

ABSTRACT

Title of dissertation: Understanding State Goal Orientation: Leadership and Work-group Climate as Key Antecedents

Lisa Christine Dragoni

Dissertation directed by: Associate Professor Cynthia Kay Stevens
Associate Professor Paul E. Tesluk
Department of Management and Organizations

This research attends to a broad range of practically significant employee achievement goals and provides insight into how to enhance individual-level performance by examining the antecedents to individual-level state goal orientation in organizational work groups. State goal orientation is defined here as a temporary achievement goal, and it is theorized that leadership and work group climate processes parallel each dimension of state goal orientation to cue and ultimately induce the corresponding achievement goal among individual work group members. The leader's achievement priority is argued to drive the formation of work group climate consistent with this priority. The resulting work group climate signals and compels group members to adopt the ascribed form of state goal orientation. The quality of the leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship is viewed as a means to internalize cues from the work group climate in the emergence of state goal orientation. Results from experimental and field studies provide evidence that (1) leadership and climate perceptions are related to their parallel form of state goal orientation, (2) the relation between individual perceptions of a climate for learning and state learning goal orientation is stronger when group members enjoy higher quality

exchange relationships with their leader, and (3) state goal orientation may be validly and reliably assessed using the measure created especially for this research.

UNDERSTANDING STATE GOAL ORIENTATION: LEADERSHIP AND WORK-GROUP CLIMATE AS KEY ANTECEDENTS

by

Lisa Christine Dragoni

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
2005

Advisory Committee:

Associate Professor Cynthia Kay Stevens, Co-Chair
Associate Professor Paul E. Tesluk, Co-Chair
Associate Professor Katherine Joy Klein
Professor Benjamin Schneider
Professor M. Susan Taylor

© Copyright by

Lisa Christine Dragoni

2005

DEDICATION

During my graduate school tenure, I have been equally challenged by the demands of my Ph.D. program and key events in my personal life. This dissertation is dedicated with love to those family members who have touched my life in a profound way:

Emma Vannucci (my maternal grandmother), who was proud of all of my accomplishments, regardless of their size.

Mildred Dragoni (my paternal grandmother), who loved me unconditionally and taught me how to be a person of integrity, grace, and thoughtfulness.

William Vannucci (my maternal grandfather) whose curiosity and ingenuity I always admired.

Madelyn Hope Cohen (my daughter), who reminds me every day to enjoy life's simplest pleasures.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Numerous people contributed to this final project. First and foremost, I would like to thank my committee members: Cindy Stevens, Paul Tesluk, Susan Taylor, Katherine Klein, and Ben Schneider. My most sincere thanks go to my advisors and mentors, Cindy Stevens and Paul Tesluk, for their unflagging support, constructive challenge of the ideas presented in this dissertation, and their willingness to help me to succeed as a scholar in this field. I am grateful to Susan Taylor for taking an interest in my development and sharing her wit, her balanced view of life and this profession, and her exceptional feedback on this work. I appreciated Katherine Klein's constructive feedback on the methodology of this work, as I believe her ideas substantially improved the final quality of this project. Lastly, I would like to thank Ben Schneider for engaging with me to find clarity when ideas were anything but clear, joining in my enthusiasm for this project, believing in my abilities, and helping me to improve my scholarship. It was a very special experience to be able to learn from each of you, and I am grateful for having had this opportunity.

I would like to acknowledge the senior managers at ABC Bank whose commitment to this project helped make it a success. A special thanks to Jeff Kudisch and Ian Williamson for allowing me to survey their students and taking an active interest in my development. Lastly, I appreciate the efforts of Tracy Addis who helped me with survey administration, data entry and various other administrivia.

I would also like to thank my classmates for their encouragement, positive outlook, and senses of humor. To Narda Quigley, Wei Liu, and Jennifer Marrone, thank you for your friendship and being my touchstone in this program. I am fortunate to have

received continuous support from many others: Amanuel Tekleab, Riki Takeuchi, Sharyn Gardner, Holly Slay, Gosia Langa, Sophia Marinova, Qing Cao, Antoaneta Petkova, Dax Basdeo, and Pat Maggitti. Thank you all!

