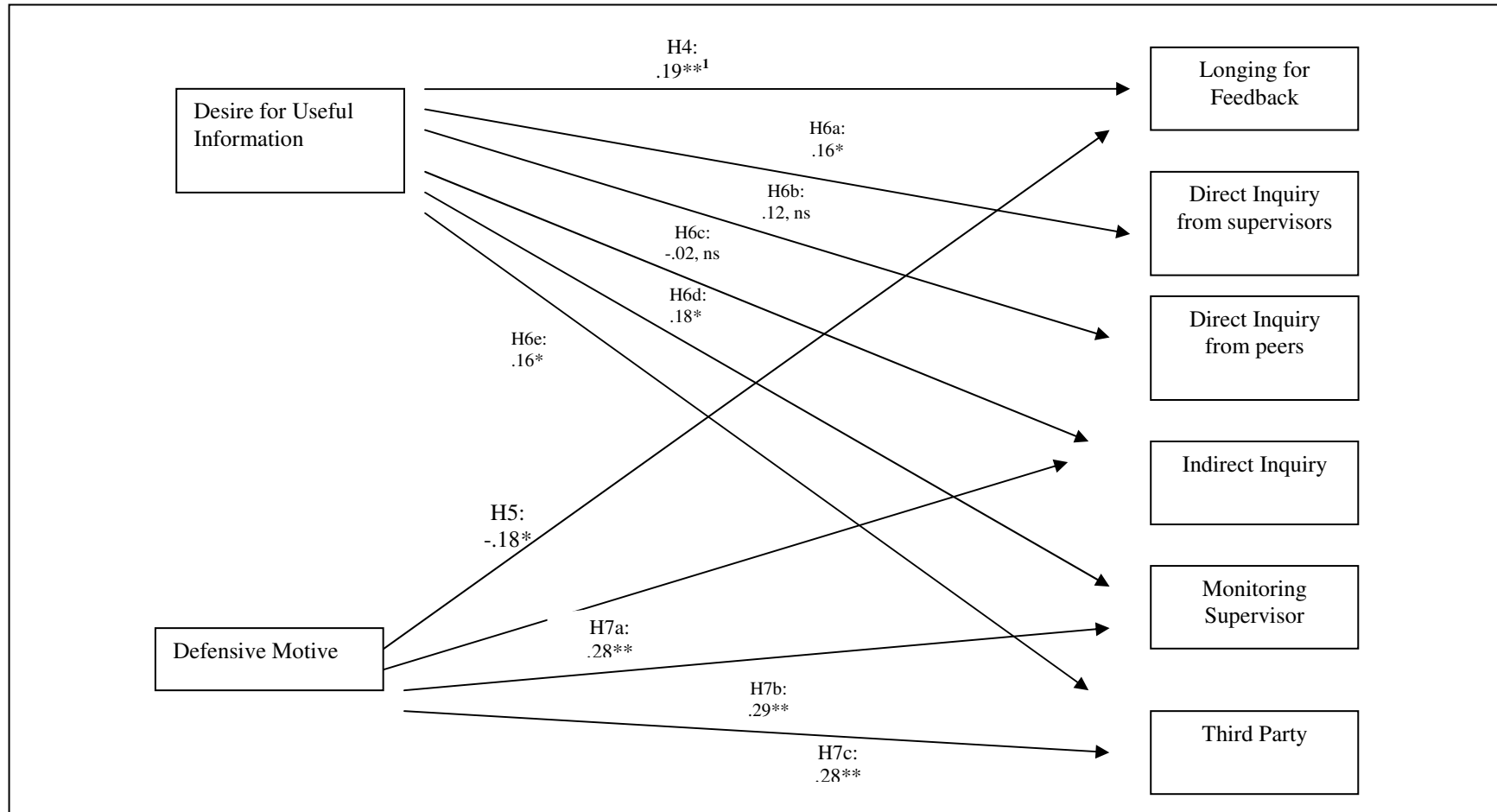
Figure 4.3. Summary of the Findings: Relationship Between Feedback Seeking Motives –Feedback Seeking Behaviors in the Negative Scenario. ns: non-significant. [1]: Coefficients represent beta weights from their respective analyses

4.6.4. Test of Mediations

As indicated in Chapter 2, motives were expected to mediate the relation between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors. The hypothesized mediations were tested using three-stage mediated regression procedure detailed by Baron and Kenny (1986). In the first stage, motives were regressed on goal orientation; in the second stage, each feedback seeking behavior (i.e., method of feedback seeking and longing for feedback) was regressed on goal orientation; and in the third stage, feedback seeking behavior was regressed on both goal orientation and motives. Table 4.18 shows the results of mediation analysis performed to test Hypothesis 8a.

Hypothesis 8a: DUI mediates learning-goal orientation-longing for feedback linkage in both positive and negative scenarios.

Table 4.18. Mediation Analyses: The Effects of Learning-Goal Orientation on Longing for Feedback through Desire for Useful Information

Variable	B	SE B	β	T	R^2	F
Positive Scenario						
Stage 1					.22**	55.42**
LGO	.46	.06	.47	7.44**		
Stage 2					.001	.30
LGO	.07	.12	.04	.546		
Stage 3					.01	1.30
LGO	-.03	.14	-.02	-.22		
DUI	.21	.14	.12	1.52		
Negative Scenario						
Stage 1					.22**	55.42**
LGO	.46	.06	.47	7.44**		
Stage 2					.004	.78
LGO	.10	.12	.06	.88		
Stage 3					.04	3.93*
LGO	-.06	.14	-.04	-.45		
DUI	.36	.14	.21	2.66*		

Note. LGO = Learning-goal orientation. DUI = Desire for useful information. Stage 1: Regression of DUI on LGO; Stage 2: Regression of longing for feedback on LGO; Stage 3: Regression of longing for feedback on LGO and DUI. *p* *< .05, *p*** < .01.

As seen from Table 4.18, the motives did not mediate the learning-goal orientation and longing for feedback relation. In both positive and negative scenarios, the second stage of the mediation was not significant ($\beta = .04$, $p > .05$; $\beta = .06$, $p > .05$), indicating that learning-goal orientation (LGO) could not significantly predict longing for feedback. Since the main variable of interest did not have significant relation with longing for feedback, it was impossible to mention about the mediating role of desire for useful information between LGO and longing for feedback. The Hypothesis 8a was not supported.

Although it did not mediate the relationship between LGO and longing for feedback, desire for useful information motive could mediate the relation between LGO and specific methods of feedback seeking. This possibility was tested with the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8b: Desire for useful information mediates the learning-goal orientation and direct inquiry linkage in both positive and negative scenarios.

As it can be seen from Table 4.19, desire for useful information (DUI) did not mediate the relationship between LGO and direct inquiry from supervisor in the negative scenario. Neither LGO nor DUI predicted the frequency of direct inquiry from supervisor in the second and third stages of the mediation analysis (for LGO, $\beta = .12$, $p > .05$; $\beta = .06$, $p > .05$ in the second and third stages respectively; for DUI, $\beta = .13$, $p > .05$ in the third stage). Yet, DUI mediated the relationship between LGO and direct inquiry from supervisor in the positive scenario. Though LGO predicted direct inquiry in the second stage ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$), when desire for useful information entered into equation, LGO, no longer predicted the direct inquiry from supervisors ($\beta = .16$, t (201) =1.13, $p > .05$). All stages of mediation analysis turned out to be significant (for the first stage, $R^2 = .22$, F (1, 201) = 55.42, $p < .05$; for the second stage, $R^2 = .03$, F (1, 201) = 5.39, $p < .05$; for the third stage, $R^2 = .05$, F (2, 201) = 4.77, $p < .05$). However, although the results suggested existence of full mediation, a Sobel test conducted to test the

significant of mediation indicated that the mediating effect of DUI was insignificant (Sobel test statistics = 1.80, $p > .05$). Hence, Hypothesis 8b was not supported. That is, effect of LGO on direct inquiry was not mediated through DUI in both positive and negative scenarios.

Table 4.19. Mediation Analyses: The Effects of Learning-Goal Orientation on Direct Inquiry from Supervisor through Desire for Useful Information Motive.

Variable	B	SE B	β	T	R^2	F
P.SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.22**	55.42**
LGO	.46	.06	.47	7.44**		
Stage 2					.03	5.39*
LGO	.28	.12	.16	2.32*		
Stage 3					.05	4.77*
LGO	.15	.13	.09	1.13		
DUI	.27	.14	.16	2.02*		
N. SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.22**	55.42**
LGO	.46	.06	.47	7.44**		
Stage 2					.01	2.79
LGO	.18	.11	.12	1.67		
Stage 3					.03	2.76
LGO	.09	.12	.06	.72		
DUI	.19	.12	.13	1.64		

Note. LGO = Learning-goal orientation. DUI = Desire for useful information. Stage 1: Regression of DUI on LGO; Stage 2: Regression of direct inquiry from supervisor on LGO; Stage 3: Regression of direct inquiry from supervisor on LGO and DUI. $p * < .05$, $p ** < .01$.

The remaining hypotheses (i.e. Hypothesis 8c, and 8d) were about the mediating role of defensive motives. Hypothesis 8c was about the relationship among PAO, defensive motive and longing for feedback.

Hypothesis 8c: Defensive motive mediates performance-avoid orientation (PAO) and longing for feedback linkage in both positive and negative scenarios.

As it can be seen from Table 4.20, defensive motive did not mediate the performance-avoid orientation (PAO) and longing for feedback relation. In both positive and negative scenarios, the effect of defensive motive on longing for feedback was not significant (for positive scenario, $\beta = -.08$, $t(201) = -1.74$, $p > .05$; for negative scenario, $\beta = -.03$, $t(201) = -.33$, $p > .05$). For positive scenario, the effect of PAO turned out to be insignificant when defensive motive was added to regression equation. This signals a possible mediation effect, yet, since the effect of defensive motive also turned out to be insignificant, mediation was not a possibility. So Hypothesis 8c was not supported for both scenarios. The effect of PAO on longing for feedback seems to be direct, rather than moderated: As people are more focused on avoiding negative evaluations, they tended to have less desire for feedback.

