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**NEWCOMER SOCIALIZATION AND ONBOARDING AT AN AMERICAN
INDUSTRIAL MANUFACTURING COMPANY: EXAMINATION OF FEEDBACK
SEEKING BEHAVIORS OF NEW HIRES**

A Thesis in

Human Resources and Employment Relations

by

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ABSTRACT

It's important for businesses to understand why employees seek feedback and the effects that feedback has on newcomer's adjustment during the onboarding phase. The aim of this study is to examine the proactive behavior of feedback seeking in an organizational context. This thesis seeks to discover if goal orientation influences feedback seeking behaviors. Existing research focuses on feedback seeking correlation with goal orientation, but there is limited published research that provides findings beyond the feedback seeking relationship. This study analyzes if the relationship between goal orientations and feedback seeking leads to the socialization outcomes of organizational adjustment, work engagement and role self-efficacy. The moderating effect of perceived supervisor support on employee's feedback seeking behaviors are also explored. A survey distributed to 390 members of a rotational leadership program within a global American industrial manufacturing company asked new hires of their experience with the independent and dependent variables. The data analysis of 133 participants providing complete responses revealed significant findings between goal orientation (learning goal orientation and avoid failure orientation) and the purpose of feedback seeking, moderated by the presence of supervisor support. Feedback seeking was also found to lead to significant organizational outcomes. The findings and business implications of this thesis are discussed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Organizations invest in developing, designing, and executing a successful onboarding process for new hires because it is critical to the newcomer experience as it helps in socialization (Holton, 2001). The changing nature of the workforce requires organizations to tailor their onboarding approaches to meet and understand the needs of their employees. The continuous modifications and revisions to onboarding practices help to show the organization's commitment to their new employee's individual growth and success within the company.

New hires are important groups of employees within companies. From their entry into the organization throughout the beginning years are a critical time period for learning and development. Learning and development during that phase has long lasting effects on their future roles and career within the company. Throughout this time frame new hires actively seek to “make sense” of the organization by identifying credible sources to receive productive feedback and organization information (Louis, 1980). This information gained from others within the organization may be used to set and achieve individual goals which may include both learning and performance goals used to achieve greater success in their role. The process described above has been identified in the literature as newcomer socialization. Newcomer socialization is the transition process that transforms a new hire from an “organizational outsider” to an “insider.” During this time workers actively seek information about the job and organization, and find useful sources of this information to help make positive adjustments in the organization to lead to high performance (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker,

2007). New hires are continuously adjusting to their role by learning both behaviors and attitudes to become assimilated within their role (Schein, 1968).

In terms of a human resource perspective the faster new hires are able to gain knowledge specific to the firm, understand the firm's culture, and understand firm specific processes, the faster they can contribute to the organization's overall productivity and competitive edge (Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). In order to determine the effectiveness of current onboarding practices on new hires it's important to understand when workers seek information/feedback that will likely enhance their level of productivity within their role. Successful newcomer socialization can lead to many positive organizational outcomes relating to an employee's level of adjustment, engagement and performance early in their role. I will examine perceived newcomer fit, role self-efficacy and work engagement and newcomer feedback seeking behaviors. Perceived fit refers to the extent an individual perceives they fit in the company (Van Vuuren, Velkamp, de Jong, & Seydel, 2007). Self-efficacy in the context of this study is the belief or judgement that a newcomer can successfully perform his or her role, known as role self-efficacy (Saks, 1995). Lastly, work engagement in this study will focus on the amount the dedication and commitment an employee exerts within their role. These positive outcomes are indicators of how well new individuals assimilate into their role and the company. It's important to view how this relationship between socialization and organizational outcomes may differ based on the level of information seeking new hires engage in during their entrance into a company.

However, differences in individual's personality in situations of high achievement are likely to affect how proactive they are in engaging in feedback seeking and behaviors to reduce

job/task uncertainty (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Differences in individual socialization directly affect goal-directed behaviors and information acquisition. Goal orientation involves an employee's goal preferences in achievement situations that can be applied to work situations (Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien, 2007). For this study, the three specific dimensions of goal orientation that will be explored are components of personality characteristics: learning goal-orientation, performance goal-orientation and avoid failure orientation that employees pursue in settings of achievement at work. Learning-goal orientation in a work context refers to new situations where an individual develops their level of task competence by either acquiring work related skills or gaining the ability to master role related tasks (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Performance goal orientation is often described in previous research to encompass both prove and avoid dimensions (VandeWalle, 2001). (Heyman & Dweck, 1992) defined prove performance goal orientation as gaining favorable judgements when proving one's competence on a task. Avoid performance goal orientation, referred to as avoid failure goal orientation throughout this study, is defined as "the desire to avoid the disproving of one's competence and to avoid negative [or unfavorable] judgments about one's ability" (Heyman & Dweck, 1992). Employees pursue avoid failure goal orientation when they believe their skills to be in a "state of stagnation" (Dweck & Elliott, 1983). In work contexts, goal orientations are positively associated with the outcome of seeking feedback (VandeWalle, 1996). New hires use feedback to help them discover and develop skills to complete their work. Similarly, feedback can be used as an evaluation tool to help employees monitor and evaluate their progress as needed. However, the purpose or the timeframe of when new hires seek feedback may differ depending on their goal-orientation.

The concept of feedback seeking behavior was defined by Ashford and Cummings (1983), as “a conscious devotion of effort toward determining the correctness and adequacy of behaviors for attaining valued end states” (Ashford, 1986). Employees seek feedback for many reasons. Feedback can serve as valuable information on their performance and help them to learn the job. Seeking feedback in the workplace can be used as a method to reduce employees’ level of uncertainty on what tasks and behaviors are required to complete their work responsibilities (VandeWalle, 2003). Employees could also directly inquire feedback from others on how their work behaviors or quality of work is being evaluated from a supervisor (VandeWalle, 2003). Goal orientation and feedback seeking can be influenced by many factors within the workplace. I will analyze the impact that supervisors have on new hires’ feedback seeking behaviors. Perceived supervisor support is described as the general views developed by employees to which they believe their supervisors listen and value their contributions (Eisenberger, 2002). The relationship between new hires and supervisors is important to newcomer socialization. Supervisors are sources of feedback that help their subordinates learn role expectations: greater support from supervisors makes it more likely that new hires will seek information to help their level of socialization and adjustment, whereas lower levels of support can make it less likely for newcomers to seek information which can hinder their level of productivity.

For this study, the generation being surveyed in this work context are millennials in the beginning stages of their career as members of a rotational leadership program within a global American industrial manufacturing company. The purpose of this study is to examine the role

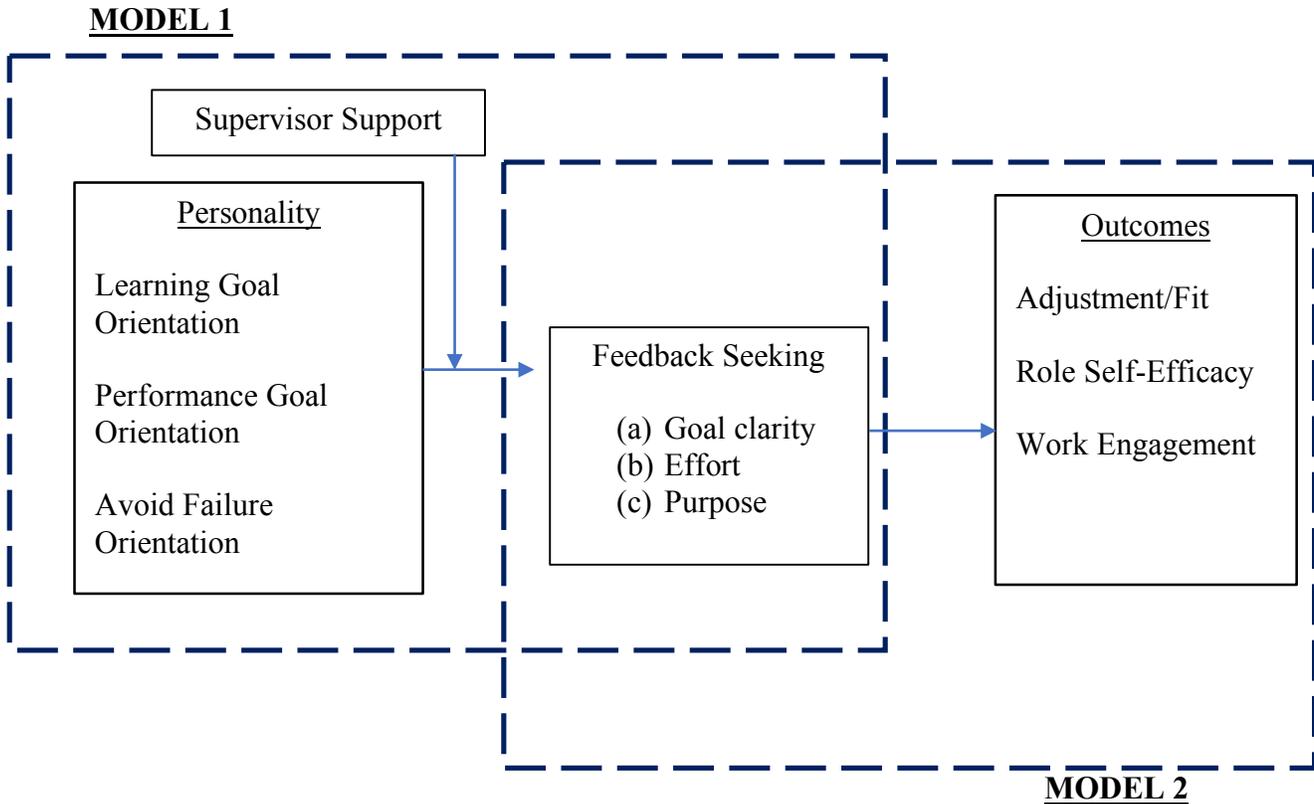
of newcomer personality in terms of three types of goal motivations and feedback seeking behaviors during the onboarding process in influencing work adjustment. I will investigate if feedback seeking behaviors lead to the individual outcomes of work adjustment of perceived fit, work engagement and high levels of role self-efficacy. An additional goal of this research is to examine if the relationship between personality goal motivations and feedback seeking differ depending on newcomer's perception of supervisor support in this work context.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