Lastly, many people have asked me how I have been able to juggle being a Ph.D. student and a new mother. The answer lies with three very special people who have supported my educational aspirations: Inay, Jeanne Cohen, and Dan Cohen. To Inay, I am inspired by your educational accomplishment of ensuring that each of your 10 children received a college education and am deeply touched by your generosity of spirit and kindness. Thank you for taking care of Madelyn and loving her as if she was one of your own while I worked on completing my degree. A special thanks to my mother-in-law, Jeanne Cohen, who by helping to take care of Madelyn, helped me to have a sense of peace, even during my busiest stretches. And, finally, to my husband, Dan Cohen, whose encouragement throughout this program has been inspiring. I feel incredibly fortunate to be able to share my life with such a caring, generous, supportive, loving and funny person. Thank you for your desire to see me succeed in everything I do; your belief in me has buoyed me through the most challenging times, and your enthusiasm and wit has brought joy to every day we share together. I love you!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables.....	vii
List of Figures.....	viii
Chapter1: PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	1
Chapter 2: MODEL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES.....	10
Model Overview.....	10
Key Construct Definitions.....	13
Leader Priority.....	13
Work-group Climate.....	22
Goal Orientation.....	32
Individual Outcomes.....	37
Leader-member exchange relationship.....	39
Hypothesized Relationships.....	41
Relation between leadership and work-group climate.....	42
Relation between work-group climate and state goal orientation.....	45
Relation between state goal orientation and outcomes.....	51
Moderating role of the quality of LMX relationship.....	57
Chapter 3: RESEARCH METHODS.....	62
Research Design: Phase I—Qualitative Stage.....	62
Sample and design.....	62
Key findings.....	63
Research Design: Phase II—Measurement Study.....	65
Sample.....	65
Design.....	65
Data collection procedures.....	66
Measures.....	67
Control and theoretically-relevant measures.....	67
Dependent measures.....	68
State goal orientation.....	68
Development of measure.....	68
Method for gathering validity evidence.....	69
Convergent and discriminant validity evidence.....	72
Summary of key findings.....	82
Research Design: Phase III—Field Study.....	83
Sample.....	83
Design and data collection procedures.....	84
Measures.....	85
Analytic procedures.....	91

Issues of control.....	92
Chapter 4: RESULTS FROM THE FIELD STUDY.....	94
Psychometric evidence of the state goal orientation measure.....	94
Findings from hypothesis testing.....	96
Findings from tests for mediation.....	106
Summary.....	108
Chapter 5: DISCUSSION.....	110
Study limitations.....	120
Research implications.....	122
Managerial implications.....	124
Conclusion.....	125
APPENDICES.....	126
A: Interview Protocol.....	126
B: Focus Group Protocol.....	129
C: Experimental Conditions.....	131
D: Time 1 Measurement Study Items.....	134
E: Time 2 Measurement Study Items.....	136
F: Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch.....	140
G: Time 1 Field Study Items.....	149
H: Time 2 Field Study Items (collected from employees).....	151
I: Time 2 Field Study Items (collected from managers).....	155
REFERENCES.....	160

List of Tables

Theoretical Development

1. Behavioral Indications of Leader Priority.....	21
2. Description of Three Prototypical Work-group Climates.....	32
3. Construct Definitions.....	41

Measurement Study

4. Final Results from Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Loading.....	72
5. Multi-trait, Multi-Method Results: Model Fit Statistics.....	75
6. Variance Components due to Trait, Method, and Error for Model 1.....	75
7. Measurement Study Variable Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations.....	79
8. Mean Differences in State Goal Orientation Across Experimental Conditions...	81
9. Hierarchical Regression Results: State Goal Orientation Predicting Outcomes.	82

Field Study

10. Analytic Strategy Used for Testing Hypotheses.....	92
11. Final Results from Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Loadings.....	95
12. Branch-level Main Study Variable Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations.....	96
13. Individual-level Main Study Variable Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations.....	97
14. Random Coefficient Modeling Results: Leader Priority Predicting Psychological Climate.....	100
15. Random Coefficient Modeling Results: Psychological Climate Predicting State Goal Orientation.....	102
16. Random Coefficient Modeling Results: State Goal Orientation Predicting Outcomes.....	103
17. Random Coefficient Modeling Results: Interactive Effect of Psychological Climate and LMX in Predicting State Goal Orientation.....	105

List of Figures

1. Proposed Model of Contextual Influences on Individual State Goal Orientation and Associated Outcomes.....	12
2. Data Sources and sequencing.....	85
3. Interactive Effect of Psychological Learning Climate and LMX on State Goal Orientation.....	106

CHAPTER 1

Problem Statement

To remain competitive in an environment characterized by continuous change, high levels of complexity, and tremendous opportunity, contemporary organizations need to remain adaptive, innovative, and offer exceptional high products and services to customers. To achieve this end, organizations must motivate their members to continuously learn and adapt to changing job demands and discover novel and innovative methods for solving complex problems (Hall & Mirvis, 1996). At the same time, however, organizational members need to maintain high levels of performance to maintain high levels of satisfaction among customers, their colleagues, and organizational leaders. Research has shown leaders are instrumental in encouraging the motivation to learn and perform at high levels (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990; VanVelsor, McCauley, & Moxley, 1998). In addition to these more positive outcomes, leadership can deter organizational members from owning up to mistakes, thereby sabotaging unique learning opportunities and promoting “face saving” types of behavior (e.g., Edmondson, 1996). Building on this work, this research explores how organizational leaders encourage unique motivational responses for learning, performance, and avoiding failure among their employees and the outcomes associated with these different motivational states.