Table 4.20. Mediation Analysis: The Effect of Performance-Avoid Orientation on Longing for Feedback through Defensive Motive.

Variable	B	SE B	β	T	R^2	F
P.SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.03	6.73*
PAO	-.25	.10	-.18	-2.59*		
Stage 3					.04	3.80*
PAO	-20	.11	-.08	-1.74		
Defensive	-.11	.12	-.08	-.94		
N. SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.08	17.66**
PAO	-.40	.10	-.29	-4.20**		
Stage 3					.08	8.85**
PAO	-.38	.11	-.27	-3.42**		
Defensive	-.04	.12	-.03	-.33		

Note. PAO = Performance-Avoid Orientation. Stage 1: Regression of defensive motive on PAO; Stage 2: Regression of longing for feedback on PAO; Stage 3: Regression of longing for feedback on PAO and defensive motive. $p^* < .05$, $p^{**} < .01$.

The other hypothesis was about the mediating role of defensive motive for PAO and specific methods of feedback seeking:

Hypothesis 8d: Defensive motive mediates PAO and third party feedback seeking, indirect inquiry, and monitoring linkage.

This hypothesis was tested with three mediated regression analyses. In Tables 4.21, 4.22, and 4.23, the results of the mediation analyses for third party feedback seeking, indirect inquiry, and monitoring are presented, respectively.

Table 4.21. Mediation Analysis: The Effect of Performance-Avoid Orientation on Third Party Feedback Seeking through Defensive Motive.

Variable	B	SE B	β	T	R^2	F
P.SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.06	13.60**
PAO	.33	.09	.25	3.69**		
Stage 3					.10	11.56**
PAO	.17	.10	.13	1.68		
Defensive	.33	.11	.24	2.99**		
N. SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.20	49.54**
PAO	.67	.10	.45	7.04**		
Stage 3					.20	25.11**
PAO	.62	.11	.41	5.58**		
Defensive	.10	.12	.06	.864		

Note. PAO = Performance-Avoid Orientation. Stage 1: Regression of defensive motive on PAO; Stage 2: Regression of third party feedback seeking on PAO; Stage 3: Regression of third party feedback seeking. on PAO and Defensive Motive $p^* < .05, p^{**} < .01$

As seen from Table 4.21, the relationship between performance-avoid orientation and third party feedback seeking was mediated by defensive motive only in the positive scenario. In the negative scenario, the effect of defensive motive on third party feedback seeking was insignificant ($\beta = .06$, t (201) = .864,

$p > .05$), which makes mediation impossible. In the positive scenario, however, when defensive motive was added to the regression equation, the effect of PAO on third party feedback seeking turned out to be insignificant. (At stage 3, $\beta = .13$, $t\,(201) = 1.68$, $p > .05$) while the effect of defensive motive remained significant ($\beta = .24$, $t\,(201) = 2.99$, $p < .01$). Moreover, all three stages of mediation were significant ($R^2 = .27$, $F\,(1.201) = 72.22$, $p < .01$; $R^2 = .06$, $F\,(1.201) = 13.60$, $p < .01$; $R^2 = .10$, $F\,(2.201) = 11.56$, $p < .01$ for 1st, 2nd and 3rd stages respectively). The mediation was significant (Sobel test statistics $= 3.52$, $p < .01$), meaning that the effect of PAO on third party feedback seeking was mediated through defensive motive in positive scenario.

The results of mediation analysis for indirect inquiry are presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22. Mediation Analyses: The effect of Performance-Avoid Orientation on Indirect Inquiry through Defensive Motive.

Variable	B	SE B	β	T	R^2	F
P.SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.04	7.39**
PAO	.28	.10	.19	2.72**		
Stage 3					.05	4.78**
PAO	.19	.12	.13	1.59		
Defensive	.18	.13	.12	1.46		
N. SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.09	18.96**
PAO	.41	.10	.29	4.36**		
Stage 3					.11	11.99**
PAO	.29	.11	.21	2.65**		
Defensive	.25	.12	.17	2.16*		

Note. PAO = Performance-avoid orientation. Stage 1: Regression of defensive motive on PAO; Stage 2: Regression of indirect inquiry on PAO; Stage 3: Regression of indirect inquiry on PAO and defensive motive, $p**<.01$, $p*<.05$.

In the positive scenario, the main effect of PAO on indirect inquiry was significant ($\beta = .19$, $t(201) = 2.72$, $p < .01$), but when defensive motive was added to the regression equation, the main effect of PAO on indirect inquiry turned out to be insignificant ($\beta = .13$, $t(201) = 1.59$, $p > .05$). Yet, it is impossible to talk about mediation since the effect of defensive motive was not significant at the third stage, $\beta = .12$, $t(201) = 1.46$, $p > .05$ (see Table 4.23), defensive motive did not mediate the relationship between indirect inquiry and PAO for positive scenario.

Defensive motive seem to mediate the relationship between indirect inquiry and PAO for negative scenario because when defensive motive was added at the third stage, the effect of PAO on indirect inquiry was still significant, but weakened (at stage 2, $\beta = .29$, $t(201) = 4.36$, $p < .01$; at stage 3, $\beta = .21$, $t(201) = 2.65$, $p < .01$). Defensive motive partially mediated the relationship between PAO and indirect inquiry. The significance of this mediation was tested with Sobel test. Accordingly, the mediating effect of defensive motive was found to be significant (Sobel test statistics $= 2.97$, $p < .01$). People with PAO were motivated to protect their ego and image and this induced them to ask indirect questions to obtain performance feedback when expecting negative feedback.

The last part of Hypothesis 8d was related to another feedback seeking method, which involves monitoring supervisor to gather performance feedback. The results of mediation analysis for monitoring supervisors are presented in Table 4.23.

As seen from the Table 4.23, defensive motive did not mediate the relationship between monitoring and PAO for the positive scenario. The main effect of PAO on monitoring was significant ($\beta = .14$, $t(201) = 2.01$, $p < .05$), but when defensive motive was added to the regression equation, the main effect of PAO on monitoring turned out to be insignificant ($\beta = .06$, $t(201) = .79$, $p > .05$). However, there was no mediation through defensive motive because the effect of defensive motive on monitoring was not significant at the third stage ($\beta = .15$, $t(201) = 1.83$, $p > .05$).

Table 4.23. Mediation Analysis: The Effect of Performance-Avoid Orientation on Monitoring Supervisor through Defensive Motive

Variable	B	SE B	β	T	R^2	F
P.SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.02	4.04*
PAO	.19	.10	.14	2.01*		
Stage 3					.04	3.73*
PAO	.09	.11	.06	.79		
Defensive	.22	.12	.15	1.83		
N. SCENARIO						
Stage 1					.27	72.22**
PAO	.49	.06	.52	8.50**		
Stage 2					.07	15.02**
PAO	.39	.10	.26	3.88**		
Stage 3					.10	11.54**
PAO	.22	.11	.15	1.96		
Defensive	.33	.12	.22	2.75**		

Note. PAO = Performance-Avoid Orientation. Stage 1: Regression of defensive motive on PAO; Stage 2: Regression of monitoring supervisor on PAO; Stage 3: Regression of monitoring supervisor on PAO and defensive motive, $p** < .01$, $p* < .05$.

Defensive motive mediated the relationship between monitoring supervisor and PAO for the negative scenario. The effect of PAO on monitoring turned out to be insignificant (at stage 3, $\beta = .15$, $t (201) = 1.96$, $p > .05$) when defensive motive entered into regression equation. The significance of this mediation was tested with Sobel test. Accordingly, the mediating effect of defensive motive was found to be significant (Sobel test statistics = 2.90, $p < .01$). So Hypothesis 8d was supported only for the negative scenario. People with PAO were motivated to protect their ego and image and this induced them to observe the behaviors of their supervisors to obtain performance feedback.

In general, motives did not seem to have strong mediating effects in the relationships between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors with a few

exceptions. In negative scenario, the effect of PAO on indirect inquiry and monitoring supervisor; and in positive scenario, the effect of PAO on third party feedback seeking was mediated through defensive motive. It seems that the effect of goal orientation on feedback seeking behaviors direct, rather than through motives. In Figure 4.4, significant mediations are summarized.