There is a growing interest from researchers in newcomer proactive behaviors with minimal research examining the factors that predict newcomer proactivity. Only a few studies examine the underlying concepts that affect socialization in an organizational context. In this study, I extend previous research by exploring the individual differences in newcomer proactive behaviors and the influence on organizational socialization outcomes with the presence of workplace support. Additionally, I explore the variable of feedback seeking as a multidimensional construct in terms of goal clarity, effort and purpose. Model 1 examines the direct relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking, the direct relationship between supervisor support and feedback seeking and the overall moderating interaction between goal orientation and feedback seeking with the presence of supervisor support, for complete model (see Figure.1) Some studies have ended with feedback seeking as an outcome whereas I extend the findings to examine subsequent outcomes adjustment/fit, self-efficacy, and engagement as shown in Model 2 of Figure 1. Theories and previous research findings are integrated to develop a model focused on feedback seeking in the workplace and its associated outcomes (See Figure. 1)

Figure 1: Hypothesized conceptual model of relationships



Model 1: Goal Orientations and Feedback Seeking

The concept of goal orientations being applied to achievement motivation originated from educational psychologists in the 1970's and 1980's (Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien, 2007). Goal orientation refers to an individual's goal preference and perceived ability during times of achievement (Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien, 2007). In goal literature by Dweck & Leggett (1988) presented findings in which goal orientation pursued by individuals may actually be a dimension of personality. Dweck & Leggett (1988) conceptualized two classes of

goal orientations based on personality: learning goal-orientation and performance goal-orientation. According to Dweck & Leggett (1988) learning goal orientation was defined as a way for individuals to develop competence through developing new skills and achieving task mastery. Individuals higher in performance goal orientation demonstrate and validate their competency levels through either seeking favorable judgements or avoiding negative judgements (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

These two classes of goal orientations are associated with how people interpret and respond in achievement situations based on cognitive frameworks. Different implicit theories about personal abilities are associated with learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation (VandeWalle, 2001). Learning goal orientation is related to the incremental theory where one's ability is seen as being malleable (VandeWalle, 2003). An individual's ability can be changed with effort and ongoing persistence, thereby adopting learning goals (Dweck & Leggett, 1986). Whereas performance goal orientation is the opposite interpretation of ability. Performance goal orientation is associated with an entity theory where one's ability is viewed as being innate and fixed making it difficult to develop over time, therefore adopting performance goals (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle,2003).

Goal orientations also influence the belief of how individuals view effort and what causes success. In learning goal orientation effort is believed to lead to success (VandeWalle,2001). Exerting additional effort is used as a strategy to achieve tasks and develop additional skills to help achieve future tasks. In performance goal-orientation, exerting more effort is believed to be detrimental and viewed as a way to compensate for low ability (VandeWalle,2001). Since ability is viewed as being fixed, an individual exerts more effort in

tasks is doing so due to the lack in natural talent. When faced with difficult tasks or failing a task, goal orientations influence different response patterns among individuals. Adaptive responses are patterns showcased by those with learning goal orientation (VandeWalle,2003). These individuals enjoy the challenge of having a difficult task by becoming more persistent and exerting more effort to develop and achieve their goals. Performance goal orientated individuals often pursue a maladaptive response pattern (VandeWalle,2003). They tend to withdraw from difficult tasks and report a lower interest in the tasks (VandeWalle,2003). This is a result of not wanting to showcase their incompetence by putting forth additional effort on hard tasks.

Research has identified these different goal orientation response patterns as important to the feedback seeking process (VandeWalle, 2003). Ashford & Cummings (1983) also supported the argument that individual goal preferences shape feedback seeking behaviors.

According to VandeWalle (2003) goal orientation influences an individual's interpretation of the purpose of feedback. People who possess higher learning-goal orientation use feedback to help them discover their errors and work to correct them. They use feedback as a way to develop skills and reach task mastery (Farr, 1993). Individuals who possess higher performance-goal orientation use feedback to reveal their competency level, feedback is seen as an evaluation and judgement about themselves. Prior research as described above often describes goal orientation as being two constructs, referring to learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation.

VandeWalle & Cummings (1997) treat goal orientation as a three-factor construct in their longitudinal field study surveying an undergraduate accounting course on goal orientation

and feedback. The three-factor construct were learning goal orientation, prove goal orientation and avoid goal orientation. They found a positive correlation between learning goal orientation and feedback seeking frequency (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). There was a negative correlation with the avoid scale and the prove scale group together as performance goal orientation and feedback seeking. They attributed this finding to be a result of the different response patterns between the two constructs. Learning goal orientation response patterns to feedback seeking are to demonstrate continued effort and persistence when faced with difficult tasks. Performance goal orientation response patterns are the opposite and demonstrate task withdrawal and helplessness to not seek feedback when confronted with difficult tasks.

A meta-analysis performed by Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien (2007) supported these findings. The authors found feedback seeking to be positively correlated to learning goal orientation, negatively correlated to avoid performance goal orientation and unrelated to prove goal orientation (both avoid and prove goal orientation were grouped together to describe the larger construct of performance goal orientation). Based on these findings it can be concluded that learning goal orientation is associated with positive behaviors of feedback seeking and performance goal orientation is related to negative behaviors. This paper intends to further these findings of goal orientation by examining learning goal orientation and performance goal orientation as a three-factor construct where prove and avoid goals are to be treated separately (prove goal orientation will refer to performance goal orientation and avoid goal orientation will refer to avoid failure orientation throughout the paper).

Impact of Goal Orientations on Antecedents of Feedback

A second study performed by VandeWalle & Cummings (1997) examined the relationship between goal orientations and feedback seeking frequency. Study participants read work scenarios of completing a difficult project. They were then asked questions about their willingness to want to seek feedback to help them complete the hypothetical project. Based on the author's belief of using feedback as diagnostic information for ability development, proposed learning goal oriented individuals would seek feedback for development based on how they value feedback for development, known as expectancy value (VandeWalle, 2003). In contrast, performance goal oriented individuals would not be as willing to engage in seeking feedback because of the cost associated with revealing one's inadequacy by asking for feedback, known as self-presentation cost (VandeWalle, 2003). The data analysis supported their hypotheses and they found a positive relationship of learning goal orientation with the willingness to seek feedback and a negative relationship of performance goal orientation with the willingness to seek feedback both mediated by value and cost cognitions (VandeWalle, 2003).

VandeWalle (2000) conducted a field study with sales employees focused on the influence of learning goal orientation, which supported the findings of VandeWalle and Cumming (1997) study addressed above. VandeWalle (2000) found that learning goal orientation had a negative relationship with the self-presentation cost of seeking feedback and a positive relationship with the expectancy value of seeking feedback (VandeWalle, 2003). From this study, they concluded that expectancy value was the strongest predictor of feedback seeking frequency (VandeWalle, 2003).

Due to the theory and empirical evidence that the differences in feedback seeking frequency is based on the different value and cost cognitions learning and performance goals oriented individuals have, it can be concluded that learning goal oriented individuals are more likely to seek feedback compared to performance goal oriented individuals.

Another study by Ashford & Cummings (1983) looked into the methods of feedback seeking; monitoring and inquiry. Ashford & Cummings (1983) found that performance goal oriented individuals are more responsive to feedback seeking because of self-presentation cost which would make them more likely to engage in monitoring as a method to receive feedback. Therefore, performance oriented individuals would rather observe the people in their environment as feedback to evaluate their ability. This would allow them gain feedback without revealing inadequacy by having to ask for feedback but privately gain feedback from observing. Learning goal oriented individuals are motivated to use both monitoring and inquiry methods for seeking feedback because of their desire to develop their ability. Therefore, these individuals proactively ask for feedback and observe to gain feedback. Individual goal preferences and perception of ability affect how and when employees inquire and proactively search for feedback from others rather than passively waiting to receive it. The first relationship in Model 1 (shown in Figure 1) is to determine how personality in terms of goal orientations, influence feedback seeking behaviors of new hires.

Overall, goal orientations affect an individual's purpose to seek feedback, their perception of ability, the amount of effort exerted, and their response to achievement oriented tasks. I extend on the findings of some research, (Elliot (1994) and VandeWalle (1996) by examining goal orientations as a three-factor model as opposed to the previous view of a two-

construct model. I will be analyzing learning goal orientation, performance goal and avoid failure orientation influencing the three dimensions of feedback seeking (goal clarity, purpose and effort) in a work context.

H1(a): Learning goal orientation will be positively related to feedback seeking goal clarity.

H1(b): Learning goal orientation will be positively related to feedback seeking purpose.

H1(c): Learning goal orientation will be positively related to feedback seeking effort.

H2(a): Performance goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking goal clarity.

H2(b): Performance goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking purpose

H2(c): Performance goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking effort.

H3(a): Avoid goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking goal clarity.

H3(b): Avoid goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking purpose.

H3(c): Avoid goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking effort.

Perceived Supervisor Support and Feedback Seeking

According to organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), employees have beliefs about the extent to which organizations value their contributions, opinions, and actions. The same belief applies to employee's perceptions of supervisors. Socialization literature scholars have argued that the interaction between new hires and supervisors is prominent in newcomer socialization (see Graen, 1976 interpersonal role making model for newcomer socialization process; Jablin, 2001; Louis, 1990; Reichers, 1987). Supervisors act as agents of an organization that play a vital role in the success of a new hire. After all supervisors carry the "responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinate's performance" (Eisenberger, Rhoades, Stinglhamber, Sucharski & Vandenberghe, 2002). An employee's adjustment in a new company impacts their level of productivity, and in turn, the success of the organization. Perceived supervisor support is characterized as an employee's perception that their supervisor listens and values their contributions, opinions, and actions (Eisenberger, Rhoades, Stinglhamber, Sucharski & Vandenberghe, 2002). Supervisors serve as important sources of feedback that help to contribute to new hires role learning process and role expectations (Graen, 1976). Jokisaari & Nurmi (2002) suggested continuous supervisor support is needed even after the "honeymoon period" (6-21 months of entry) for role clarity and to provide feedback. Their findings suggest

that support and feedback from a newcomer's supervisor is needed after entry into the organization (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2002).