Academic research on goal orientation provides a useful means to understanding the influence of contextual factors, such as leadership, on individual motivation and outcomes. Goal orientation is defined as one’s goal preference in achievement settings (Dweck, 1986) and refers to one’s desire to develop, realize, or exhibit capability to perform a specific activity (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Initial research identified two

broad classes of underlying goals that individuals pursue: mastery and performance (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals displaying a mastery or learning orientation focus on building their competence and/or improving their abilities. Those favoring a performance orientation seek to demonstrate their competence by seeking favorable judgments or avoiding negative judgments regarding their capabilities. While often treated as a dispositional trait, theory and research suggests that situational demands may induce an orientation contrary to one's preference (e.g., Button, Mathieu, & Zajac 1996; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Nicholls, 1984). Substantial empirical evidence suggests that even subtle differences in experimental instructions in research settings can encourage individuals to adopt an orientation consistent with situational cues (e.g., Butler, 1993; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993; Kozlowski, Gully, Brown, Salas, Smith, & Nason, 2001; Mangos & Steele-Johnson, 2001; Steele-Johnson, Beauregard, Hoover, & Schmidt, 2001; Stevens & Gist, 1997).

Goal orientation has been shown to be a potent predictor of individual outcomes. For example, researchers have documented its relation to other motivational factors such as self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation (e.g., Chen, Gully, Whiteman & Kilcullen, 2000; Elliot & Church, 1997), behavioral outcomes such as performance (e.g., Brett & Vandewalle, 1999; Vandewalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999) and attitudinal and affective responses (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Elliot & McGregor, 1999). In the context of learning and development, goal orientation has been shown to be related to the acquisition of knowledge and transference of skills learned in training to the work context (Brown, 2001; Fisher & Ford, 1998; Ford, Smith, Weissbin, Gully & Salas, 1998;

Kozlowski et al, 2001). This body of research demonstrates the profound impact of goal orientation on behavioral, motivational and attitudinal outcomes.

The wide-reaching impact of the construct of goal orientation and evidence of its malleability sets the stage to pose an intriguing question: *if it is possible to promote different types of goal orientations, can organizational leaders facilitate adoption of different forms of goal orientation among their employees, and in turn, affect their performance? And, if so, how do leaders impact this motivational process and its associated outcomes?* This line of inquiry provides practitioners and scholars value by uncovering insights into how leaders can better motivate employees to learn and perform in order to achieve superior results. Pursuit of understanding this phenomenon is evidenced by the long tradition in the organizational behavior field that dates back to the Hawthorne Studies (as cited in Wren, 1979), in which Elton Mayo posited that supervisor's attention to workers enhanced employee morale, and in turn, affected performance levels. More contemporary scholars have studied this question by exploring leadership impact on employee self-efficacy and goal setting and performance (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Eden, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1990).

While organizational behavior scholars generally support the contention that studying leader impact on employee motivation and performance is essential, what value does examining leadership's relationship to one specific type of motivation, i.e., goal orientation, add to our understanding? Much of the existing research has focused on leadership's impact on motivating employees as a way to increase their productivity. Yet, with the emergence of the knowledge economy and the shift in the nature of work to becoming more complex, information- and skill-intensive, and fluid (Howard, 1995), the

importance of studying factors affecting employees' motivation to learn becomes vital. The changing organizational landscape and continuously shifting job requirements are redefining "employee effectiveness," demanding that researchers broaden their focus to include a motivation to learn, as well as more task-specific, productivity-related motivational concepts. Moreover, recent research suggests in some work group settings, contextual influences promote a motivation to "save face" among employees, dissuading employees from acknowledging their mistakes, continuously learning, adapting to new job requirements, and performing effectively (e.g., Edmondson, 1996; 1999). These organizational-, job- and research-related trends challenge researchers to examine a broader range of employee motivations. In this way, the concept of goal orientation provides a necessary vehicle to studying this variance in employee motivations.

Some researchers have begun to explore how leadership and other contextual factors relate to employee goal orientation and performance (Ames & Archer, 1988; Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002; Smith-Jentsch, Van Duyne, & Reynolds, 2001). Most directly, Smith-Jentsch et al (2001) investigated team leader goals as an inducement of team members' adoption of specific forms of goal orientation. Other studies have explored broader contextual influences. For example, Ames & Archer (1988) explored how student perceptions of their classroom experiences affected their adoption of specific goal orientations. Potosky & Ramakrishna (2002) found that the work environment's emphasis on updating skills moderated the relationship between learning goal orientation and job performance.

While these studies begin to document how contextual influences may impact employees' goal orientation, our understanding is limited by the scarcity of research in

this area, as well as the conceptual and methodological shortcomings of existing research. Conceptually, researchers have taken a myopic view of either leadership and/or context. Smith-Jentsch et al (2001) incorporate leader goals as the only contextual influence into their research. While leader goals have been shown to be important (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1982), they represent one leadership process and confine our understanding only to the impact of leader goals rather than the larger influence of leadership on employee goal orientation. Methodologically, these studies have struggled to adequately measure goal orientations as induced by situational influences. Ames and Archer (1988) assess goal orientation by measuring classroom environment, thus confounding context with student motivation. The measure used by Smith-Jenstch et al (2001) includes thoughts and general assessments of the situation rather than a drive toward learning and/or performance. Lastly, Potosky and Ramakrishna's (2002) use of a data-analytic technique that does not properly accounts for the multi-level nature (i.e., non-independent) of their data raises questions regarding the validity of their results. The result of the paucity of research in this area and methodological and conceptual shortcomings of existing studies is that very little is known about how contextual influences, such as leadership, can facilitate the adoption of different forms of goal orientation among employees.