In the Positive Scenario:

| Performance-avoid orientation | .52** → | Defensive Motive | .24** → | Third party feedback seeking |

In the Negative Scenario:

| Performance-avoid orientation | .52** → | Defensive Motive | → Indirect Inquiry (.17*) → Monitoring Supervisor (.22*) |
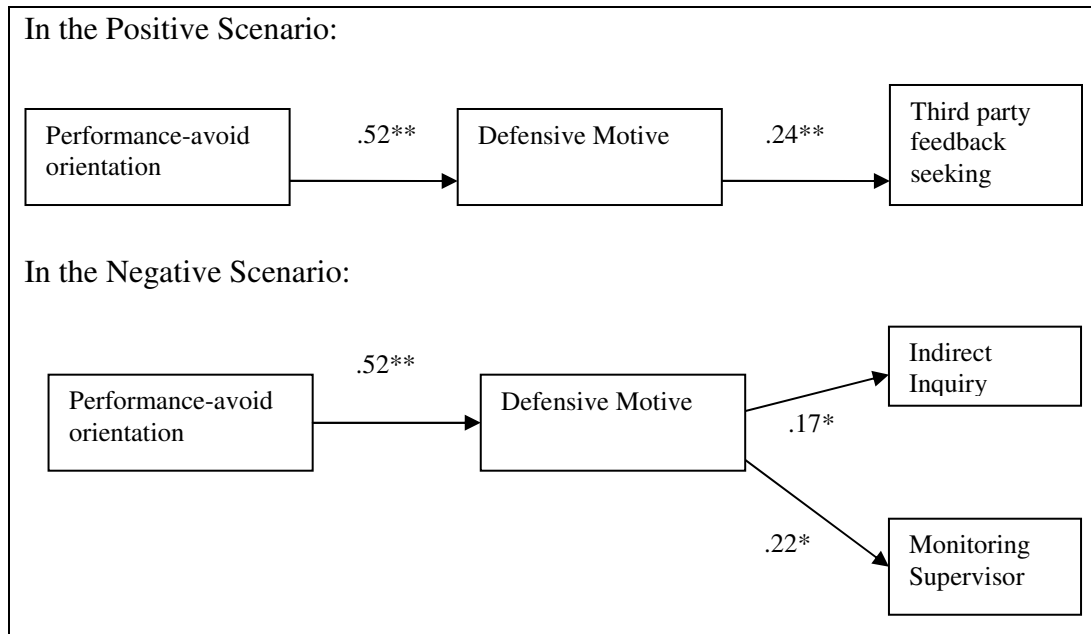
Figure 4.4. Summary of the Findings: Significant Mediations.

4.6.5. Hypotheses about Task Importance and Longing for Feedback

Below hypotheses are related to possible interactions of task importance, performance-level and longing for feedback. Hypothetical situations, in which perceived task importance and performance level were manipulated, were used to test these hypotheses.

Hypothesis 9 (originally hypothesis 11) requires a comparison of important task-low performance situation with unimportant task-low performance situation:

Hypothesis 9: People's longing for feedback is higher when they expect negative evaluation at an important task than when they expect negative evaluation at an unimportant task.

One-way repeated measure ANOVA was performed to compare the longing for feedback seeking in these two hypothetical situations. According to the results of this analysis, longing for feedback in an important task was not significantly different ($M = 3.53$) from the longing for feedback in an unimportant task ($M = 3.42$, $F(1, 201) = 1.91$, $p > .05$). Task importance did not seem to affect people's desire for feedback. A possible explanation of this finding is that people might be more sensitive to the sign of feedback when deciding to seek or not seek feedback. The effects of performance level (i.e., negative evaluation) on longing for feedback seem to override the effects of task importance on longing for feedback. So, Hypothesis 9 was not supported.

Hypothesis 10 (originally Hypothesis 12) requires a comparison of important task-low performance situation with important task-high performance situation:

Hypothesis 10: People's longing for feedback is higher when they expect negative evaluation than when they expect positive evaluation at an important task.

According to the results of the One-way repeated measure ANOVA, there was a significant mean difference between the important task-high performance and important task-low performance situations in terms of longing for feedback ($F(1, 201) = 13.58$, $p < .05$). As expected, people indicated higher desire for feedback ($M = 3.53$) at an important task-low performance situation compared to important task-high performance situation ($M = 3.23$). That is, people seemed to increase their feedback seeking efforts when they expected negative evaluation at important tasks. So Hypothesis 10 was supported. Diagnostic value of negative feedback seemed to outweigh ego and image costs for important tasks.

4.7. Exploratory Analyses

In the previous section, the effects of task importance and performance level on longing for feedback were examined. In this section, main and interaction effects of task importance and performance level on specific feedback seeking methods were investigated for exploratory purposes.

Hypothetical situations were compared with each other in terms of the frequency of using each feedback seeking method. These comparative analyses were performed using 2 X 2 repeated measures ANOVA, in which task importance (important / unimportant) and performance expectancy (high / low performance) were factors of interest (see Table 4.24 for the results of these comparisons).

As it can be seen from Table 4.24, the interaction effects of task importance and performance level on specific methods of feedback seeking were insignificant. Specific feedback seeking methods were affected only by task importance. If task was important, people were more likely to use each of the feedback seeking methods listed (i.e., direct inquiry from supervisor, direct inquiry from peers, indirect inquiry, monitoring supervisor, monitoring peers, and third party feedback seeking). For example, the mean frequency of direct inquiry from peers was higher when task was important (for important tasks, $M = 3.00$, for unimportant task, $M = 2.78$). Similar results were obtained for other feedback seeking methods as well. It seemed that people evaluated task importance before deciding to use particular feedback seeking method.

Table 4.24. Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA: Comparison of Hypothetical Situations for Specific Feedback Seeking Methods

	F	Task Important *M*	Task Unimportant *M*	Performance Above *M*	Performance Below *M*
Direct Inquiry (Supervisor)					
Task Importance	3.88*	2.99	2.85	-	-
Performance Level	16.17**	-	-	2.74	3.10
Task Importance X Performance	2.94	-	-	-	-
Direct Inquiry (Peers)					
Task Importance	11.86**	3.00	2.78	-	-
Performance	1.53	-	-	2.86	2.94
Task Importance X Performance Level	.81	-	-	-	-
Indirect Inquiry					
Task Importance	8.11**	2.45	2.30	-	-
Performance	6.75*	-	-	2.45	2.31
Task Importance X Performance Level	.00	-	-	-	-
Monitoring (Supervisor)					
Task Importance	5.91*	3.20	3.06	-	-
Performance	1.25	-	-	3.11	3.15
Task Importance X Performance Level	.95	-	-	-	-
Monitoring (Peers)					
Task Importance	7.79**	2.83	2.68	-	-
Performance	3.02	-	-	2.80	2.71
Task Importance X Performance	.099	-	-	-	-
Third Party					
Task Importance	9.32**	2.48	2.33	-	-
Performance	1.21	-	-	2.37	2.43
Task Importance X Performance Level	.097	-	-	-	-

Note. Task importance was measured with two levels: 1= Important task, 2= Unimportant task. Performance level was measured with two levels: 1= Above Average, 2= Below Average Performance. All feedback seeking behaviors were measured with 5-point Likert scale. *p* *< .05, *p*** < .01. M = mean

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1. Overview of the Findings

Major purpose of this study was to investigate the role of goal orientation, self-efficacy and feedback sign on feedback seeking motives and behaviors of employees. Second aim was to investigate the effects of perceived task importance and performance level on desire for feedback and the means (i.e., methods of feedback seeking) selected for this purpose.

Learning goal orientation predicted desire for useful information positively and defensive motive negatively. As for the other goal orientation types, performance-prove orientation predicted both desire for useful information and defensive motive positively, and performance-avoid orientation predicted only defensive motive positively. Unexpectedly, however, learning goal orientation did not predict feedback seeking behaviors significantly. Performance-avoid orientation (PAO), on the other hand, predicted longing for feedback (negatively) and the feedback seeking through third parties, monitoring, and indirect inquiry (positively) in both positive and negative scenarios.

The effects of self-efficacy and motives did not turn out to be as expected. Self-efficacy was not found to moderate the relationship between performance-prove orientation and feedback seeking motives, and motives did not mediate the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors, with a few exceptions. In the negative scenario, the effect of PAO on indirect inquiry and monitoring supervisor, in positive scenario, the effect of PAO on third party feedback seeking were mediated through defensive motive.

Results of exploratory analyses revealed that task importance predicted the propensity to use specific feedback seeking methods, whereas performance level predicted the general longing for feedback. The interaction of performance level and task importance was not a significant predictor of feedback seeking behaviors of people. In the following sections, these findings are discussed in detail. Firstly, findings related to the role of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and feedback sign on feedback seeking motives and behaviors of employees are elaborated on. Secondly, the findings concerning the effects of perceived task importance and performance level are discussed, and finally, the contributions and limitations of the study together with some suggestions for future research are presented.

5.2. Findings Concerning Goal Orientation

First hypothesis was about the relationship between learning goal orientation and motives. The first part of this hypothesis (Hypothesis 1a) stated that LGO would positively predict desire for useful information. The second part of the hypothesis stated that LGO would negatively predict defensive motive.

Hypothesis 1a was supported. That is, individuals scoring high on learning orientation wanted to obtain diagnostic feedback more. This finding was consistent with the findings of previous studies (e.g., Tuckey, Brewer, and Williamson, 2002). So far, many studies demonstrated that learning goal orientation induces *'mastery oriented behaviors'* such as seeking challenging tasks, and maintaining effective striving under difficult conditions (e.g., Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Nicholls, 1984). Learning-oriented people tend to view feedback on a challenging task as instrumental to achieving the desired personal development therefore they are willing to seek diagnostic feedback. Desiring to obtain diagnostic feedback seems to be one of the other adaptive response patterns exhibited by learning-oriented people.

Hypothesis 1b was also supported. That is, desire for protecting image and ego decreased, as people became more learning-oriented. Ego protection and

image costs did not seem to be salient factors for people with learning goal orientation probably because feedback has an instrumental value for improving performance, which outweighs the costs associated with ego protection and image. VandeWalle's (1997) finding of a negative relationship between LGO and fear of negative evaluation is consistent with this finding. It seems that learning-oriented people are motivated to seek feedback because they desire for useful information. LGO seems to be associated with adaptive response pattern because learning oriented people want to obtain diagnostic feedback. These people are not reluctant to seek negative feedback or enthusiastic about seeking positive feedback.

The second hypothesis was about the relationship between performance-prove orientation and motives. Again, this hypothesis had two parts. In the first part of hypothesis (Hypothesis 2a), people scoring high on PPO but low on self-efficacy were expected to have a desire for protecting their ego and image. In the second part of hypothesis (Hypothesis 2b), people scoring high on PPO and self-efficacy were expected to have a high desire for obtaining useful and diagnostic information. These hypotheses were not supported; self-efficacy did not moderate the relationship between PPO and feedback seeking motives. That is, high self-efficacy did not make individuals less defensive about seeking feedback or more enthusiastic about obtaining useful information. The effect of self-efficacy on motives was found to be insignificant probably due to the measurement of self-efficacy. In this study, general sense of efficacy was measured, and this may not be best way of testing the moderating effect of self-efficacy. Task-specific self-efficacy could have explained more variance in feedback seeking motives.