Empirical research also shows that supervisor support at work causes employees to engage in proactive behavior because of reciprocity and it reduces the social costs for seeking help from others (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Beenen, Pichler & Levy (2016) analyzed the relationship between new hires perception of supervisory support for work autonomy and how support for autonomy impacted the feedback seeking process. They suggest that supervisory support for informal feedback and work autonomy encouraged new hires to seek feedback (Beenen, Pichler & Levy, 2016).

Beenen, Pichler & Levy (2016) surveyed 468 MBA students from 10 MBA programs across the United States working in full-time internships. Subordinate feedback seeking was measured with items developed by Ashford & Black (1996) on a five-item scale. Beenen, Pichler & Levy (2016) found statistically significant results in the positive correlation between perceived autonomy support and feedback seeking behaviors ($p < .001$), with perceived autonomy support explaining 8% of the variance in feedback seeking.

Another study by Feldman & Brett (1983) looked into the behaviors of new hires and how they adjusted to feedback seeking in their new organization. Feldman & Brett (1983) found that new hires need both task help and social support when entering their role. Study findings concluded that when new hires felt secure in their role they were more open to engaging in feedback seeking from their supervisor.

As we have seen from the findings from Graen (1976) and Jokisaari & Nurmi (2002), supervisor support influences how proactive new hires are in seeking feedback related to both

informal and job related feedback. We argue that supervisor support of the lack of supervisor support impacts the feedback seeking process at the point of entry in an organization.

Due to overwhelming research from previous studies finding that supervisor support is a significant influencer in employee proactive socialization behaviors, it can be concluded that an employee's perception of supervisor support will impact the proactive socialization behavior of feedback seeking for development or competency validation. As suggested by VandeWalle & Cummings (1997), an employee's engagement in feedback seeking is impacted by their goal orientations. Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien supported the findings of VandeWalle & Cummings (1997) showing that learning goal orientation, prove goal orientation and avoid goal orientation are significantly correlated to feedback seeking. Likewise, Ashford & Cummings (1983) showed the relationship between goal orientation and whether an employee is learning goal oriented will impact their willingness, effort and purpose of when they seek feedback. Likewise, this relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking will be different for performance goal oriented and avoid failure oriented individuals. In this sense, an employee's goal orientation influences feedback seeking behaviors (goal clarity, purpose and effort) moderated by perceived supervisor support.

H4: The positive relationship between learning goal orientation and feedback seeking (a: goal clarity; b: purpose; c: effort) will be stronger when perceived supervisor support is higher.

H5: The negative relationship between performance goal orientation and feedback seeking (a: goal clarity; b: purpose; c: effort) will be weaker when perceived supervisor support is higher.

H6: The negative relationship between avoid failure goal orientation and feedback seeking (a: goal clarity; b: purpose; c: effort) will be weaker when perceived supervisor support is higher.

Model 2: Feedback-seeking Outcomes

The proactive engagement in feedback seeking in the workplace plays a vital role in organizational outcomes related to one's role. Feedback seeking behavior leads to short-term outcomes that accumulate over time resulting in long-term outcomes that impact employee attitudes about their job, themselves and performance (Morrison ,2002). It's common for workplace feedback to be positively or negatively linked to task performance (Ilgen et al.,1979). However, feedback seeking not only influences performance or task performance outcomes, it impacts other variables related to individual's perception of their fit and commitment in the company. The aim of this study is to examine the influence of new hire feedback seeking behaviors (*goal clarity; purpose; effort*) on outcomes of newcomer socialization: adjustment (fit), work engagement and self-efficacy (as shown in Model 2).

Perceived fit

Feedback seeking is a way that employees can be proactive when dealing with uncertainty at work and adjusting in their role (Ashford & Black, 1996). As suggested by Miller & Jablin (1991) employees are able to reduce uncertainty and establish their fit in an organization by gaining information related to their performance, social expectation and work setting. However, there has been minimal research conducted on how person-organizational fit is an outcome of the newcomer socialization process (Cable & Parsons, 2001). We can imply that newcomer socialization and person-organization fit are related because within the socialization process newcomers learn how to respond to their environment and engage with others which helps strengthen fit (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Previous studies have found socialization tactics to be related to newcomer adjustment. (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005). Studies by Saks and Ashforth (1997) and Cooper-Thomas & Anderson (2002) found that feedback seeking mediated the relationship between socialization tactics and outcomes. Saks & Ashforth (1997) suggested that the purpose of engaging in socialization tactics is to reduce the level of uncertainty experienced in the early phase of socialization. They examined the relationship of between socialization and information acquisition (feedback and observation) and found that socialization was positively related to the feedback frequency of newcomers. In addition to finding information acquisition being positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and task mastery. They argued that socialization tactics lead to information acquisition, which explains the relation between socialization and outcomes. Cooper-Thomas & Anderson (2002) added evidence to support Saks & Ashforth (1997) findings by finding that

organizational socialization tactics facilitate positive attitudinal work outcomes when information acquisition is present.

A study by Cable & Parson (2001) examined the relationship between socialization tactics and person-organizational fit. Cable & Parson (2001) found that newcomer socialization tactics that reduced ambiguity was linked to greater person-organizational fit. These findings are important to work-related settings as they imply that socialization tactics used to help employees understand their role either set forth by the company or the individual can lead to better fit and adjustment. It has been determined by previous research that employees can aid in their adjustment during the point of organizational entry by seeking feedback by supervisors or to fit the norms (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer & Green, 1998; Griffin, Colella, & Goparaju, 2000; Morrison, 1993; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) However, individual differences in the level of proactivity during socialization may moderate the level of person-organization fit in a new hire (Ashford & Black, 1996; Crant, 2000).

H7: New hire feedback seeking behaviors will be positively related to newcomer adjustment/fit

Work Engagement

Work engagement is a studied outcome of newcomer socialization and has captured the interest of scholars and practitioners because of the impact it has on individuals and organizations (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Work engagement can be characterized as “the extent to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of his/her roles” (Saks,

2006). Work engagement can be viewed as a positive state of fulfillment used as motivation in work related contexts (Won Hong, 2014).

There are three major dimensions of work engagement: vigor, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli, 2004). Vigor is defined as “high levels of energy and mental resilience while working; dedication concerns being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge; absorption is characterized by being fully focused and happily engrossed in one’s work such that time seems to pass quickly and one has difficulty detaching oneself from work” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Work engagement is a state of mind when employees get physically, mentally and cognitively involved in their work (Kahn (1990). Engaged employees invest more effort known as vigor, demonstrate dedication in the form of significance, enthusiasm, pride and challenge and are happily absorbed in their work (Schaufeli et al., 2006). It can be concluded that work engagement shows a healthy relationship between individuals and their work roles.

Feedback seeking is viewed as a proactive work behavior to improve current job performance and discover new ways to limit the amount of role uncertainty rather than passively accepting present conditions at work (Crant, 2000, p. 436). As suggested by Grant and Ashford (2008) the process of proactivity can be applied to many situational circumstances whether in a work-related context or throughout other actions in life by planning ahead, anticipating outcomes and being motivated to make an impact. However, there is lack in research regarding the relationship between proactive behavior and work engagement in the workplace. According to Won Hong (2014) mixed results are shown from empirical studies

that do investigate the relationship between the two constructs of proactive behavior and work engagement.

In a cross-national study, Salanova and Schaufeli's (2008) found work engagement to be a determinant of proactive behavior and to mediate the impact of feedback on proactive behavior. Therefore, a link seems to exist between feedback seeking as a proactive work behavior and work engagement. Another study by Bakker, Tims, and Derks (2012) found proactivity as a personality trait was linked to higher work engagement because employees made more adjustments at work. Although we have seen through literature that proactive work behavior and work engagement are highly related, a causal relationship between the two constructs is difficult to form because the relationship is dynamic (Bakker et al., 2011; Bakker et al., 2012). We can speculate that the proactive behavior of feedback seeking will be related to higher levels of work engagement.

H8: New hire feedback seeking behaviors will be positively related to newcomer work engagement

Role Self-Efficacy

Employees' demonstration of role self-efficacy in their work is a determinant of newcomer socialization. Self-efficacy can be defined as "influencing people's expectations about their abilities to perform successfully in new situations" (Jones, 1986). In this study, we view self- efficacy as gaining confidence performing the tasks of the new job (Feldman, 1981). Role self-efficacy is related to newcomer's perceptions of past work successes and the expectations they have about their future success (Jones, 1986). Therefore, newcomers' past

experiences dealing with uncertainty on the job may influence how they seek information and respond to the new work environment. As discussed in Jones (1986), individuals with high levels of role self-efficacy interpret their new roles differently than individuals with low levels of role self-efficacy due to the difference in perceived competency and ability. The higher an individual's role self-efficacy the more proactive behaviors to improve performance in their role compared to those with low role self-efficacy. Jones (1986) found correlation coefficients that suggest role orientation is positively related to self-efficacy and was significant ($p < .05$) in the study.

Self-efficacy can serve as an indicator of newcomer adjustment and socialization based on the model examined in Bauer et al. (2007). However, in a meta-analytic review of newcomer adjustment outcomes, Bauer et al. (2007) found that self-efficacy mediates the relationship between newcomer feedback seeking, organizational socialization tactics and socialization outcome, including newcomer performance, work attitudes and turnover. Findings from this study are consistent with Feldman's (1981) findings that self-efficacy emerged among three other constructs as an indicator of newcomer adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007).

VandeWalle (2003) highlights the importance of feedback sources. He suggests that feedback from expert sources, such as a supervisor, can enhance self-efficacy (VandeWalle, 2003). VandeWalle (2003) discusses that when people seek feedback from a source that is legitimate, has high credibility and a valued expertise it provides a "short-term morale boost" and enhances self-efficacy in the long term as well.