In particular, this limited conceptualization of leadership influences is indicative of a larger shortcoming of the leadership literature. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue that most leadership research has employed a stove-pipe approach, choosing to focus on only one aspect of leadership process (e.g., leader, follower, or leader-follower relationship). More specifically, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) assert that incorporation of

variables representing leader-focused, follower-focused, and leader-follower relationship-based perspectives will ensure against overlooking critical leadership aspects, thereby increasing predictive power of leadership models. In addition, a multi-perspective approach allows scholars to better understand how each of these leadership domains complement one another in affecting outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) and how relationships among these domains may vary depending on the setting and type of outcome examined (Vecchio, 1982).

Despite these predictive advantages, few leadership studies have examined multiple leadership perspectives (Basu & Green, 1997; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Tierney, Farmer, & Graen 1999 are notable exceptions). These studies begin to uncover the additive and interactive effects of leader characteristics and style and the quality of relationship between leaders and their followers in predicting outcomes. However, due to the limited number of studies taking this approach, researchers continue to be challenged to better understand how leader-, follower-, and relationship-oriented processes complement one another in affecting outcomes.

This research augments existing knowledge on leadership by examining multiple leadership perspectives and their impact on individual-level outcomes. Consistent with the average-leadership style approach (i.e., leaders affect followers equally), early leadership theory (e.g., Ohio State and University of Michigan studies), and the work of early climate researchers (e.g., Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939; McGregor, 1960), leader priorities are examined as antecedents to work-group climate and represent an important aspect of the leader-focused perspective. Work-group climate is defined here as “incumbents’ perceptions of events, practices, and procedures and the kinds of behaviors

that get rewarded, supported, and expected in a setting” (Schneider, 1990: 384). I argue that leaders, through their consistent emphasis on specific priorities, provide cues to employees regarding valued behaviors and these cues are meaningfully interpreted by work-group members and can impact their goal orientation and associated performance.

Furthermore, this research incorporates the leader-follower relationship-based approach by examining how the quality of leader-employee exchange (LMX) relationships affects group-members’ goal orientation and performance outcomes. Toward this end, contemporary leader-member exchange theory and research will be used to hypothesize the effects of this more interpersonal, one-to-one relational leadership process. I employ the concept of leader priority to capture the achievement focus of the leader (i.e., the “what”) and present the concept of LMX as a relational medium through which leaders transmit and emphasize their priority (i.e., the “how”). Taken together, these two approaches to leadership processes are expected to yield a richer, more comprehensive view of the impact of leadership on employee motivation and performance.

In addition, this research offers a further improvement over much of the existing leadership and motivation literature. One underlying assumption of leadership theory is that leaders influence follower motivation, which in turn, affects follower performance. While some researchers have directly measured each component of this causal chain (e.g., Durham, Knight & Locke, 1997), this practice has not been consistently employed. For example, Shamir, House and Arthur (1996) noted that charismatic leadership theory and research is limited in its ability to fully explain the motivational process by which charismatic leaders affect follower attitudes and performance. Further, empowering

leadership approaches assume that leaders build intrinsic motivation among followers to lead themselves. However, notable studies in this area simply examine the relationship of empowering leadership to perceptions of leadership effectiveness by group members, neglecting effects on group member motivation (e.g., Manz & Sims, 1987).

This direct leadership—outcome approach is problematic because of its inability to rule out alternative explanations and more completely test underlying theoretical assumptions. It is plausible, for example, that higher employee performance results may be due to higher performers being attracted and selected to a particular type of leader, as posited by the attraction-selection-attrition framework (Schneider, 1987) instead of the leader's behaviors. Or, a certain type of leader may be more likely to provide challenging assignment to employees. The resulting performance gains in this case would not necessarily be due leadership per se, but rather the motivational stretch inherent in these types of assignments (McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott & Morrow, 1994). The current research extends current theorizing and testing by clearly delineating the causal chain that links leadership processes to employee performance outcomes. More specifically, this research examines how leadership affects the adoption of specific types of employee goal orientation, and in turn, impacts performance.

In sum, the research question addressed here is: *can organizational leaders facilitate adoption of different forms of goal orientation among their employees, and in turn, affect their performance? And, if so, how do leaders impact this motivational process and its associated outcomes?* It has been argued that this research contributes to our understanding of leadership, motivation, and performance in three distinct ways. First, by incorporating goal orientation as its central motivational variable, this study is

better able to examine the antecedents and consequences of a broader range of individual motivations that are consistent with contemporary organizational dynamics and demands. Secondly, this research takes a multi-perspective approach to leadership in order to provide richer, more comprehensive perspective of the effects of leadership. Lastly, it incorporates motivational processes into the proposed causal chain in order to more fully test underlying theoretical assumptions and adequately rule out alternative explanations.