The moderation analyses revealed the effect of PPO on desire for useful information (DUI) and defensive motives. PPO was found to be positively associated with these two motives. Quite unexpectedly, individuals with high PPO indicated that they wanted to obtain more information about their performance. This finding is not in line with the findings reported by Tuckey, Brewer, and Williamson (2002), who found negative relationship between PPO and DUI. The difference in findings might have resulted from organizational characteristics such as organizational culture, and performance standards. For example, performance

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standards or organizational culture might have induced participants of this study to improve their performance over time and made them believe that feedback was valuable for performing better in the future.

Results suggested that individuals having high PPO also had concerns about possible image and ego costs of feedback seeking. This finding is consistent with the findings of Tuckey et al. (2002) and supports the argument of Elliot and Church (1997) regarding the antecedents of PPO. Elliot and Church (1997) found fear of failure and achievement motivation as antecedents of PPO. They claimed that achievement motivation was activated in achievement situations that present challenge (e.g., the possibility of success with little chance of failure) and cause people with PPO to demonstrate adaptive response patterns, typically demonstrated by people with learning orientation. Fear of failure, on the other hand, is activated in achievement situations that present threat (e.g., the possibility of failure with little chance of success) and cause people with PPO to demonstrate maladaptive response pattern, which is typically displayed by people with performance-avoid orientation. The findings of this study provided support for the claims of Elliot and Church (1997). Performance-prove oriented individuals wanted to obtain useful information (consistent with achievement motivation) but at the same time they wanted to protect their ego and image by avoiding negative feedback, stemming from their fear of failure motive. While seeking feedback, these individuals seem to weigh the cost (i.e., image costs) and the value (i.e., instrumental value) of feedback.

Third hypothesis was about the relationship between performance-avoid orientation and motives. The first part of Hypothesis 3 (Hypothesis 3a) stated that PAO would predict defensive motive (positively). The second part of Hypothesis 3 (Hypothesis 3b) stated that PAO would predict desire for useful information (negatively). Hypothesis 3a was supported; participants tended to be highly motivated to protect their ego and image as they were more focused on avoiding negative judgments from others. It seemed that feedback was perceived as a threat to self-worth and image by individuals having performance-avoid orientation. This finding was consistent with the findings of previous studies (Cron, Slocum,

& VandeWalle, 2002; VandeWalle, 2001) that revealed positive relationship between PAO and fear of negative evaluation.

Hypothesis 3b was not supported: PAO did not have a relationship with desire for useful information. Individuals with high PAO seemed to be neither willing, nor reluctant to obtain useful information. Results demonstrated that PAO was more likely to be associated with maladaptive response pattern, which could make people reluctant about seeking feedback despite its instrumental value.

5.3. Findings Concerning Motives

5.3.1. Motives and Longing for Feedback

Desire for useful information was hypothesized to increase people's feedback seeking in both positive and negative performance situations. This hypothesis (Hypothesis 4) was partially supported because DUI predicted longing for feedback only in the negative performance situations (i.e., negative scenario). Individuals wanted to obtain more feedback probably because they perceived negative feedback useful and diagnostic for improving their performance. This finding is consistent with the findings of Ashford (1986) and Fedor, Rensvold, and Adams (1992). In Ashford's study, individuals having low performance expectations reported greater feedback seeking and in Fedor et al.'s study, pilot trainees elicited more feedback when their performance was rated low. DUI motive seems to be an adaptive motive, which induces people to seek negative feedback. In positive performance situations, the effect of DUI motive on longing for feedback was not significant probably because positive feedback was not perceived diagnostic and useful by the participants.

Defensive motive, on the other hand, was hypothesized to reduce feedback seeking in both positive and negative performance situations. In line with hypothesis 5, people who gave priority to protect their ego and image showed reluctance to seek feedback. Defensive motive was associated with maladaptive

response pattern which reduced people's desire for feedback even they expected positive evaluation.

5.3.2. Motives and Specific Methods of Feedback Seeking

Individuals may seek feedback through asking direct or indirect questions, monitoring the behaviors of their supervisors, or requesting others to obtain feedback about their performance. Motives were hypothesized to affect the choice of specific feedback seeking methods. Hypothesis 6 stated that people having desire for useful information would use all feedback seeking methods without considering their image costs. In line with the expectations, desire for useful information predicted the frequency of monitoring, direct inquiry from supervisors and peers in the positive scenario; predicted the frequency of direct inquiry from supervisor, monitoring, and third party feedback seeking in the negative scenario. In order to obtain useful information, individuals seemed to be willing to seek feedback even through direct inquiry, although this method could draw attention to their deficiencies. Supervisors were regarded as major sources of feedback because individuals sought feedback either by asking questions to their supervisors or by monitoring the behaviors. Perceived accessibility and expertise of the supervisors might cause participants to seek feedback from them. In addition to monitoring and direct inquiry, individuals sought feedback through third parties. Individuals requested third parties to obtain information when they expected negative feedback. Using third parties seems to be one of the effective ways of obtaining performance feedback for Turkish employees.

Hypothesis 7 stated that individuals who wanted to protect their image and ego would seek feedback through indirect means (i.e., monitoring, third party feedback seeking, and indirect inquiry). This hypothesis was supported for both positive and negative scenarios. Individuals who gave importance to protecting their ego and image seemed to prefer indirect methods, which do not draw attention to deficiencies.

5.4. Findings Concerning Mediations

Motives were expected to mediate the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors. This expectation was supported only for the relationship between performance-avoid orientation (PAO) and specific methods of feedback seeking (i.e., third party feedback seeking, monitoring, and indirect inquiry). In the negative scenario, the effects of PAO on indirect inquiry and monitoring supervisor were mediated through defensive motive. In the positive scenario, the effects of PAO on third party feedback seeking were mediated through defensive motive. It seemed that people who were focused on avoiding negative outcomes were motivated to protect their ego and image, which led them to use indirect, face saving methods (i.e., indirect inquiry, monitoring, and third party feedback seeking).

While testing these mediations, the relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors were also revealed. PAO had a negative relationship with feedback seeking in both positive and negative scenarios. People having this orientation showed reluctance to seek feedback even if they expected positive evaluation. Even when they decided to seek feedback, these people preferred using indirect feedback seeking methods (i.e., third party feedback seeking, monitoring, and indirect inquiry) in order to reduce image costs.

Contrary to the expectations, LGO did not make people more willing to seek feedback or use specific feedback seeking methods more frequently. This finding could be due to organizational practices, preferences of learning oriented people or the measurement of the LGO. Most of the time, organizational practices emphasize meeting standards rather than learning new things and this might encourage people to seek feedback only in positive performance situations, in which feedback had no diagnostic value. The effect of organizational practices might override the positive effects of LGO on feedback seeking behavior. Besides, learning oriented people may prefer assessing their own performance and using this self-referenced feedback. In this study, self-referenced feedback could have reduced the desire for seeking outside feedback and may not have allowed LGO to predict feedback seeking behaviors. Finally, the measurement of LGO

might have precluded significant relationship to be detected. As can be realized from the standard deviation of LGO scores, there is small variability in LGO scores. Greater variability on the measure of learning orientation may have allowed significant relation to be detected.

5.5. Findings Concerning the Role of Task Importance and Performance Level

As indicated before, the second purpose of this study was to investigate the main and interaction effects of task importance and performance level on feedback seeking behaviors. Hypothesis 9 was intended to examine the role of task importance in negative performance situations. In this hypothesis, longing for feedback was expected to be higher when the person performed poorly at an important task than when s/he performed poorly at an unimportant task. This hypothesis was not supported. Although the consequences of poor performance are more severe in important tasks, individuals seemed to be equally willing to seek feedback when they performed poorly at an important and unimportant task.

Results of the analysis concerning Hypothesis 10 indicated that individuals were more willing to seek feedback when they performed below average. They appeared to be sensitive to the sign of feedback when deciding to seek or not seek feedback. The effects of performance level (i.e., possible negative evaluation) on longing for feedback seemed to override the effects of task importance on longing for feedback. It seems plausible to assert that instrumental value of negative feedback seems to outweigh self-esteem and image costs and increases people's desire for feedback.

However, when exploratory analyses were conducted to examine the effects of task importance and performance level on specific feedback seeking methods (i.e., direct inquiry, indirect inquiry, monitoring, third party feedback seeking), it was found that task importance actually mattered. These analyses revealed that individuals were more likely to use all feedback seeking methods when task was important, hence exerting effort was worthwhile. Results indicated

that when employees were asked whether they would seek feedback (i.e., longing for feedback), they seemed to evaluate their performance. However, when they were asked to indicate their likelihood of seeking feedback through particular method, they seemed to evaluate the task importance. This finding might be due to the way longing for feedback and specific feedback seeking method items were framed. In the present study, longing for feedback was measured in general terms, yet, feedback seeking methods were measured in more specific terms.