In turn, I will examine the relationship between proactive behaviors displayed by newcomers in the form of seeking feedback to their level of adjustment, work engagement and self-efficacy during their newcomer socialization process.

H9: New hire feedback seeking behaviors will be positively related to role self-efficacy

Chapter 3

METHODS

Respondent Population

Participants for this study consisted of 390 newly hired employees in a rotational leadership development program in a large firm, had been with the organization for less than 36 months. This study focused on only recent college graduates assuming their first permanent job. Accordingly, the sample was heterogeneous in regards to program location indicative of job type. The sample pool consisted of new hires located in two different geographical locations with roles in operations or engineering. After receiving an introductory email from a company representative validating the study and asking employees to participate, an email invitation with a link to a one-time voluntary online survey was distributed. To encourage candidness, participants were informed of the general purpose of the study and received information regarding the confidentiality of their responses and told that only summary data would be reported to the organization. This chapter examines how the measures of the survey were assembled, distributed and screened throughout this process.

Procedures

An online survey created via Qualtrics.com was used to collect data from participants. The self-reported questionnaire consisted of nine sections. The study was less concerned with the role assignment the employees were currently on within their rotation and more concerned with the general demographics of the participant's program location, tenure, age, race/ethnicity and

gender for the benefit of the company. For that reason, we included five demographic questions identifying program affiliation, professional tenure standing, and age, race/ethnicity and gender for company knowledge. The survey asked sensitive work-related questions pertaining to perceptions of the company, ability and supervisor relationships. Therefore, proper steps were taken to protect the confidentiality of all respondents by gaining IRB approval from the University. Survey responses were stored in a password protected folder on Qualtrics.com only viewable and accessible by me. The survey was sent through the email invitation function in Qualtrics to ensure the data collection process was conducted through a secure system rather than a personal email to contact the distribution list of identified participants. The survey was open for two weeks and all the responses were stored in Qualtrics along with an individualized ID number to allow participants to remain nameless and have their identities remain confidential as well.

The online survey was sent to a total of 390 participants in the rotational leadership program, of these participants 171 voluntarily participated in the study. After eliminating incomplete survey responses when cleaning the data, a remainder of 132 complete data sets remained to be included in all analyses including controls, a response rate of 34.1%. There were 34% of participants from one program location and 66% of participants at the other program location. 32% of respondents were female. The age range of the group was 21-36 years old with an average age of 25 (standard deviation = 2). Additionally, 26% of those who participated in the sample were a group categorized as a protected status/minority classification with 74% being Caucasian/White ethnicity. In terms of job tenure, 35 cases or 26.3% of the sample had 31-36

months of experience. Similarly, 32 cases or 24.1% of the sample had 19-24 months of experience. 42 cases or 31.6% of the sample had 25 or more months of experience.

Measures

Goal Orientations. The 15-item scale developed by VandeWalle (1996) was used to measure three dimensions of goal orientations, the instrument had three scales to measure learning goal orientation, performance goal orientation and avoid failure orientation.

Learning goal-orientation, one's desire to develop skills to reach task mastery was measured by six items. This measure included items such as "I often read outside materials related to my work to improve my ability" and "I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from" (for complete scale see Appendix A). This section was presented with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Learning goal orientation had a mean score is 4.4 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.42. When running a factor analysis one item detracted from the overall reliability and seemed problematic. After removing the item, the remaining five items on this measure has an internal reliability of 0.73 ($\alpha=0.726$)

Performance goal orientation is defined as revealing one's competency level for evaluation and judgment and was measured by five items. "I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworkers", "I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work" and "I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing" are scale samples (see Appendix A for complete scale). All items used a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Measures for performance goal-

orientation have a mean score of 3.3 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.655. The items were measured to have an internal reliability of 0.74 ($\alpha=0.739$).

Avoid-failure orientation, defined as avoiding negative evaluations and judgements regarding one's competency level, was measured using four items. A 5-point Likert-type response scale was used of each scale item. Response scale was (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Examples of scale items used were "Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill" and "I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low" (see Appendix A for complete scale). Questions measuring avoid failure-orientation have a mean score of 2.5 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.735. This measure has a strong internal reliability of 0.816 ($\alpha=0.816$).

Supervisor Support. Two-items from The General Nordic Questionnaire for Psychological and Social Factors at Work (2001) measured supervisor support. The two-item scale rather than the full 122-item General Nordic Questionnaire was used in order to keep the length of the questionnaire manageable. The scale includes the items, "I can get support and help with my work from my assignment leader" and " My assignment leader is willing to listen to my work-related problems" The mean for supervisor support is 4.1 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.922. The internal reliability of this measure was 0.920 ($\alpha=.920$).

Feedback Seeking. Feedback seeking was measured with three feedback scales from Ashford (1986). All items used a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree, unless otherwise noted. (a) Feedback seeking referring to goal clarity was measured by four items that indicated reverse scoring; (b) Feedback seeking

referring to effort was measured using four-items indicating reverse scoring and a 4-point response scale ranging from a lot, some, a little, and none at all; (c) Two items measured feedback seeking related to frequency using a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from (1) very frequently to (5) very infrequently. The fourth scale to measure feedback seeking purpose from Janseen & Prins (2007) using a 5-items to measure feedback on a 5-point Likert-type response scale. When running a factor analysis, the two items from Ashford's frequency scale and five items from Janseen & Prins scale loaded together and were combined. After combining the items, the seven items on this measure called feedback seeking purpose has an internal reliability of 0.66 ($\alpha=0.662$). The average score of each group of items was used to determine the level of feedback seeking goal clarity, feedback seeking effort and feedback seeking purpose. Feedback seeking goal clarity mean score is 3.1 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.771. This measure has an internal reliability of 0.78 ($\alpha=0.782$). Feedback seeking effort refers to the effort required to obtain feedback. Measures for feedback seeking effort have a mean score of 2.52 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.718. The items were measured to have an internal reliability of 0.79 ($\alpha=0.792$). Questions measuring feedback seeking purpose have a mean score of 3.8 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.457. (See Appendix A for complete scale items).

Perceived Fit. Janseen & Prins (2007) seeking of different types of feedback information article was also used to measure perceived fit. Five-items included "I feel comfortable at my job", "I really like I belong in my organization", "I feel like "one of the gang" at work", "I feel like an outsider at work" and "I feel that this organization really meets

my needs at this time”. This section was also presented with a 5-point Likert scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The measure of Perceived Fit had a mean score of 3.38 out of 5, a standard deviation of 0.893 and an internal reliability of 0.911 ($\alpha=0.911$).

Self-efficacy. An 8-item scale adapted from Chen, Gully & Eden (2001) measured self-efficacy to focus on the job at the specific company used a 5-point Likert scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. These measures were adapted to specifically measure role related self-efficacy opposed to general self-efficacy. The measures were adapted by adding the company name to change the meaning to tailor the specific job. For example, “I will be able to achieve most of the goals I have set for myself” was adapted to I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself at xxx company. Self-efficacy had the highest mean for dependent variables with a score of 3.833, standard deviation of 0.576 and a strong internal reliability of 0.895 ($\alpha=0.895$).

Work Engagement. A shortened version of Schaufeli & Bakker (2003) Utrecht Work Engagement Scale reported in Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova (2006) measured work engagement on a 9-item scale. Three dimensions related to work engagement: vigor; dedication and absorption were also measured to indicate the level of work engagement, (see Appendix A for complete scale items).

Measures for work engagement vigor have a mean score of 3.0 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.877. The items were measured to have an internal reliability of 0.89 ($\alpha=0.892$). Work engagement dedication clarity mean score is 3.6 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.744. This measure has an internal reliability of 0.78 ($\alpha=0.780$). Work engagement absorption

mean score is 3.4 out of 5 and a standard deviation of 0.839. When running a factor analysis one item detracted from the overall reliability and seemed problematic. After removing the item, the remaining two items on this measure has an internal reliability of 0.75 ($\alpha=0.748$). Although the variable of work engagement could be more stable as one factor, the factor analysis shows that the three dimensions (vigor, dedication and absorption) are correlated but operate as a single dimensional factor.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This chapter uses both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data, examine variable trends and the relationship between them. The quantitative data analysis focuses on the relationship between the independent variable of learning goal orientation, performance goal orientation and avoid failure orientation and the dependent variable of feedback seeking behaviors (goal clarity, purpose and effort) in Model 1 (See Figure 1). In addition to examining the interaction of the relationship with the moderating variable of supervisor support. The statistical data method of regression analyses of independent, dependent and control variables was performed to explore the impact on relationships. The relationship between the variable of feedback seeking and the dependent variables of perceived fit, self-efficacy and work engagement were also examined during the analysis. All analyses were done using IBM SPSS. Table 1 provides the variable descriptions and abbreviations used for analyses.

Table 1 Variable Descriptions and Abbreviations for Analyses

LGO	Learning Goal Orientation								
PGO	Performance Goal Orientation								
AGO	Avoid Failure Orientation								
SSUP	Supervisor Support								
FIT	Fit								
SEFF	Self-Efficacy								
WEVIG	Work Engagaement Vigor								
WEDED	Work Engagaement Dedication								
WEABS	Work Engagement Absorption								
FBSGC	Feedback Seeking Goal Clarity								
FBSEFF	Feedback Seeking Effort								
FBSPUR	Feedback Seeking Purpose								
AGE	Age								
PROG	Program								
FEM	Demographic female	1 =Yes	0=No						
TEN	Tenure, coded 1 through 8	1= 1-3 months	2= 4-6 months	3= 6-9 months	4= 9-12 months	5= 13-18 months	6= 19-24 months	7= 25-30 months	8= 31-36 months
ETHN	Ethnicity								

Hypothesis Testing

Model 1

Hypothesis 1 was tested by running a series of regressions by first entering the following controls: age, ethnicity, program, female and tenure. In the next step, I entered the moderating variable of supervisory support. The independent variable of learning goal orientation was entered followed by the interaction, learning goal orientation x supervisor support. Table 2 provides the results of this analysis.