CHAPTER 2

Model Development and Hypotheses

Model Overview

Kozlowski and Farr (1988) recommend that future research examine the underlying psychological mechanisms that influence individual learning and performance. Building on their suggestion, the model proposed herein posits group members' state goal orientation as the key motivational mechanism impacting individual outcomes.¹ Consistent with the socio-cognitive approach employed by early goal orientation researchers (e.g., Dweck, 1986), the central mechanism underlying these relationships center on how unique goal orientation dimensions create different mental frameworks of the task situation that serve to structure cognitive, affective, and behavioral responses. In addition, the proposed model predicts that group members adopt a state goal orientation consistent with the types of behaviors that are rewarded, supported and expected, as communicated by the work-group climate. The logic underlying this linkage is consistent with climate researchers who demonstrate a connection between climate and its effects on group members, such as shaping attributions of events, attitudes, and behavior (e.g., Hofmann & Stetzer, 1998).

¹The terms “group” and “team” are often used interchangeably in the academic literature and are defined as “a collection of individuals who are interdependent in their tasks, who share responsibility for outcomes, who see themselves and who are seen by others as an intact social entity embedded in one or more larger social systems” (Cohen & Bailey, 1997, p. 241). However, some note that groups may differ from teams in the level of interdependence that exists among the members (e.g., Cohen & Bailey; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). Here, I use the term “group” exclusively to convey that interdependence among members is not a necessary condition of this theoretical model.

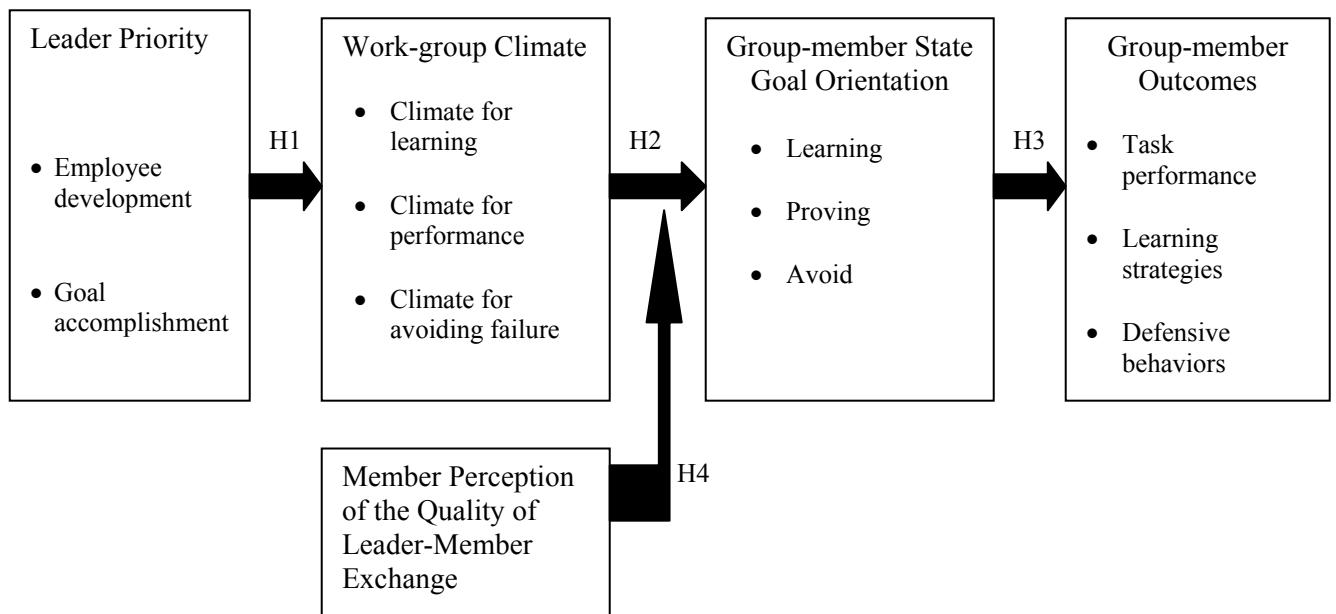
Moreover, as argued in early work on early climate (e.g., Lewin et al, 1939), organizational behavior (e.g., McGregor, 1960), and leadership (i.e., Schein, 1992, the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies), the model presented here argues that climate is established through the leader's priority. Lastly, a moderating role of leader-member exchange is offered to better understand the combined effects of climate and leadership on group-member motivation. These hypotheses are grounded in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and leader-member exchange research (e.g., Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973).

The proposed model centers on three key themes: learning, performance, and avoiding failure. It is argued that these themes pervade work-group and individual dynamics to differentially impact group-member motivations and outcomes. The logic underlying this research suggests that a consistency exists across leadership, work-group climate, group-member state goal orientation, and associated outcomes. This consistency creates unique work group “worlds” that revolve around a particular theme (i.e., learning, performance, avoiding failure), in which leaders and their members act and perceive work-related events in congruence with the ascribed work-group emphasis. It is argued that emergence of a particular theme is largely initiated by the leader's priority on learning, performance, and/or avoiding failure, which drives the formation of a work-group climate that embodies this priority. It is argued that each of these climates induce group members' adoption of the parallel form of goal orientation, and in turn, differentially impact individual-level outcomes. The quality of the exchange relationship between the leader and employee is viewed as a more relational, proximal leadership

process, serving to uniquely complement the existing backdrop established by the leader's priority and associated climate. These relationships are depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

Proposed Model of Contextual Influences on Individual State Goal Orientation and Associated Outcomes



The following discussion is organized into two sections. The first section discusses each of the core constructs depicted in the model to provide a construct definition and the proposed investigated level of analysis. The second section theorizes about each of the relationships depicted above. First, the relation between each specific leader priority and its respective, prototypical work-group climate will be specified. Second, the hypothesized mechanisms linking work-group climate and group-member state goal orientation will be detailed. Third, group members' state goal orientation and its relation to individual-level outcomes will be discussed. Lastly, an interaction between

of leader-member exchange and work-group climate will be proposed in affecting individual state goal orientation. Before discussion of these hypothesized linkages, I define each of the core constructs of the proposed model.