Exploratory analyses also revealed that employees asked questions to their supervisors when they performed poorly. Although asking direct questions about performance could draw attentions to deficiencies and expose their need for help, employees seemed to prefer using this method (i.e., direct inquiry). Several explanations could be offered for this finding. Firstly, employees might have preferred this method because they may have thought of asking direct questions as the best way of understanding the reasons for failure. Employees seemed to have accepted short-term unpleasantness of negative feedback for the purpose of long-run benefits, such as performance improvement and gaining mastery (Audia & Locke, 2003). Secondly, employees might have preferred seeking negative feedback from their supervisors because they wanted to seem as conscientious and responsible. As Larson (1989) states, employees may seek negative feedback in order to mitigate the reactions of their supervisors about poor performance. According to Larson, employees, who actively seek performance feedback from their supervisors, may catch their supervisor before the buildup to negative feedback is complete. If this happens, supervisor may see the performance problem less severe and may get less emotionally involved (i.e., angry). If employees seek negative feedback, they may reduce the reactions of their supervisors. In this study, employees might have requested negative feedback from their supervisors because they believed that negative feedback would be given anyway and it was better to mention about poor performance before problems became much more severe.

5.6. Influence of Culture on Feedback Seeking Behaviors

Individual behavior cannot be partitioned from the culture it occurs (Earley, 1997). The effect of culture should be taken into account while analyzing the feedback seeking behaviors of individuals because culture may affect the value and cost of feedback. For example, fatalism may reduce the value of feedback by making people believe that they cannot fully control the outcomes of their actions (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, & Kurshid, 2000) or power distance may increase the cost of seeking feedback and induce people to use indirect methods rather than direct ones. In this section, the possible effects of Turkish culture on feedback seeking motives and behaviors are discussed in order to be able to make better sense of the obtained findings.

Studies indicated that Turkish culture is a paternalistic one (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000), which is characterized by high power distance and high collectivism (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Hofstede, 1980; Pasa, 2000). As it is known, collectivist societies place relatively little emphasis on assertion of individual needs and rights. There are social norms against direct communication and against discussing one's performance openly (Morrison, Salgado, & Chen, 2004), and this could affect the likelihood of seeking feedback through direct inquiry. In addition to collectivism, high power distance may reduce the use of direct inquiry by making employees reluctant about interacting with their supervisors and soliciting feedback from them. Collectivism and high power distance may increase the defensiveness and induce people to seek feedback through indirect means.

The findings of this study, however, are not in line with the above expectations. Direct inquiry from supervisors was found to be one of the most preferred methods of feedback seeking. Participants preferred direct inquiry although this method draws attention to individual success or failure, which is not desired in the collectivist cultures. Paternalistic relationship between employees and supervisors, a characteristic of Turkish culture, could have made employees more willing to seek feedback from their supervisors. In a paternalistic relationship, the role of superior is to provide guidance, protection, and care to the

subordinate. Employees might have regarded their supervisors as mentor or guide with whom they can discuss their performance, thus may be more likely to seek feedback from them.

Results of this study demonstrated the criticality of third party involvement in feedback seeking process. Employees requested other people (whom they feel close to) to obtain information about their performance in both positive and negative scenarios. Since third party feedback seeking did not draw attention to deficiencies, employees could have used this method to obtain diagnostic feedback in negative performance situations. In positive performance situations, again, employees (especially employees having defensive motive) seemed to use third parties probably to enhance their ego and image. In any case, indirect and face-saving nature of the third party feedback seeking makes this method preferable for people having different motives and performance expectations.

Kozan and Ergin (1999) claims that Turkey experiences a transition to an industrialized society, and its culture reflects a duality created by the coexistence of Western and traditional values. Results of this study supported this claim. For example, employees behaved adaptively and tolerated the image and ego costs associated with negative feedback for the sake of improving their performance. Western management practices, which emphasize meeting performance standards, might have induced employees to seek diagnostic feedback and ask direct questions to their supervisors. Traditional values, on the other hand, seem to increase people's likelihood of seeking feedback through indirect methods (i.e., monitoring, indirect inquiry, and third party feedback seeking). In addition to asking direct questions about performance, employees seem to prefer using indirect methods to maintain their face. In other words, both traditional and Western values seem to affect people's feedback seeking behaviors.

5.7. Contributions of the Study

This study contributed to the existing literature by investigating the feedback seeking mechanism in real life organizations. Unlike the studies that

examined feedback seeking behaviors with student sample, this study examined these behaviors using employee sample. Use of employee sample increases the generalizability of the findings to the field settings and this is one of the biggest contributions of this study.

In the first part of the study, the main and interaction effects of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and performance expectations on feedback seeking motives and behaviors were investigated. These detailed analyses revealed the antecedents of feedback seeking motives and behaviors, which had important theoretical implications for future studies. The present study also supported the majority of the findings reported by Tuckey et al. (2002) about the role of goal orientation on feedback seeking. Unlike the study of Tuckey et al. (2002), however, this study showed the impact of goal orientation and performance expectations on different feedback seeking methods, rather than just on direct inquiry (i.e., indirect inquiry, third party feedback seeking, and monitoring). In this respect, it provided more detailed analysis of feedback seeking.

This study is believed to be unique in that the effects of task importance and performance level on feedback seeking behaviors were examined. Previous studies investigated the effects of these variables only on direct inquiry and monitoring. This study added other feedback seeking methods (e.g., indirect inquiry and third party feedback seeking) to the analysis and analyzed the main and interaction effects of perceived task importance and performance on these methods as well.

This study also demonstrated how Turkish workers responded to success or failure and regulated their feedback seeking efforts accordingly. To the knowledge of the author, there is no other study that has investigated the feedback seeking mechanisms in Turkey. In this respect, this study contributed to the literature regarding the cross cultural differences in feedback seeking attitudes and behaviors.

Finally, besides its findings, this study contributed to the literature by using the scales that had not been used in the Turkish context before. Goal orientation and motive scales were translated into Turkish and their reliabilities

were assessed for the first time. Three-dimensional conceptualization of goal orientation was supported in the Turkish context. Both confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses revealed a factor structure corresponding to the learning, performance-prove, and performance-avoid dimensions. This demonstrated the cross cultural consistency of the scale.

Unexpectedly, the factor structure of the motive scale was not found to be similar to the factor structure reported by Tuckey and her colleagues (2002). Despite this difference, this scale was successful at revealing employees' motives for seeking feedback. Reliability values were satisfactory for all subscales and the factors measured unique motives, which were different from others in terms of content. In addition to these, motives explained majority of the variance on feedback seeking behaviors. The Turkish version of the motives scale served the needs of this study and contributed to the literature by measuring motives in the Turkish context.

5.8. Practical Implications

The results of the present study have several implications for practitioners. Firstly, this study provided evidence that employees might have different goals which could affect their performance expectations, task choice, persistence, effort, and reactions to failure. Understanding goal orientations of the employees is important for practitioners because goal orientation affects how employees interpret and respond to achievement situations. Practitioners may incorporate the findings about goal orientation into the design and implementation of training programs and the administration of performance appraisal systems. For example, it seems plausible to expect that employees having a performance-avoid orientation may change their maladaptive behaviors if training programs and performance appraisal systems are designed in a way that emphasizes developing abilities rather than just meeting standards. By providing role models and constructive feedback, practitioners may induce employees to develop their abilities and perform better.

Performance- and learning-oriented people exhibited different reactions to feedback seeking, which could be used by practitioners to devise effective feedback mechanism in the organization. For example, employees with performance-avoid orientation showed reluctance to seek feedback when expecting both positive and negative evaluations. In order to make these people willing to seek feedback, practitioners could make feedback sessions more constructive and private. Private and constructive feedback may lessen the perceived cost of seeking and receiving feedback.

For people with performance-prove orientation, longing for feedback did not change with respect to sign of feedback. Yet, these people used different methods to seek feedback when expecting positive evaluation. Performance-prove orientation significantly and positively predicted the frequency of using all feedback seeking methods (i.e., monitoring, third party feedback seeking, indirect and direct inquiry) in the positive scenario. This shows the sensitivity of people with performance-prove orientation to positive feedback. Practitioners may make these people willing to seek negative feedback by reducing the perceived cost of feedback.

Learning-goal orientation did not significantly predict the feedback seeking behaviors in the negative scenario. This unexpected result may be due to the organizational practices, which emphasizes meeting standards rather than learning something. However, promoting performance-orientation may cause employees to be reluctant about increasing their personal goals over time. As Button, Mathieu and, Zajac (1996) pointed out, even after successful task performance, employees may not elevate their goals for future performance in order to ensure positive self evaluation. Considering the realities of the work life and the side effects of performance orientation, practitioners should find ways for balancing both performance and learning goal orientations. To achieve this, they could devise training programs and performance appraisal systems, which emphasize the importance of both learning/mastering and meeting standards.

In order to promote feedback seeking, practitioners should know what induces people to seek feedback (motives for feedback seeking) and how these

motives affect feedback seeking behaviors. This study demonstrated the role of motives on feedback seeking behaviors of employees. For example, practitioners or top management can try to increase desire for useful information motive because this motive was found to be positively related to longing for feedback in negative performance situations. In order to make employees willing to seek negative feedback, practitioners should persuade employees about the usefulness of the feedback and expertise of the feedback provider.

Finally, organizations should find ways to reduce the frequency of feedback seeking through third parties because the accuracy of feedback is highly dependent on the intentions and inference capabilities of the third parties involved. Feedback seekers may obtain inaccurate information because third parties may not be interested in or capable of providing accurate information. Although direct inquiry draws attention to deficiencies, it is more likely to provide accurate and specific information compared to the information provided by the third-parties. Organizations should try to create a climate in which employees feel relatively less threatened by using more direct, and hence healthier, means of feedback seeking.

5.9. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The limitations of this study should be acknowledged while interpreting the findings and setting direction for future research. The limitations are related to the measurement of the variables, which may affect the generalizability and applicability of the results.

The first limitation is related to data collection procedure. Although goal orientation and motive scales had not been used in the Turkish context before, a pilot study was not conducted to determine the applicability of these scales to Turkish context. The pilot study might help the refinement of the scales and provide insights about the factor structure of these scales. If pilot study had been conducted, the hypotheses would not have been revised just before the main

analysis. Hypotheses could have been written considering the factor structure of the motive scale.