Hypothesis 1(a) proposes *that learning goal orientation will be positively related to feedback seeking goal clarity*. Hypothesis 1(b) proposes *that learning goal orientation will be positively related to feedback seeking purpose*. H1(c) proposes *that learning goal orientation will be positively related to feedback seeking effort*. As shown in Table 2, H1(a) and H1(c) were not supported, LGO did not predict feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=0.026$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=0.071$). However, H1(b) was supported, LGO does predict feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=0.392$, $p<.01$). In the second regression test, two out of the three cases, when the variable supervisor support is added to the model there is a significant direct effect of supervisor support on feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=0.573$, $p<.01$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=-0.513$, $p<.01$). Supervisor support does not have a direct effect on feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=0.132$). In the last regression test, the interaction variable of supervisor support with LGO does not have a significant interaction effect on feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=-1.095$); feedback seeking effort ($\beta=0.848$); and feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=0.108$) and there is no evidence, therefore Hypothesis 4: *the positive relationship between*

learning goal orientation and feedback seeking (a: goal clarity; b: purpose; c: effort) will be stronger when perceived supervisor support is higher is rejected.

TABLE 2 Summary of Regression Analysis of Learning Goal Orientation to Supervisor Support

	Feedback Seeking Goal Clarity		Feedback Seeking Effort Required		Feedback Seeking Purpose	
	b	β	b	β	b	β
Intercept	2.137		2.692		3.627	
Age	0.04	0.105	-0.018	-0.049	0.011	0.05
Ethnicity	0.124	0.072	0.051	0.031	0.080	0.08
Program	0.021	0.013	0.168	0.111	0.113	0.12
Female	0.289	0.176	-0.074	-0.048	-0.086	-0.09
Tenure	-0.039	-0.122	0.043	0.144	-0.028	-0.14
ΔR^2	0.058		0.032		0.056	
ΔF	1.553 (5, 126)		.832 (5, 126)		1.495 (5, 126)	
SSUP	0.477	0.573	-0.401	-0.513	0.066	0.132
ΔR^2	0.314		0.252		0.017	
ΔF	62.451 (1, 125)*		43.91 (1, 125)*		2.26 (1, 125)	
LGO	0.046	0.026	0.071	0.042	0.392	0.363
ΔR^2	0.001		0.001		0.108	
ΔF	.105 (1, 124)		.246 (1, 124)		16.307 (1, 124)*	
LGO x SSUP	-0.176	-1.095	0.128	0.848	0.108	1.121
ΔR^2	0.007		0.004		0.007	
ΔF	1.41 (1, 123)		.738 (1, 123)		1.128 (1, 123)	
Total R^2	0.38		0.289		0.188	
Overall F	9.40 (8, 123)*		6.26 (8, 123)*		3.56 (8, 123)*	

Notes: $N = 133$, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 3 Summary of Regression Analysis of Performance Goal Orientation to Supervisor Support

	Feedback Seeking Goal Clarity		Feedback Seeking Effort Required		Feedback Seeking Frequency	
	b	β	b	β	b	β
Intercept	2.137		2.692		3.627	
Age	0.04	0.105	-0.018	-0.049	0.011	0.048
Ethnicity	0.124	0.072	0.051	0.031	0.080	0.077
Program	0.021	0.013	0.168	0.111	0.113	0.117
Female	0.289	0.176	-0.074	-0.048	-0.086	-0.088
Tenure	-0.039	-0.122	0.043	0.144	-0.028	-0.144
ΔR^2	0.058		0.032		0.056	
ΔF	1.553 (5, 126)		.832 (5, 126)		1.495 (5, 126)	
SSUP	0.477	0.573	-0.401	-0.513	0.066	0.132
ΔR^2	0.314		0.252		0.017	
ΔF	62.451 (1, 125)*		43.91 (1, 125)*		2.264 (1, 125)	
PGO	-0.049	0.026	0.151	0.042	0.084	0.12
ΔR^2	0.002		0.016		0.013	
ΔF	.297 (1, 124)		2.877 (1,124)		1.708 (1, 124)*	
PGO x SSUP	-0.071	-1.095	0.055	0.848	-0.121	-1.052
ΔR^2	0.005		0.003		0.04	
ΔF	.992 (1, 123)		0.602(1,123)		5.653 (1,123)*	
Total R^2	0.378		0.303		0.126	
Overall F	9.359 (8, 123)*		6.692(8,123)*		2.208(8,123)*	

Notes: $N = 133$, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

TABLE 4 Summary of Regression Analysis of Avoid Goal Orientation to Supervisor Support

	Feedback Seeking Goal Clarity		Feedback Seeking Effort Required		Feedback Seeking Purpose	
	b	β	b	β	b	β
Intercept	2.137		2.692		3.627	
Age	0.04	0.105	-0.018	-0.049	0.011	0.048
Ethnicity	0.124	0.072	0.051	0.031	0.080	0.077
Program	0.021	0.013	0.168	0.111	0.113	0.117
Female	0.289	0.176	-0.074	-0.048	-0.086	-0.088
Tenure	-0.039	-0.122	0.043	0.144	-0.028	-0.144
ΔR^2	0.058		0.032		0.056	
ΔF	1.553 (5, 126)		.832 (5, 126)		1.495 (5, 126)	
SSUP	0.477	0.573	-0.401	-0.513	0.066	0.132
ΔR^2	0.314		0.252		0.017	
ΔF	62.451 (1, 125)*		43.909 (1, 125)*		2.264 (1, 125)	
AGO	-0.127	-0.121	0.077	0.078	-0.075	-0.120
ΔR^2	0.014		0.006		0.014	
ΔF	2.847 (1,124)		1.009 (1,124)		1.862 (1, 124)*	
AGO x SSUP	-0.053	-0.251	-0.002	-0.008	-0.122	-0.966
ΔR^2	0.003		0.00		0.039	
ΔF	0.528 (1,123)		0.000(1,123)		5.453 (1,123)*	
Total R^2	0.389		0.289		0.125	
Overall F	9.771 (8,123)*		6.261(8,123)*		2.202(8,123)*	

Notes: $N = 133$, *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 2 was tested by running a similar series of regressions by first entering the following controls: age, ethnicity, program, female and tenure. In the next step, I entered the moderating variable of supervisory support. The independent variable of performance orientation was entered followed by the interaction, performance goal orientation x supervisor support. Table 4 provides the results of this analysis.

H2(a) proposes that *performance goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking goal clarity*. H2(b) proposes *that performance goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking purpose*. H2(c) proposes *that performance goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking effort*. As shown in Table 3, H2(a), H2(b) and H2(c) were not supported, PGO did not predict feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=-0.041$), feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=0.120$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=0.136$). Two out of the three cases, when the variable supervisor support is added to the model there is a significant direct effect of supervisor support on feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=0.573$, $p<.01$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=-0.513$, $p<.01$). Supervisor support does not have a direct effect on feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=0.132$). In the last regression test, the interaction variable of supervisor support with PGO does not have a significant interaction effect on feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=-0.372$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=0.306$). However, the interaction is partially supported for the variable of feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=-1.052$, $p<.05$) because of this statistically significant evidence, Hypothesis 5b: *the negative relationship between performance goal orientation and feedback seeking purpose will be weaker when perceived supervisor support is higher* is supported. Therefore, when supervisor support is high, goal orientation does matter, individuals will seek purposefully seek feedback regardless. However, when supervisor support is low,

only the high PGO individuals will purposefully seek feedback. See Appendix B for regression graph showing partial support for Hypothesis 5.

Hypothesis 3 was tested by running a similar series of regressions by entering the controls of age, ethnicity, program, female and tenure. Then entering the moderating variable of supervisory support. The independent variable of avoid failure orientation was entered followed by the interaction, avoid failure orientation x supervisor support. Table 4 provides the results of this analysis.

H3(a) proposes that *avoid failure goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking goal clarity*. H3(b) proposes that *avoid failure goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking goal purpose*. H3(c) proposes that *avoid failure goal orientation will be negatively related to feedback seeking goal effort*. As shown in Table 4, H3(a), H3(b) and H3(c) were not supported, AGO did not predict feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=-0.121$), feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=-0.120$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=0.078$). Similarly, two out of the three cases, when the variable supervisor support is added to the model there is a significant direct effect of supervisor support on feedback seeking goal clarity ($\beta=0.573$, $p<.01$) and feedback seeking effort ($\beta=-0.513$, $p<.01$). Supervisor support does not have a direct effect on feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=0.132$). In the last regression test, the interaction variable of supervisor support with AGO does not have a significant interaction effect on feedback seeking goal clarity $\beta=-0.251$ and feedback seeking effort $\beta=0.008$. However, the interaction is partially supported for the variable of feedback seeking purpose ($\beta=-0.966$, $p<.05$) because of this statistically significant evidence, Hypothesis 6b: *the negative relationship between avoid*

failure orientation and feedback seeking purpose will be weaker when perceived supervisor support is higher is supported is partial supported. Therefore, individuals with high AGO will not purposefully seek feedback whether or not they perceive support. However, if individuals are low in AGO, then only those who perceive supervisor support will purposefully seek feedback. See Appendix B for regression graph showing partial support for Hypothesis 6.

Model 2

Hypothesis 7 proposes that new hire feedback seeking behaviors will be positively related to newcomer adjustment. Hypothesis 7 was tested using hierarchical regression with two steps of entry. In the first step, all control variables were entered, including age, program type, gender, tenure, and ethnicity. In the second step, all three feedback seeking variables were entered, including feedback seeking purpose, feedback seeking effort (or ease of feedback seeking), and feedback seeking goal clarity. The control variables did not significantly predict fit. However, the three feedback seeking variables together predicted perceived fit ($\Delta R^2 = .427$, $F(3, 123) = 32.11$, $p < .01$). Specifically, feedback seeking purpose was just barely beyond the $p < .05$ cutoff ($p = .051$) such that higher levels of feedback seeking purpose were positively associated with perceived fit ($b = .271$, $\beta = .139$, $p < .051$). Feedback seeking effort was significantly negatively associated with fit ($b = -.225$, $\beta = -.182$, $p < .05$) suggesting that the easier it is to obtain feedback, the better the perceived fit. Feedback seeking goal clarity was significantly positively associated with perceived fit ($b = .575$, $\beta = .494$, $p < .05$). These results provide general support for hypothesis 7, although the effect for feedback seeking purpose was at the margin for the significance test.