Construct Definitions

Leader Priority. A priority is defined as “something given special or prior attention” (Random House, 1998, p. 570). Here, leader priority refers to the special attention leaders devote to employee development, goal accomplishment and/or avoiding failure. Dating back to the leadership studies conducted by scholars at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan (as cited by Bass, 1990; Porter, Steers, & Bigley, 1996), researchers have long acknowledged that leaders “initiate structure,” that is, they structure their own work and the work of group members. Setting priorities is one way leaders structure the work group’s attention, work, and resources.

Here, priorities and goals are viewed as distinct, but interrelated, concepts. First, the concept of priority captures the relative attention paid to a variety of goals, while goals can be examined in isolation of other demands. This notion of relativity is particularly important in organizational settings where leaders and their members need to manage multiple goals but do not have adequate resources to attend to every goal immediately. Consequently, leaders and their members pay more attention to some goals than others. Secondly, Locke and Latham (1990) purposively choose the word “goal” for their goal-setting theory to connotate emphasis on the end result. Here, I use the concept of priority to include the ongoing process of emphasizing a particular outcome as well as the outcome itself. For this purposes of this study, this more inclusive concept better

captures the fuller leadership process surrounding the structuring of group members' attention on a particular focus.

This approach of examining leadership with a particular strategic focus or emphasis is relatively new. However, a recent paper by Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, and Saltz (2002) examines service leadership, that is, a leader priority on delivering high quality service, as an antecedent to climate. Implicit in their logic is that leaders who prioritize service will be more likely to communicate their commitment through their behaviors. I adopt a similar approach here and propose that relatively consistent actions taken by a leader indicates his/her priority on employee development, goal accomplishment, and avoiding failure.

While perhaps not explicit, much of existing leadership literature indicates the existence of these three priorities (i.e., learning, goal accomplishment, and the avoidance of failure). For example, Bass (1985; 1990) identifies individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation as dimensions of transformational leadership. In part, individualized consideration refers to leaders' provision of developmental support to group members through coaching and/or delegating developmental assignments. Transformational leaders provide intellectual stimulation when they challenge group members to think in novel ways about work challenges, the organization, themselves, and/or the leader. In addition, Manz and Sims (1987; 1992) describe empowering leadership as the process of leading others to become self-leaders. According to Manz and Sims (1987, 1992), this process involves coaching and developing group members to become leaders. In addition, team leadership researchers assert the need for leaders to emphasize learning and development of their members (e.g., Kozlowski, Gully, Salas, &

Cannon-Bowers, 1996; Zaccaro & Marks, 1999). These examples drawn from transformational, empowering, and team leadership theory may be viewed as behavioral representations of a leader's priority on employee development.

Leader priority on goal accomplishment is evidenced both in academic and practitioner leadership literatures. For example, House's (1971) path-goal leadership model describes a contingency approach in which leaders adopt the best style to maximize follower motivation, and in turn, follower effort and performance based on characteristics of employees and environmental circumstances. In addition, many scholars have discussed the importance of the establishment of a vision statement to communicate the overall direction and motivate organizational members to accomplishing objectives (e.g., Bass, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985), such a statement communicates the priority of the leader on particular goals. Lastly, leader use of popular management techniques such as Management by Objectives that focus on setting objectives, developing actions plans, monitoring progress, and evaluating performance. These examples illustrate ways in which leaders communicate their priority on accomplishing set goals through their behavior.

Behavioral representations of a leader's priority on avoiding failure can be seen in leadership, teams and politics research. Ancona and Caldwell (1992) found that leaders and their teams carefully selected what types of information would be shared with upper management as a way to avoid appearing incompetent. Lastly, Longnecker, Sims & Gioia (1987) found that leaders purposively misrepresented their employees' performance in the appraisal process, in some cases, to promote the appearance of competence of themselves or group members. Edmondson (1996) found that some nurse

managers blamed nurses for making mistakes, making them feel as though they were “on trial;” Edmondson (1996) theorized that these units reported less mistakes than other units to avoid the appearance of “failure.” These examples demonstrate some of the ways in which a leader’s priority to avoid failure to appear competent are expressed through their behavior.

These examples illustrate how leader priorities are communicated through behavior and suggest a more complex, subtle process of how leaders transmit their beliefs about what is important. In Schein’s (1992) classic work on leadership and culture, he details six mechanisms through which this transmission occurs. These six mechanisms serve as a conduit through which leaders express their priority to group members. More specifically, group members interpret leader behavior revolving around these six areas in ongoing leader-group interactions as reflective of an overall priority on learning, goal accomplishment, or avoidance of failure. Consequently, if relatively consistent, the patterns of leader behavior converge to elucidate the leader’s priority for the group and communicate his/her focus. Differing from the fundamental assumptions of leader-member exchange theory, leader priorities are assumed to apply to the group as a whole. For this reason, the construct of leader priority is conceptualized as a group-level phenomenon.