The second limitation is related to the measurement of the goal orientation. As indicated before, goal orientation of the participants was measured with the scale developed by VandeWalle (1997). In this scale, goal orientation is viewed as a part of the general personality of the person that is responsible for individual differences in behavior (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005). Goal orientation was operationalized as a trait, which was quite stable across time and situations in this study. Such operationalization might have affected the findings because it did not consider the effects of situations on adoption of goals in the workplace. As DeShon and Gillespie (2005) indicate, people are predisposed to adopt a particular orientation to achievement tasks only in situations in which few cues are present to guide the behavior. However, when there are many situational cues that guide behaviors, these cues may override the natural dispositions and lead adoption of different goals. In this study, the scenarios presented important cues about performance levels and task characteristics, which might have caused participants to adopt a response pattern, not consistent with their goal-orientation. Since this study intended to measure people's feedback seeking behaviors in different performance situations, understanding the effect of situational characteristics on feedback seeking was of critical importance. Measures which take into account situational characteristics rather than treating goal orientation as a stable trait might better reveal the effect of goal orientation on feedback seeking motives and behaviors. Therefore, this study may need to be repeated with the goal orientation measures which incorporate situational characteristics as well. Comparison of the results obtained with trait based and situational based goal orientation measures would reveal the best way of testing the role of goal orientation on feedback seeking.

The third limitation was related to the measurement of feedback seeking motives. The motives were assessed by the scale based on Western classification of motives. This scale was used in the Turkish context for the first time and the factor structure was found to be quite different from the one reported by Tuckey and her colleagues (2002) for Australian employee and student samples. Although

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reliability estimates were acceptable, this unexpected factor structure poses questions about the generalizability of the results concerning motives. The use of a culture-specific scale may have yielded a more interpretable factor structure and different results about the motives of Turkish employee for seeking feedback. Future studies could make use of either this scale to test the generalizability of the factor structure reported in this study or a new scale that has been devised for a Turkish sample.

The forth limitation was about the measurement of feedback seeking behaviors. Participants indicated the frequency of demonstrating feedback seeking behaviors after reading the scenarios or hypothetical situations, which gave them information about the expected feedback sign and task characteristics. However, scenarios and hypothetical situations may not have been powerful enough to create performance expectancies as intended. Although the analysis on the manipulation check item confirmed that people had understood the performance level described in the scenarios, scenarios might not have been powerful enough to create performance expectancies, as intended. In real life organizations, where meeting performance standards are essential to be successful, the cost of being incompetent is higher than the cost perceived in the scenarios. This perception difference could have affected the self-reported feedback seeking behaviors of employees in an unexpected way. The frequency of demonstrating feedback seeking behaviors in real life organizations might be different from the frequency reported in this study. Therefore, it is impossible to make firm judgments about the feedback seeking mechanism in organizations. Future studies could use observation or diary keeping techniques to record feedback seeking behaviors of employees. These techniques may enable researchers to understand the feedback seeking motives and behaviors of employees in field settings.

Another limitation was about the way the data were obtained. The data of this study relied on self reports of the employees. This method was chosen because no other source could provide the detailed information about the goal orientation, self -efficacy, motives, and feedback seeking behaviors of the employees. However, the use of purely self-report methodology to obtain information is questionable because the ability of participants to analyze and

indicate their behavior can be biased by their need for achievement, security and social acceptance. Future studies could make use of other sources such as company reports, supervisor or peer opinions to obtain information about the feedback seeking behaviors of employees. This is also essential to minimize common method bias threat that existed for the present study.

Finally, this study revealed the main and interaction effects of goal orientation, feedback sign, motives and self-efficacy on feedback seeking behaviors of employees. Yet, there are other factors that may affect the behaviors of employees but not considered in this study. For example, tolerance for ambiguity or self esteem may change the magnitude of relationship between goal orientation and motives by making people more or less receptive to feedback. Future studies should take into account these factors as well.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRRE INFORMATION FORM
&
DEMOGRAPHICS SCALE

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

PSİKOLOJİ BÖLÜMÜ

GERİ BİLDİRİM ARAMA DAVRANIŞLARI ANKETİ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÇALIŞMASI

2005

AÇIKLAMA

Bu araştırmanın amacı çalışanların geri bildirim edinme davranışlarını etkileyen temel faktörleri araştırmaktır. Lütfen anketi doldurmaya başlamadan önce ölçeklerin başında yer alan açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Anketi eksiksiz olarak doldurmanız ve sorulara içtenlikle cevap vermeniz araştırmamızdan sağlıklı bilgiler edinebilmemiz için çok önemlidir. Lütfen, anlaşılmayan yerlerle ilgili sorularınızı ve eleştirilerinizi anketin sonunda yer alan geri bildirimler bölümüne yazınız.

Ankette, katılımcılardan kimlik belirtici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Bu çalışmada toplanan veriler tamamen bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacak ve cevaplar sadece araştırmacılar tarafından görülecektir. Katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük temelindedir; ancak katılımınız araştırmamız için önemli bir katkı sağlayacaktır. **Bu nedenle bütün soruları eksiksiz olarak cevaplamanız çok önemlidir.** Bu araştırmaya yönelik sorularınızı aşağıda isimleri verilmiş olan kişilere yöneltebilirsiniz. **Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.**

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BİRİNCİ BÖLÜM

Bu ankete isim yazmanız gerekmemektedir. Ancak, aşağıdaki bilgileri araştırmamızın sağlığı ve güvenilirliği açısından tam ve doğru olarak doldurmanız yararlı olacaktır.

Kişisel Bilgiler:

1. Cinsiyetiniz (uygun olanı işaretleyiniz): Erkek _____   Kadın _____

2. Yaşınız (yazınız) : _____

3. Eğitim Durumunuzu yansıtan uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz:

    --- İlkokul

    --- Ortaokul

    --- Lise

    --- İki yıllık yüksek okul

    --- Üniversite (4 yıllık fakülte)

    --- Yüksek Lisans

    --- Doktora

4. Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz pozisyon: _____

5. Bu kurumda kaç aydır / yıldır çalışıyorsunuz? _____ ay/ yıl

6. Toplam olarak kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz (bu kurumdaki ve daha önce çalıştığınız yerlerdeki süre dâhil)? _____ yıl

APPENDIX B

SCENARIO 1

(ANALYSIS OF FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIORS IN POSITIVE PERFORMANCE SITUATIONS)

İKİNCİ BÖLÜM

Bu bölümde, işyerinizde karşılaşabileceğiniz çeşitli durumlarla ilgili senaryolar anlatılmaktadır. Sizden istenen, öncelikle senaryoyu dikkatli okumanız ve böyle bir durumla karşılaştığınızda ne yapacağınızı düşünmenizdir. Daha sonra, böyle bir durum karşısında gösterilecek davranışları (yan sayfa) okuyarak her bir davranışı ne sıklıkla yapacağınızı belirtmeniz gerekmektedir. Sıralanan davranışlar doğru ya da yanlış davranışlar olarak değerlendirilmemelidir. Bu yüzden, lütfen sorulara böyle bir durumda, gerçekten nasıl davranacağınızı düşünerek cevap veriniz.

SENARYO 1:

Amirinizin sizden önemli bir konu hakkında rapor hazırlamanızı istediğini düşünün. Daha önce pek çok rapor hazırlamış olmanıza rağmen, bu rapor konusunda endişelisiniz çünkü sizden tam olarak ne beklendiğini bilmiyorsunuz. Yine de, elinizden gelenin en iyisini yapmaya karar verdiniz. Günlerce uğraşıp bir rapor hazırladınız ve rapor tahmininizden önce bitmiş görünüyor. Raporun **iyi** olduğunu ve bu haliyle amirinize verebileceğinizi düşünüyorsunuz. Fakat raporu hemen teslim etmek yerine, çalışma arkadaşlarınıza ya da amirinize gidip fikirlerini sorup, rapor üzerinde değişiklik yapabilirsiniz. Tabii doğrudan sorular sormak yerine, sizin hazırladığınıza benzeyen raporları inceleyebilir ya da raporu verdikten sonra insanların tepkilerini de gözlemleyebilirsiniz.

Lütfen yukarıdaki durumu yaşadığınızda ne yapacağınızı düşünün ve aşağıda sıralanan her bir davranışı ne kadar sıklıkla gerçekleştireceğinizi belirtiniz.