Hypothesis 8 proposes that new hire feedback seeking behaviors will be positively related to newcomer work engagement. Hypothesis 8 was tested using hierarchical regression by separately regressing each of the three work engagement dimensions onto the three feedback seeking behaviors with two steps of entry. In the first step, all control variables were entered, including age, program type, gender, tenure, and ethnicity. In the second step, all three feedback seeking variables were entered, including feedback seeking purpose, feedback seeking effort, and feedback seeking goal clarity. The control variables did not significantly predict work engagement vigor, dedication, or absorption. However, the three feedback seeking variables together predicted work engagement vigor ($\Delta R^2 = .283$, $F(3, 123) = 17.54$, $p < .01$). Specifically, both feedback seeking purpose and goal clarity were positively associated with work engagement vigor ($b = .462$, $\beta = .241$, $p < .05$; $b = .535$, $\beta = .467$, $p < .05$, respectively). Similar findings were obtained for work engagement dedication such that both feedback seeking purpose and goal clarity were positively associated with work engagement dedication ($\Delta R^2 = .287$, $F(3, 123) = 13.89$, $p < .01$). As before, feedback seeking purpose and goal clarity were positively associated with work engagement dedication ($b = .331$, $\beta = .203$, $p < .05$; $b = .342$, $\beta = .351$, $p < .05$, respectively). Finally, feedback seeking purpose and goal clarity were positively associated with work engagement absorption ($\Delta R^2 = .108$, $F(3, 123) = 5.04$, $p < .01$; $b = .338$, $\beta = .184$, $p < .05$; $b = .302$, $\beta = .277$, $p < .05$, respectively). These results provide support for hypothesis 8 but only for feedback seeking purpose and feedback seeking goal clarity behaviors.

Hypothesis 9 proposes that new hire feedback seeking behaviors will be positively related to newcomer self-efficacy. Hypothesis 9 was tested using hierarchical regression with

two steps of entry. In the first step, all control variables were entered, including age, program type, gender, tenure, and ethnicity. In the second step, all three dimensions of feedback seeking variables were entered, feedback seeking purpose, feedback seeking effort, and feedback seeking goal clarity. The control variables did not significantly predict self-efficacy. However, the three feedback seeking variables together predicted self-efficacy ($\Delta R^2 = .155$, $F(3, 123) = 3.123$, $p < .05$). Specifically, feedback seeking purpose was positively associated with self-efficacy ($b = .257$, $\beta = .204$, $p < .01$). Feedback seeking effort was negatively associated with self-efficacy ($b = -.117$, $\beta = -.147$) suggesting that the easier it is to obtain feedback, the better the self-efficacy. Feedback seeking goal clarity was positively associated with perceived self-efficacy ($b = .143$, $\beta = .190$). These results provide support for hypothesis 9, but only for feedback seeking purpose.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The aim of the research was to determine if personality in terms of three types of goal orientations influence feedback seeking behaviors during the onboarding process for recent hires. Prior research on the variables of goal orientation (LGO and PGO) showcased an influential role that these personality characteristics had in the process of feedback seeking behaviors during new hire socialization. The findings of this study, however, do not fully support or show significant results of this relationship between goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors. Additionally, when the variable of supervisor support was added into the relationship, the direct effects between supervisor support and feedback behaviors yielded significant results for two out of three dimensions of feedback seeking behaviors. However, overall only two out of nine interaction relationships were partially supported and contradicted prior research. The purpose of this section is to debrief the results of this study and provide explanations and insights to the reasons prior research findings may have been either supported or contradicted based on this study.

Learning goal orientation was found to predict feedback seeking purpose and not predict feedback seeking goal clarity or feedback seeking effort. These results contradicted previous literature by VandeWalle (2003) where he suggested learning goal orientation influences the purpose of feedback seeking. He suggested that individuals with learning goal orientation would use feedback seeking as a way to discover errors and as a form of correction. But the results of this study show that these individuals high on learning goal orientation did

not seek feedback to gain more goal clarity to reduce their amount of errors in their role. This may be a result of the type of new hires in organizational program selected to survey. However, the significant relationship between learning goal orientation and the variable , feedback seeking purpose did affirm the findings from previous studies. In this study, the variable of feedback seeking purpose did contain both measure items of feedback seeking frequency and feedback seeking purpose. VandeWalle (1997) and Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien (2007) found that learning goal orientation was positively correlated with feedback seeking frequency. Similarly, this found positive significant results between learning goal orientation and the measure feedback seeking purpose (which contains both purpose and frequency items). Therefore, it was found that learning goal oriented individuals were more likely to seek feedback and for a specific purpose.

The role of supervisor support in the direct relationship between perceived supervisor support and feedback seeking behaviors presented significant findings within this study. Both feedback seeking effort and feedback seeking goal clarity were significantly related to perceived supervisor support. Suggesting that supervisor support makes it easier to obtain feedback and receive clarity on goals.

Although supervisor support did not have a direct effect on the purpose of feedback seeking, it affirmed the findings of Jakisaan and Nurmi (2002), that supervisor support is important for newcomer socialization . I have concluded that new hires within this company need to feel like they have support before they seek feedback to help them understand how to perform their job. This result helps to build additional credibility to previous socialization literature suggesting that there is a prominent interaction between new hires and supervisors in

newcomer socialization (Graen, 1976; Jablin, 2001; and Louis, 1990). In addition to finding that the more support new hires feel they have at work, the more likely they are to engage in proactive behaviors including seeking feedback (Feldman & Brett, 1983).

The variable of performance goal orientation also had contradictory findings compared to prior research on feedback seeking behaviors of performance goal oriented individuals. Vandewalle (1996; 1997; & 2003) served as a basis for hypothesizing the relationship between performance goal orientation and feedback seeking behaviors. Vandewalle (2003) suggested that those high on performance goal orientation would not be as willing to engage in seeking feedback due to the self-presentation cost theory being that seeking feedback would reveal inadequacy. Additionally, Vandewalle (2003) suggested that goal orientation influence the purpose of feedback seeking, where those with PGO seek feedback for self-evaluation and to reveal competency levels. The results of this study contradict Vandewalle's notion as when the variable of supervisor support is included in the interaction relationship there was a significant relationship between supervisor support and the purpose of feedback seeking (containing both purpose and frequency item measures). A reasonable explanation is that this pool of participants are described by company leaders for being high performing, therefore when support is high, goal orientation does not matter, they will seek feedback frequently regardless. But when support is low, only the high PGO people will seek feedback frequently.

Ashford & Cummings (1983) reported the findings of avoid failure orientation as its own construct and not combined with the construct of performance goal orientation. This study help to extend on research of goal orientation has a three-factor model. The partial support for the negative relationship between avoid goal orientation and feedback seeking supported the

findings by Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubien (2007). Findings do suggest that when individuals are high in avoid failure orientation, they would not seek feedback frequently with or without perceived supervisor support. However, if low in avoid failure orientation then only those who perceive support will seek feedback frequently.

In terms of socialization outcomes, the study went beyond ending at feedback seeking behaviors and found evidence that supports feedback seeking behaviors are significant to positive socialization outcomes in the workforce. Affirming the findings of previous research that feedback seeking helping employees to reduce uncertainty, establish fit and be engaged. The organizational outcome of perceived fit had significant findings which supported the findings of Miller & Jablin (1997) that seeking feedback helps to establish higher levels of fit and reduce uncertainty at work. The results of this study show that the three dimensions of feedback seeking together predict perceived fit. Therefore, the easier it is for employees to receive feedback the better their fit. Likewise, when employees engage in feedback seeking purposefully they report higher levels of perceived fit. This helps to build on the suggestions of Cable & Parson (2001) that newcomer socialization tactics help to reduce ambiguity and is linked to greater fit.

The relationship between feedback seeking and work engagement presented significant findings, as feedback seeking purpose and feedback seeking goal clarity were significantly related to work engagement vigor, dedication and absorption. The findings of this study support Salanove & Schaufeli (2008) notion of a link between proactive feedback seeking behaviors and work engagement. I conclude that the employees in the study engage in proactive work

behaviors such as feedback seeking to understand their role better and improve their performance and by doing so allow them to become more engaged and involved in their work.

Feedback seeking goal clarity, purpose and effort together was found to predict role self-efficacy. Feedback seeking purpose had a significant relationship with role self-efficacy. These results supported previous literature by Jones (1986) where he found a significant relationship between proactive work behaviors and role self-efficacy. He suggested that the more proactive behaviors individuals engage in at work to improve their performance would lead to higher role self-efficacy. The results of this study show that the easier it is for employees to receive feedback and the more they engage in purposeful feedback seeking the higher their role self-efficacy.

Supplementary Interpretation of Variables

Table 5 provides the descriptive statistics (mean score, standard deviation) and correlations for all of the variables collected in the study. The diagonal reports the coefficient alphas as reported in Chapter 3 of this study (see Table 1 to refer to the variable descriptions and abbreviations used for analyses). Interpretations of the data are shown below, to note, these are post hoc interpretations and could be spurious or chance findings.