To better specify the leader behaviors indicative of the leader’s priority, each of Schein’s (1992) six mechanisms is described below and used to propose a range of leader behaviors indicative of each of the three priorities of interest: employee development, goal accomplishment, and avoiding failure.

What leaders pay attention to, measure, and control on a regular basis. This mechanism most directly communicates the leader's priority to group members. Their attention may take the form of questions, casual comments, rewards, priorities on meeting agendas, and measurement of specific behaviors. Conversely, powerful signals are sent to group members when a leader routinely ignores specific stimuli and indicates a lack of importance. Lastly, leaders' strong emotional reactions to specific events may be indicative of their priority on a particular aspect of group functioning.

How leaders react to critical incidents and organizational crises. Leaders who label a set of circumstances as a “crisis” convey a level of urgency of the situation to the group members. Moreover, their endorsed method for addressing critical incidents (e.g., through learning, demonstrating ability, avoiding the appearance of incompetence) communicate their assumptions and beliefs about effective crisis management. Signaling a particular way to handle a problem helps to clarify the leader's priority on employee development, goal accomplishment and/or impression management.

Criteria for resource allocations. Because resources are limited in organizations, decisions on how to allocate time, money, and other resources can indicate the leader's priority. Resource allocation decisions may, in turn, guide goal setting and identification of strategies for achieving objectives, serving to limit the range of alternative courses of action a leader can endorse for his/her group and elucidating a particular leadership priority.

Role modeling, teaching, and coaching. Leaders often role model the behavior they value, expect and believe effective. According to Schein (1992), these informal messages serve as powerful teaching lessons for group members. In addition, a central

part of teaching and coaching involves providing feedback to employees. During feedback sessions, both the content (i.e., what the leader notices) and focus (i.e., what values are implicit in the leader's message) embed and reinforce the leader's priority within the work-group climate.

Criteria for allocation of rewards and status. Leaders reinforce behaviors promoting their ascribed priority through rewards. Rewarding valued behavior continuously emphasizes their priority. By observing promotion cycles, participating in performance appraisals, discussing performance expectations with their manager, and observing what types of behaviors receive positive and negative acknowledgements from the leader, employees learn what the leader values.

Criteria for recruitment, selection, retirement, and excommunication. Schein's (1992) basic assertion is that leaders base their hiring and firing decisions based on the level of congruence between the leader's values and priorities and those expressed by the job candidate or incumbent. These decisions cue group members as to what is important to the leader and facilitate a longer-term shared value system among the group members. Because I hope to sample relatively mature, intact work groups, it is more instructive to examine the criteria leaders use to determine job assignments. Just as with hiring and firing decisions, these criteria signal to members the emphasis the leader places on employee development, goal accomplishment, and/or avoiding failure.

Behavioral Indications: Leader Priority on Employee Development. Leaders indicate a priority for employee development when they consistently inquire about how well group members are developing skills and knowledge, consistently discuss how different job assignments may contribute to employees' long-term growth, encourage

employees to set developmental goals for themselves, and/or hold regular on-one-one meetings to discuss developmental issues with group members. They will often provide resources (i.e., coaching, training, time off to engage in developmental activities) to facilitate employee development. Moreover, they view job assignments as potential opportunities for development, and make selection decisions based on how the assignment will contribute to the group member's growth. In crisis situations, they react by encouraging group members to experiment with different strategies and remain open to learning from these challenging situations; and, they often model this behavior for their employees. Leaders who prioritize employee development offer more feedback to group members and focus their coaching on skill improvement, rather than solely providing knowledge about the outcome of their performance. They consistently reward group member effort and a dedication to development and growth.

Behavioral Indications: Leader Priority on Goal Accomplishment. Leaders express their priority on goal accomplishment when they consistently measure performance against a set standard, pay almost exclusive attention to meeting task standards, measure success only in terms of accomplishing a set performance goal, and routinely ignore why objectives may not have been met, instead choosing to classify the experience as a failure. They allocate resources only to those activities that promote getting the work done. In crisis situations, leaders emphasizing goal accomplishment routinely call on group members who have a demonstrated track record in handling similar circumstances to resolve the problem. If necessary, the leader will step in so that accomplishment of task goals is not compromised. Similarly, in making staffing decisions, leaders who prioritize goal accomplishment assign jobs and tasks based on

demonstrated ability. Moreover, they consider who will have the greatest likelihood of meeting the standards associated with the task, and therefore, allow the leader and group to receive positive judgments regarding their competence. Feedback from leaders focused on goal accomplishment simply assesses group member performance against set standards and does not provide insight into how members may improve. Lastly, leaders emphasizing goal accomplishment consistently rewards employees for high levels of performance through recognition, promotion, and other extrinsic rewards.