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH DIRECT INQUIRY FROM SUPERVISOR

| 1. | Tamamen teslim etmeden önce, amirimden raporu inceleyip, geribildirim vermesini isterim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH DIRECT INQUIRY FROM COWORKER

| 2. | Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan hazırladığım raporu inceleyip, görüşlerini belirtmelerini isterim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH REQUESTING THIRD PARTIES TO OBTAIN INFORMATION

| 3. | Raporu amirime teslim eder, onun raporla ile ilgili ne düşündüğümü öğrenmek için, kendime yakın gördüğüm kişilerden bilgi edinmelerini isterim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH DIRECT INQUIRY FROM SUPERVISOR

| 4. | Raporu teslim ettikten bir süre sonra amirime gidip, geribildirim isterim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH MONITORING COWORKERS

| 5. | Performansımın çalışma arkadaşlarım tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için onların davranışlarını gözlemlerim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

LONGING FOR FEEDBACK SEEKING

| 6. | Amirimin raporla ilgili görüşlerini öğrenmek için, onun raporumu incelemesi ve görüşlerini bana bildirmesini beklerim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH MONITORING SUPERVISOR

| 7. | Performansımın amirim tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için, onun bana nasıl davrandığına dikkat ederim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH INDIRECT INQUIRY

| 8. | Amirime gider, analizle doğrudan ilgili olmayan sorular sorar, verdiği cevaplara bakarak, analizim hakkında ne düşündüğünü öğrenmeye çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

	LONGING FOR FEEDBACK					
9.	Hazırladığım raporla ilgili hissettiklerimin yeterli olacağını düşünüp, başkalarının (amirimin ya da çalışma arkadaşlarımın) düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5

10.	Diğer (Lütfen, böyle bir durumda yukarıda sıralan davranışlar dışında gerçekleştireceğiniz davranışı belirtiniz ve bu davranışı derecelendiriniz):	1	2	3	4	5

Sizce bu raporun hazırlanmasında gösterilen performans düzeyi nedir?*

Çok Kötü	Kötü	Ne iyi, ne kötü	İyi	Çok iyi
1	2	3	4	5

- **This question is a manipulation-check question. It intended to measure whether or not people had positive performance expectancy after reading the scenario below.**

APPENDIX C

SCENARIO 2

(ANALYSIS OF FEEDBACK SEEKING BEHAVIORS IN NEGATIVE PERFORMANCE SITUATIONS)

SENARYO 2

Genel müdürlük, amirinizden, çalıştığınız bölümün geçen altı aylık dönemdeki faaliyetlerini kapsayan detaylı bir analiz istiyor. Her sene amiriniz, çalışanlardan gerekli bilgileri toplayıp, analizi kendi yaptığı halde, bu sene çeşitli nedenlerle bu işi sizin yapmanızı istiyor. Çalışma arkadaşlarınız size tüm gerekli bilgileri veriyor. Artık sizden beklenen bütün bilgileri birleştirip, kapsamlı bir analiz yapmak.

İki haftalık yoğun bir çalışmadan sonra, analizi bitiriyorsunuz. Fakat doğruluğundan emin olmadığınız kısımlar var ve genel olarak analizin **çok da istenildiği gibi olmadığını** hissediyorsunuz. Fakat amirinizin size verdiği zaman dolduğu için, analizi teslim etmek zorunda kaldınız. Amirinizin bu işe önem verdiğini ve yazdıklarınızı okuyacağını biliyorsunuz. Artık bu analiz için yapabileceğiniz bir şey yok ama gelecekte aynı problemleri yaşamamak için çalışma arkadaşlarınızın ya da amirinizin tavsiyesini alabilirsiniz. Ama, onlara fikirlerini sormak hatalarınıza dikkat çekebilir ve yıl sonu performans değerlendirmesine olumsuz yansıyabilir.

Lütfen yukarıdaki durumu yaşadığınızda ne yapacağınızı düşünün ve aşağıda sıralanan her bir davranışı ne kadar sıklıkla gerçekleştireceğinizi belirtiniz.

Feedback Seeking Through Direct Inquiry from Coworkers

1.	Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan hazırladığım analizi inceleyip görüşlerini belirtmelerini isterim	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Third parties

2.	Kendime yakın gördüğüm kişilerden, amirimin analizim hakkında ne düşündüğünü öğrenmelerini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Supervisors

3.	Amirime giderim ve analizimle ilgili ne düşündüğünü açıkça sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5

Longing For Feedback

4.	Amirimin analizle ilgili görüşlerini almak için yıl sonundaki performans değerlendirmesine kadar beklerim	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking Through Monitoring Supervisor

5.	Performansımın amirim tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için, onun bana nasıl davrandığına dikkat ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking Through Indirecy Inquiry

6.	Amirime gider, analizle doğrudan ilgili olmayan sorular sorar, verdiği cevaplara bakarak, analizim hakkında ne düşündüğünü öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

Longing For Feedback

7.	Hazırladığım analizle ilgili hissettiklerimin yeterli olacağını düşünür ve başkalarının düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5

8.	Diğer (Lütfen, böyle bir durumda yukarıda sıralan davranışlar dışında gerçekleştireceğiniz davranışı belirtiniz ve bu davranışı derecelendiriniz):	1	2	3	4	5

Sizce bu raporun hazırlanmasında gösterilen performans düzeyi nedir?*

Çok Kötü	Kötü	Ne iyi, ne kötü	İyi	Çok iyi
1	2	3	4	5

- **This question is a manipulation-check question. It intended to measure whether or not people had positive performance expectancy after reading the scenario below.**

APPENDIX D

SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

by

Schwarzer & Jerussalem (1992)

ÜÇÜNCÜ BÖLÜM

Aşağıda çeşitli durumlarla karşılaştıklarında insanların neler hissedebileceklerini yansıtan ifadeler sıralanmıştır. Lütfen verilen ölçeği kullanarak, sıralanan ifadelerin sizin düşüncelerinizi veya hissettiklerinizi ne kadar yansıttığını belirtiniz ve uygun rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 = Kesinlikle doğru değil 2= Doğru değil 3= Ne doğru, ne yanlış 4= Daha doğru 5= Tümüyle doğru						
1.	Yeni bir durumla karşılaştığımda ne yapmam gerektiğini bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Beklenmedik durumlarda nasıl davranmam gerektiğini her zaman bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Bana karşı çıkıldığında kendimi kabul ettirecek çare ve yolları bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Ne olursa olsun, sorunların üstesinden gelirim.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Zor sorunların çözümünü eğer gayret edersem her zaman bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Tasarılarımı gerçekleştirmek ve hedeflerime erişmek bana güç gelmez.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Bir sorunla karşılaştığım zaman onu halledebilmeye yönelik birçok fikirlerim vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Güçlükleri soğukkanlılıkla karşılarım, çünkü yeteneklerime her zaman güvenebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Ani olayların da hakkından geleceğimi sanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Her sorun için bir çözümüm vardır.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

**(HYPOTHETICAL SITUATIONS MEASURING PEOPLE'S FEEDBACK
SEEKING BEHAVIORS BY MANIPULATING TASK IMPORTANCE &
PERFORMANCE LEVEL)**

1st HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION-Important Task-Above Performance

Önemli bir görevde, **beklenenin oldukça üzerinde** bir performans gösterdiğinizi hissettiğiniz zaman, aşağıda sıralanan davranışları ne kadar sıklıkla gösterirsiniz? Lütfen verilen ölçeği kullanarak, sıralanan davranışları ne sıklıkta göstereceğinizi belirtiniz (Uygun rakamı daire içine alınız).

1= HİÇBİR ZAMAN
2= NADİREN
3= ARA SIRA
4= SIK SIK
5= HER ZAMAN

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH DIRECT INQUIRY FROM SUPERVISOR					
1. Göstermiş olduğum başarıya dikkat çekmek için, amirime gider, performansım hakkında sorular sorar ve ondan bilgi vermesini isterim	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH DIRECT INQUIRY FROM SUPERVISOR					
2. Her ne kadar performansımın iyi olduğunu düşünsem de, emin olmak için çalışma arkadaşlarımdan düşündüklerini söylemelerini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH INDIRECT INQUIRY					
3. Performansım ile ilgili doğrudan sorular sormak yerine, çalışma arkadaşlarıma dolaylı sorular sorup, bu görevde başarılı olup olmadığımı öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH MONITORING COWORKERS					
4. Performansımın çalışma arkadaşlarım tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için onların davranışlarını gözlemlerim.	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH MONITORING SUPERVISORS					
5. Performansımın amirim tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için, onun bana nasıl davrandığına dikkat ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH THIRD PARTIES						
6.	Kendime yakın gördüğüm kişilerden, performansım hakkında bilgi edinmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

LONGING FOR FEEDBACK						
7.	Performansım ile ilgili kendi hissettiklerimin yeterli olacağını düşünüp, başkalarının düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Diğer (Lütfen, böyle bir durumda yukarıda sıralan davranışlar dışında gerçekleştireceğiniz davranışı belirtiniz ve bu davranışı derecelendiriniz):	1	2	3	4	5

2nd HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION-Important Task-Below Performance

Önemli bir görevde, **beklenenin oldukça altında** bir performans gösterdiğinizi hissettiğiniz zaman, aşağıda sıralanan davranışları ne kadar sıklıkla gösterirsiniz? Lütfen verilen ölçeği kullanarak, sıralanan davranışları ne sıklıkta göstereceğinizi belirtiniz (Uygun rakamı daire içine alınız).

1= HİÇBİR ZAMAN
2= NADİREN
3= ARA SIRA
4= SIK SIK
5= HER ZAMAN

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Supervisors					
1.	Amirimin geribildirim vermesini beklemeden, onun yanına gider, performansım hakkında ne düşündüğünü öğrenmek isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Third Parties					
2.	Kendime yakın gördüğüm kişilerden, performansım hakkında bilgi edinmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Indirect Inquiry					
3.	Performansım ile ilgili doğrudan sorular sormak yerine, dolaylı sorular sorup, bu görevde iyi olup olmadığımı öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Monitoring Coworkers					
4.	Performansımın çalışma arkadaşlarım tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için onların davranışlarını gözlemlerim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Coworkers					
5.	Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan, göstermiş olduğum performans hakkında düşündüklerini söylemelerini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking Through Monitoring Supervisor					
6.	Performansımın amirim tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için, onun bana nasıl davrandığına dikkat ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

	Longing for Feedback					
7.	Performansım ile ilgili kendi hissettiklerimin yeterli olacağını düşünüp, başkalarının düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Diğer (Lütfen, böyle bir durumda yukarıda sıralan davranışlar dışında gerçekleştireceğiniz davranışı belirtiniz ve bu davranışı derecelendiriniz):	1	2	3	4	5

3rd HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION- Unimportant Task- Above Performance

Önemsiz bir görevde, **beklenenin oldukça üzerinde** bir performans gösterdiğinizi hissettiğiniz zaman, aşağıda sıralanan davranışları ne kadar sıklıkla gösterirsiniz? (Uygun rakamı daire içine alınız).