People who were learning goal oriented sought more purposeful feedback and had greater goal clarity than performance oriented and avoid failure oriented individuals. The relationship between LGO and feedback seeking purpose had a significantly positive correlation ($r=.380$) at $p<.01$. Similarly, LGO was shown to be significantly correlated to

feedback seeking goal clarity ($r=.225$) at $p<.01$. Supervisor support was important for all the socialization outcomes except feedback seeking purpose. Supervisor support had several positively significant relationships including perceived fit ($r=.611$), self-efficacy ($r=.391$), work engagement vigor ($r=.553$), work engagement dedication ($r=.527$), work engagement absorption ($r=.293$), and feedback seeking goal clarity ($r=.592$) and a negatively significant relationship with feedback seeking effort ($r=-.512$). The relationships between supervisor support and perceived fit, self-efficacy, work engagement vigor, work engagement dedication, feedback seeking goal clarity and feedback seeking effort were significant as $p<.01$. The relationship with work engagement absorption was significant at $p<0.01$. The more support respondents had at work the more likely they felt better fit, higher self-efficacy, more vigor, dedication, and absorption as well as goal clarity. Additionally, the more support provided from supervisors the lower the amount of effort that needed to be exerted to gain feedback. People higher in learning goal orientation were less likely to be avoid goal oriented ($r=-.474$). When individuals higher in learning goal orientation perceived more support, they reported greater fit, higher confidence, greater work engagement and sought more purposeful feedback. Participants higher in performance goal orientation were the opposite of participants higher in learning goal orientation in terms of being lower in self-reported fit ($r=-.237$), work engagement (work engagement vigor $r=-.267$; work engagement dedication $r=-.241$; work engagement absorption $r=-.059$) and engaging less purposeful feedback seeking ($r=-.164$). However, they were more likely to exert more effort when engaging in feedback seeking. Avoid goal orientation was positively correlated with feedback seeking effort ($r=.119$). Based on the magnitude of the correlations those who are learning goal oriented do not worry about failure, however

performance goal individuals are concerned with failing and are less likely to perceive supervisor support.

When examining the relationship between feedback seeking and the dependent variables of socialization outcomes, the findings showed a significant relationship between feedback seeking goal clarity and perceived fit ($r=.634$) at the $p<.01$. Feedback seeking goal clarity had the strongest correlation with perceived fit, therefore individuals who seek feedback to improve goal clarity were more likely to feel greater fit in the organization. The more effort individuals used to gain feedback the lower their perceived fit in the organization ($r= -.520$) at a significance of $p<.01$. Feedback seeking goal clarity and feedback seeking purpose had positive significant correlations with higher degrees of self-efficacy ($r=.327$) and ($r=.298$) respectively, at a $p<.01$. The positive feedback seeking goal clarity and frequency show that individuals who seek feedback to gain goal clarity more often are more likely to have greater confidence in their ability to perform job tasks. Inversely, the negative correlation between feedback seeking effort and self-efficacy ($r=-.304$) at $p<.01$, shows that the more effort used to gain feedback the lower individual's confidence in their ability to do their job. Similarly, feedback goal clarity and the purpose of feedback seeking was significantly correlated with work engagement vigor and dedication at a $p<.01$, whereas feedback seeking effort was negatively correlated with these socialization variables ($r=-.318$) and ($r=-.374$) respectively, at a $p<.01$.

Table 5 Mean, Standard Deviation, Reliabilities and Correlations for All Variables

	Mean	StdDev	LGO	PGO	AGO	SUPP	FIT	SEFF	WEVIG	WEDED	WEABS	FBSGC	FBSEFF	FBSPUR	AGE	PROG	FEM	TEN	ETHN
LGO	4.35	0.42	(0.726)																
PGO	3.36	0.65	-0.053	(0.739)															
AGO	2.48	0.73	-0.468	0.406	(0.816)														
SUPP	4.08	0.92	0.353	-0.145	-0.113	(0.920)													
FIT	3.38	0.89	0.339	-0.135	-0.223	0.607	(0.911)												
SEFF	3.83	0.58	0.453	-0.085	-0.152	0.386	0.549	(0.895)											
WEVIG	3.02	0.88	0.394	-0.097	-0.261	0.551	0.723	0.565	(0.892)										
WEDED	3.64	0.75	0.437	-0.005	-0.243	0.529	0.708	0.545	0.809	(0.780)									
WEABS	3.45	0.84	0.362	0.141	-0.075	0.304	0.361	0.398	0.457	0.436	(0.748)								
FBSGC	3.06	0.77	0.215	-0.135	-0.185	0.588	0.628	0.320	0.495	0.465	0.270	(0.782)							
FBSEFF	2.53	0.72	-0.128	0.162	0.115	-0.512	-0.520	-0.302	-0.317	-0.374	-0.166	-0.641	(0.718)						
FBSPUR	3.79	0.46	0.376	0.062	-0.156	0.155	0.287	0.294	0.361	0.307	0.234	0.217	-0.182	(0.662)					
AGE	24.61	2.00	-0.040	-0.094	-0.006	-0.043	-0.063	-0.030	-0.013	0.009	0.063	0.041	-0.028	0.035	1				
PROG	0.34	0.48	0.075	-0.148	-0.087	0.077	0.071	0.119	0.077	-0.026	-0.012	0.021	0.088	0.154	-0.181	1			
FEM	0.32	0.47	-0.106	0.016	0.033	0.100	0.053	-0.034	-0.014	0.030	-0.064	0.169	-0.067	-0.080	-0.275	-0.045	1		
TEN	5.16	2.39	-0.019	-0.125	0.015	-0.193	-0.157	-0.152	-0.217	-0.174	-0.032	-0.143	0.116	-0.151	0.171	-0.249	-0.189	1	
ETHN	0.27	0.44	0.182	-0.218	-0.151	0.032	0.004	-0.012	0.073	0.097	0.018	0.087	0.030	0.097	0.108	0.075	-0.005	-0.033	1

N = 132 after listwise deletion with controls included.

Critical r , $p \leq .05 = |r| > .171$; Critical r , $p \leq .01 = |r| > .223$.

Coefficient a reliabilities in parentheses on diagonal

Variable descriptions and abbreviations listed in Table

Limitations and Future Research Implications

A significant limitation of this study comes from research constraints. The study was originally created in conjunction with one industrial manufacturing company which creates various limitations that may have impacted the findings in this research. The generalizability of the findings has been limited to extend to other findings because of the predetermined constraint of specific tenure, industry and role needed when identifying the subject pool. New hires from other industries or geographical regions may have internalized the survey questions differently based on the difference in work experience. Similarly, since the data collected in the study was from a single source, it is possible that single source bias may have caused overlapping variability in the data. The subject pool constraints set by the company to collect the data may have potentially confound the findings leading to the untrue nature of relationships among variables being reported in this study. A way for future researchers to address this issue would be to collect data from multiple verifiable sources

Additionally, the second limitation in this study is based on the demographics of the participant pool, which also limits the generalizability across populations. The predetermined sample collected was not very diverse with 74% of respondents reporting Caucasian/White as their ethnicity, as well as gender with only 32% female participants. Likewise, the predetermined constraint on tenure in this program unintentionally corresponds to age/age range in majority of cases. The average 25-year-old respondent minimizes generational

differences in the sample, impacting the relationships between the variables and reducing the generalizability of the results. The respondents were not a true depiction of the entire population which made it hard to generalize the research results to the workforce. In addition, the constraint variables such as age, tenure, gender, and role may important variables to consider as they can impact the relationship of variables and potential lead to new or different findings.

A third limitation is the sample size and potential selection bias as a result of voluntary participations of a selected group. The pool of subjects was not randomly selected and participation was solely based on internal motivations. The moderate sample size of less than 200 responses can also impact the validity of findings in the study.

To address this issue on research methodology, future researchers can take more measures to randomize the sample to more accurately depict the true workforce population. This would help to reduce the homogeneity level of ethnicity, generational pool, tenure, industry and role to become more generalizable in the population. A recommendation to enhance future studies of newcomer feedback seeking in the workforce may be to broaden the definition of “newcomer” used in this study as an employee in their first full time position. Future researchers can extend the respondent pool beyond first job respondents to include newcomers in terms of job changers. Future studies will be able to account for a more heterogeneous response pool.

A fourth limitation of this research is due to cross-sectional method to collect data used in the study. This imposes limits since this study is only a snapshot, there results can differ if the study was conducted during a different time frame. Additionally, the study was carried out

at one time point there is no indication of the sequence of events making it difficult to make causal inferences.

A fifth limitation of this research is the survey method used to reach the intended research pool. I invited participants to partake in this study via work emails, this method may have possibly skewed the results to be more socially desirable. There is a chance that although respondents were ensured on numerous occasions of their identity protection and confidentiality, it is likely that due to the work-related platform used to collect the data result may have been influenced by bias. Since the survey was sent from an external source to their work email inquiring about their work relationships while they were at work may have caused for less accurate responses. It is possible that social desirability bias may have been a confounding variable when analyzing regression data and variable relationships.

To combat this limitation and the sample size limitation mentioned prior from occurring in future research, researchers may encourage higher participation by surveying participants through different contexts/methods. Researchers can refrain from using solely work related emails to other professional contexts as well.

Overall, by taking these steps future researchers can ensure the reduction in study limitations related to sample pool by accurately depicting the workforce population through randomization and reducing the effect of social desirability bias.

Business Implications

The findings of this research have many practical business implications. Organizations make many monetary investments in the development of onboarding programs for new hires. The traditional human resource function of onboarding is used to help aid the socialization of new employees. If onboarding is done poorly or ineffectively businesses can not only lose their monetary investments, their level of productivity can be reduced and most importantly, employees can potentially leave the company. It is so important for businesses to focus on the learning and development function of onboarding as it is contingent upon new hires learning the organization and their role to become successful.

Regardless of this study's results showing both partial supported conclusions for goal orientations, businesses should be cognizant of the differences among employees and how those learning differences can impact the level of adjustment that takes place during onboarding. Therefore, it's important for business professionals to continue to tailor their onboarding approaches to meet and understand the learning needs of their employees.

Additionally, it's just as important for businesses to ensure proper structures are put in place throughout onboarding and even for more tenure employees to promote supervisor support across the organization. One of the key findings in this study was the significance of supervisory support. The presence of supervisor support strongly impacted the feedback seeking behaviors of employees.

Businesses must be aware of when new hires seek feedback from supervisors in order to determine the effectiveness of current onboarding practices. There are many organizational

benefits to feedback seeking. Feedback seeking is very important because it allows employees to discover where they can improve and perform better in their job. Feedback allows them to make positive changes and adjust which ultimately improves the business of the organization. Positive feedback or constructive criticism can be used as a tool to support continuous learning at work. It increases the level of transparency and trust between managers and their employees to help them make better business decisions. Feedback can serve as motivation to continuously perform at a high levels and aids in the development as a professional. Based on the significant findings of the study feedback seeking is shown to play an important role in the socialization of employees. Therefore, it is recommended that business leaders should support and encourage the practice of feedback seeking within their organizations from all employees to increase positive socialization.

Appendix A

Survey Questions

Learning Goal Orientation- VandeWalle (1996)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1. I often read outside materials related to my work to improve my ability (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Performance Goal Orientation- Vandewalle (1996)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
7. I would rather prove my ability on a task that I can do well at, than to try a new task (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworker (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Avoid Failure Goal Orientation- VandeWalle (1996)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
12. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Supervisor Support- QPSNordic (2001)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
16. I can get support and help with my work from my assignment leader (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. My assignment leader is willing to listen to my work-related problems (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Feedback Seeking Goal Clarity- Ashford (1986)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
18. It is unclear to me exactly what I should do in order to perform my job better (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. I really get little useful information about performance standards within my department (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Information about how my performance will be evaluated has been directly communicated to me (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. People around here give pretty consistent information about what we can do to perform better in our jobs (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Feedback Seeking Effort- Ashford (1986)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
22. The way things are set up around here, it would take a lot of effort to get feedback from others (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. I can get feedback from others with little effort whenever I want (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	None at all (1)	A little (2)	Some (3)	A lot (4)
24. How much effort does it take for you to get useful feedback from your assignment leader? (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. How much effort does it take for you to get useful feedback from your coworker? (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Feedback Seeking Frequency- Ashford (1986)

	Very Infrequently (1)	Infrequently (2)	Neither Infrequently or Frequently (3)	Frequently (4)	Very Frequently (5)
26. Seek information from your co-workers about your work performance? (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. Seek feedback from your assignment leader about your work performance? (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Feedback Seeking Purpose – Janssen & Prins (2007)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
28. To learn how I can master tasks (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. To learn how I can improve performing my work (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. To get information about how I can solve problems (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. To improve my knowledge and capabilities (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32. To set more appropriate goals for myself (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Perceived Fit – Janssen & Prins (2007)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
33. I feel at home in my job (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. I really feel like I belong in my organization (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. I feel like "one of the gang" at work (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36. I feel like an outsider at work (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37. I feel that this organization really meets my needs at this time. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Self-Efficacy- Chen, Gully & Eden (2001)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
38. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself at xxx (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39. When facing difficult tasks at xxx, I am certain that I will accomplish them (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
40. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes at xxx that are important to me (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
41. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor at xxx to which I set my mind (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
42. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges at xxx(5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
43. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at xxx (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

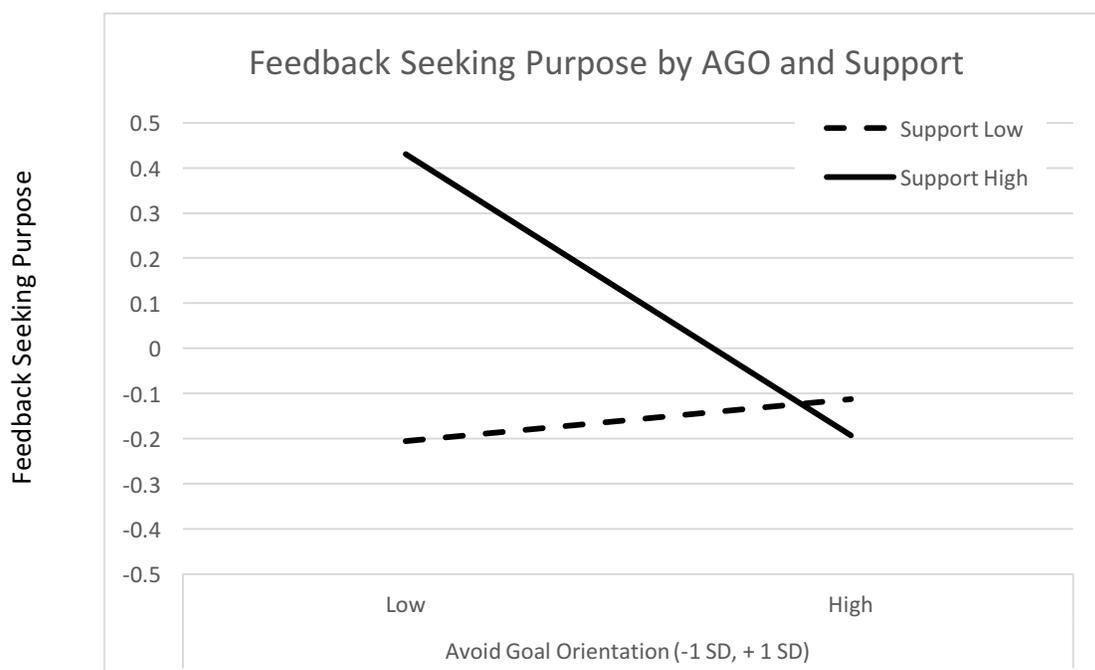
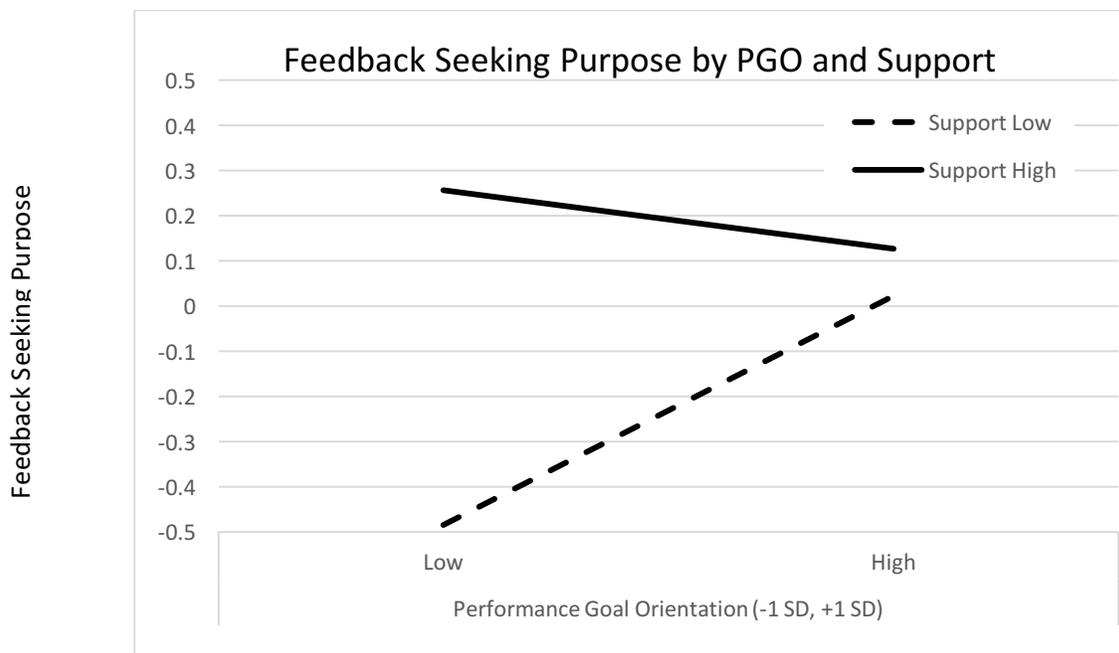
44. Compared to others, I can do most tasks at xxx very well (7)	<input type="radio"/>				
45. Even when things are tough, I expect to perform quite well at xxx (8)	<input type="radio"/>				

Work Engagement- Schaufeli & Bakker (2003)

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
46. At my work, I feel bursting with energy (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
47. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
48. I am enthusiastic about my job (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
49. My job inspires me (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
50. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
51. I feel happy when I am working intensely (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
52. I am proud of the work that I do (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
53. I am immersed in my work (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
54. I get carried away when I am working (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix B

Regression Graphs



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Education

M.S Human Resources and Employment Relations, 2017, Penn State University
 B.S Business Management, 2017, Penn State University
 B.S Labor and Employment Relations, 2017, Penn State University
 Honors: Labor and Employment Relations

Thesis Title: Newcomer Socialization and Onboarding at An American Industrial Manufacturing Company: Examination OF Feedback Seeking Behaviors of New Hires

Thesis Advisor: Jean Phillips

Grant and Awards

- Virginia Todd Chapel Executive
- Merrill Lynch Honors Scholarship
- Edward and Judith Anchel Trustee
- O'Haren Trustee Scholarship
- Bunton Waller Scholarship
- Stumpo Trustee Scholarship

Associations and Activities

- Paterno Fellows Program
- National Association of Black Accountants
- American Marketing Association
- Professional Management Association
- Black Graduate Student Association
- National Council of Negro Women

Professional Work Experience

- Penn State University** | *Graduate Assistant* | University Park, PA 8/16 – 5/17
- Program and develop web content on university website via HTML to assist in marketing and conducting monthly Adobe Connect webinars for HR professionals, faculty, students and staff.
- Smeal College of Business** | *Social Media Intern* | University Park, PA 8/14 - 5/16
- Initiated relaunch of 2 social media platforms to market and increase company client's impressions exceeding advertising expectations
 - Rebranded the Smeal College of Business Corporate Partner Career Fair through direct and digital campaigns following a strict timeframe
- Macy's Inc.** | *Merchandising Intern* | New York, NY 6/16 – 8/16
- Achieved over 90% of projected daily sales and associate sales goals in a \$3.1 million FOB's
 - Reversed struggling FOB's MyClient sales -3% to 8% by improving client relationships, promotional strategies and POS knowledge
- NBCUniversal** | *Project Management Intern* | New York, NY 6/15 - 8/15
- Oversaw 90+ intern population by serving as a liaison/ point of contact between campus team and interns in remote locations
 - Developed a digital marketing campaign integrating social media platforms to drive promotion and profitability from the youth Olympic audience to the Rio 2016 Olympics
- University of Pittsburgh Medical Center** | *Creative Department* | Pittsburgh, PA 8/14 - 5/14
- Increased application completion rate 20% by implementing/designing an Assistance web-portal content designed using publishing software