1= HİÇBİR ZAMAN
2= NADİREN
3= ARA SIRA
4= SIK SIK
5= HER ZAMAN

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Supervisors					
1.	Amirimin yanına gider ve ona performansım hakkında ne düşündüğünü sorarım.	1 2 3 4 5

Longing for Feedback					
2.	Performansımla ilgili bilgi edinmek için çaba göstermem.	1 2 3 4 5

Feedback Seeking through Indirect Inquiry					
3.	Performansım ile ilgili doğrudan sorular sormak yerine, dolaylı sorular sorup, bu görevde gerçekten iyi olup olmadığımı öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1 2 3 4 5

Feedback Seeking through Monitoring Coworkers					
4.	Performansımın çalışma arkadaşlarım tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için onların davranışlarını gözlemlerim.	1 2 3 4 5

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Coworkers					
5.	Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan, göstermiş olduğum performans hakkında düşündüklerini söylemelerini isterim.	1 2 3 4 5

Feedback Seeking through Monitoring Supervisor					
6.	Performansımın amirim tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için, onun bana nasıl davrandığına dikkat ederim.	1 2 3 4 5

	Feedback Seeking through Third Parties					
7.	Kendime yakın gördüğüm kişilerden, performansım hakkında bilgi edinmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

	Longing for Feedback					
8.	Performansım ile ilgili kendi hissettiklerimin yeterli olacağını düşünüp, başkalarının düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Diğer (Lütfen, böyle bir durumda yukarıda sıralan davranışlar dışında gerçekleştireceğiniz davranışı belirtiniz ve bu davranışı derecelendiriniz):	1	2	3	4	5

4th HYPOTHETICAL SITUATION- Unimportant Task- Below Performance

Önemsiz bir görevde, **beklenenin oldukça altında** bir performans gösterdiğinizi hissettiğiniz zaman, aşağıda sıralanan davranışları ne kadar sıklıkla gösterirsiniz? (Uygun rakamı daire içine alınız).

1= HİÇBİR ZAMAN
2= NADİREN
3= ARA SIRA
4= SIK SIK
5= HER ZAMAN

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Supervisor					
1. Amirimin yanına gider, ve ona performansım hakkında ne düşündüğünü açıkça sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5

Longing for Feedback					
2. Nasıl olsa önemsiz bir görev diye düşünür ve performansımla ilgili bilgi edinmeye çalışmam	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Indirect Inquiry					
3. Performansım ile ilgili doğrudan sorular sormak yerine, dolaylı sorular sorup, bu görevde iyi olup olmadığımı öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking Through Monitoring Coworker					
4. Performansımın çalışma arkadaşlarım tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için onların davranışlarını gözlemlerim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Direct Inquiry from Coworkers					
5. Çalışma arkadaşlarımdan, göstermiş olduğum performans hakkında düşündüklerini söylemelerini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Monitoring the Supervisor					
6. Performansımın amirim tarafından nasıl değerlendirildiğini öğrenmek için, onun bana nasıl davrandığına dikkat ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking through Third Parties						
7.	Kendime yakın gördüğüm kişilerden, performansım hakkında bilgi edinmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

Longing Feedback Seeking						
8.	Performansım ile ilgili kendi hissettiklerimin yeterli olacağını düşünüp, başkalarının düşüncelerini öğrenmeye çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F

GOAL ORIENTATION SCALE
by

VANDEWALLE (1997)

BEŞİNCİ BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin her biri, insanların iş ortamında karşılaşabilecekleri çeşitli durumlardaki tercihlerini ifade etmektedir. Her ifadeye ne kadar katıldığınızı (ifadenin sizi ne kadar yansıttığını) belirtmek için o ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa uygun olan rakamı yazınız.

<u>Verilen ifadeye ne kadar katılıyorsunuz?</u>

1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2 = Katılmıyorum
3 = Ne katılıyorum, ne katılmıyorum
4 = Katılıyorum
5= Kesinlikle katılıyorum

LEARNING-GOAL ORIENTATION

1.	Kendisinden çok şey öğrenebileceğim zorlayıcı bir görevi seçmeyi isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Sıklıkla yeni bilgi ve beceriler edinebileceğim fırsatlar ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	İşte yeni yetenekler edineceğim zorlayıcı ve meydan okuyucu görevlerden hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	İş yeteneğimi geliştirmek, risk almaya değer.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Yüksek seviyede yetenek ve beceri isteyen durumlarda çalışmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

PERFORMANCE-PROVE ORIENTATION

2.	İş arkadaşlarımdan daha iyi performans gösterebileceğimi göstermek benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	İşyerindeki kişilere yeteneğimi kanıtlayabilmenin yollarını bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	İşyerindekilerin işimi ne kadar iyi yaptığımın farkında olmalarından hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Kabiliyetimi başkalarına kanıtlayabileceğim projelerde çalışmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

PERFORMANCE-AVOID ORIENTATION

3.	Eğer diğerlerine yetersiz görünme ihtimalim varsa, yeni bir görev almaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Az yetenekli görünmekten kaçınmak, benim için yeni bir beceri öğrenmekten daha önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Eğer bir görevdeki performansım az yeteneğe sahip olduğumu gösterecekse, o görevi alma konusunda endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	İşte, kötü performans göstereceğim durumlardan kaçınmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

MOTIVES SCALE

by

TURKEY, BREWER, & WILLIAMSON (2002)

ALTINCI BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, insanların geribildirimle ilgili olarak hissettiklerini veya düşündüklerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen verilen ölçeği kullanarak, bu ifadelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her ifade için katılım derecenizi belirten rakamı, o ifadenin sağındaki kutuya işaretleyiniz.

	1 = KESİNLİKLE DOĞRU DEĞİL 2 = DOĞRU DEĞİL 3 = NE DOĞRU, NE YANLIŞ 4 = DOĞRU 5 = KESİNLİKLE DOĞRU					
1.	Performansım hakkında faydalı bilgiler edinmek benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	İşteki iyi performansımı, diğer insanların duyması hoşuma gider.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Performansım hakkında geribildirim almak, becerilerimi geliştirmeme yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Olumsuz geribildirim kişisel değerimi düşürmez, bu yüzden ondan kaçınmaya çalışmam.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Geri bildirim istediğimde, insanların hakkımda ne düşünecekleri konusunda endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Amirimden geri bildirim istemek performansımı arttırmak istediğimi göstermenin bir yoludur.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Nasıl performans gösterdiğimi bilmek için daha fazla bilgi edinmek isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Olumsuz geri bildirim almak, gerçekte kendim hakkındaki hislerimi değiştirmez.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Eğer geri bildirim istersem, nasıl bir izlenim bırakacağım hakkında endişelenmem.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Geribildirim istediğim zaman, insanların bunu bilmesini isterim ki sorumluluk sahibi kişiliğimi gösterebileyim.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Performansım hakkında daha fazla yararlı bilgi edinmek isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Olumsuz geri bildirim aldığımda kendimi iyi hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5

	1 = KESİNLİKLE DOĞRU DEĞİL 2 = DOĞRU DEĞİL 3 = NE DOĞRU, NE YANLIŞ 4 = DOĞRU 5 = KESİNLİKLE DOĞRU					
13.	İnsanların, bana verilen olumlu geribildirimi duyup duymadıklarıyla ilgilenmem.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Performansım hakkında faydalı bilgi edinip edinmediğim konusunda endişe duymuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Kendimi hâlâ değerli hissedeceğim için, olumsuz geri bildirim almak hakkında gerçekten endişelenmem.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Aldığım geri bildirimin içeriğini insanların bilmesini umursamam.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Övüldüğüm zaman diğerlerinin bunu duymasını gerçekten istemem.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Geribildirim performansımı geliştirmek için yararlı değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Kendim hakkında kötü hissettirdiği için, olumsuz geribildirimden kaçınmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Amirimden geribildirim isterken insanların görüp görmemelerini umursamam.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Yararlı geribildirim edinmek benim için önemli değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Olumsuz olabilecek geribildirimler konusunda endişe duyarım çünkü eleştirilmek bana acı verir.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Diğer insanların aldığım bireysel geribildirimin içeriğini duymaları hakkında sıklıkla endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Performansım hakkındaki olumlu geribildirimin, diğerleri üzerinde olumlu izlenim yaratmasını umut ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Nasıl performans gösterdiğimi bilmek için, daha fazla geribildirime ihtiyaç duymuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Bir konuda nasıl performans gösterdiğimin insanlar tarafından bilinmesi beni endişelendirmez.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Başkalarını performansım hakkında aldığım olumlu geribildirimi öğrenmelerini sağlayarak etkilemeye ihtiyacım yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5

Geribildirimleriniz: Lütfen ankette anlaşılmayan ya da özellikle zorlandığınız bölümleri buraya yazınız.

KATILIMINIZ VE KATKILARINIZ İÇİN ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ.

APPENDIX H

VERSIONS

Version	1st Scenario	2nd Scenario	1st Hyp. Situation	2nd Hyp. Situation	3rd Hyp. Situation	4th Hyp. Situation
1	Scenario with positive performance expectancy	Scenario with negative performance expectancy	Important Task-Above Average Performance	Important Task-Below Average Performance	Unimportant Task-Above Average Performance	Unimportant Task- Below Average Performance
2	Scenario with negative performance expectancy	Scenario with positive performance expectancy	Important Task-Above Average Performance	Important Task-Below Average Performance	Unimportant Task-Above Average Performance	Unimportant Task- Below Average Performance
3	Scenario with positive performance expectancy	Scenario with negative performance expectancy	Unimportant Task-Above Average Performance	Unimportant Task- Below Average Performance	Important Task-Above Average Performance	Important Task-Below Average Performance
4	Scenario with negative performance expectancy	Scenario with positive performance expectancy	Important Task-Above Average Performance	Important Task-Below Average Performance	Unimportant Task-Above Average Performance	Unimportant Task- Below Average Performance