Behavioral Indications: Leader Priority on Avoiding Failure. Leaders who prioritize the avoidance of failure consistently focus on how competent they or their group members appear to others, measure success in terms of number of errors made, and ignore opportunities to experiment and learn. Their focus is on the appearance of competence, even if they or their members are not capable. They define a crisis as someone making a mistake and this error becoming known; they deal with critical situations by either avoiding discussion of the error or by “spinning” organizational events so that the leader and his/her employees avoid being characterized as incompetent. Considerable resources, particularly time, are devoted to best positioning ideas and contributions to organizational stakeholders in the hopes of avoiding negative judgments regarding group members’ ability. These leaders delegate “safe” assignments to group members and approach assignment decisions with the intent of minimizing errors. They encourage group members to avoid challenging situations that may threaten the appearance of being capable and role model how to appropriately manage impressions so as to appear skilled. These leaders rewards group members for “not screwing up” with promotions, awards, and verbal recognition.

In sum, a leader priority refers to the special attention leaders devote to a particular aspect of group functioning. In this study, I focus on three leader priorities: employee development, goal accomplishment and avoidance of failure. While not explicitly acknowledged in the literature, behavioral expressions of each of the proposed leader priorities have been studied previously. To augment existing research and provide further elaboration, I have employed Schein's (1992) work to articulate the types of behaviors that convey a leader's priority on employee development, goal accomplishment, and/or avoiding failure. These behaviors are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1.

Behavioral Indications of Leader Priority

Embedding Mechanism (Schein, 1992)	Leader Priority on Employee Development	Leader Priority on Goal Accomplishment	Leader Priority on Avoiding Failure
What leaders pay attention to and measure	Employee development	Goal accomplishment	Others' perceptions of leader and group member capabilities
How leaders react to crises	Experiment; learn from mistakes	Send in the person with demonstrated expertise to resolve problem	Avoid discussions of errors or manage impressions to avoid negative competence judgments
Leader criteria for resource allocation	Allocate resources to facilitate group member development	Allocate resources to further progress toward operational objectives	Dedicate resources (i.e., time) to managing impressions
Leader teaching, coaching, and feedback	Focused on skill improvement	Focused on providing assessments of performance relative to objectives/ standards	Focused on avoiding challenging situations and managing the appearance of competence
Leader criteria for awards	Improved performance and level of effort	Outstanding performance	For "not screwing up"
Leader criteria for job assignment	"Who needs development in this area?"	"Who has demonstrated they can do the job?"	"Who will most likely not make errors?" (i.e., placement into "safe" assignments)

Work-group Climate: Construct Definition. Schneider defined climate as “incumbents’ perceptions of events, practices, and procedures and the kinds of behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected in a setting” (1990: 384). This definition suggests two broad classes of perceptions: routines (i.e., the events, practices and procedures), and rewards (i.e., behaviors that are rewarded, supported, and expected) (Schneider, 1990). In this way, climate is a perceptual interpretation of environmental cues offered by the routines and rewards of the particular setting through which employees may understand what is important and valued.

With the exception of a recent trend to explore the effects of varying degrees of shared perceptions (e.g., Gonzalez-Roma et al, 2002; Lindell & Brandt, 2000; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002), climate scholars consistently focus on the shared perceptual nature of climate in their research. Implicit in the definition of climate is the understanding that relatively little variance in organizational member perceptions exist; otherwise, shared interpretations of the setting would not emerge. Consistent with this tradition, theoretical discussions of climate in this proposal assume a high level of perceptual agreement among members and a relatively consistent view of the work-related events and practices across individuals in a particular work group.

Because early climate research examined such a variety of dimensions, the boundaries of what constituted climate became blurred (Schneider, 1975). For this reason, Schneider (1975) recommended conceptualizing climate with respect to a specific referent, such as service, quality, safety. In other words, climate is best defined, and in turn, understood when considering a central strategic focus (Schneider, 1990). Examples of climates with a strategic focus include a climate for safety (e.g., Zohar, 1980), a

climate for service (e.g., Schneider, 1990), a climate for updating skills (e.g., Kozlowski & Hults, 1987), transfer of training climate (e.g., Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995) and in the present case, a climate for learning, a climate for performance, and a climate for avoiding failure.

In addition, climate has been examined at multiple levels of analysis including the organization (e.g., Pritchard & Karasick, 1973), the sub-unit, such as a branch of a bank or a plant (e.g., Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Schneider, White & Paul, 1998), the work-group (e.g., Hofmann & Stetzer, 1996), and the individual, also referred to as psychological climate (e.g., Jones & James, 1979), levels. Here, the focus is on the work-group level of analysis, and the climate construct at this level of analysis has received considerable empirical support for its validity (Gonzalez-Roma et al, 2002; Howe, 1977; Powell & Butterfield, 1978; Rentsch, 1990; Zohar, 2000).

Work-Group Climate: Dimensionality. In my review of approximately twenty-five empirical studies on climate, close to fifty distinct dimensions have been assessed and measured. Despite the wide variance, however, several dimensions emerge as being the most commonly used in research:

1. Structure of the work environment—formality of the work environment, value placed on protocol; used in 29% of the studies reviewed.
2. Rewards—use of various organizational tangible and intangible rewards; used in 29% of the studies reviewed.
3. Support—availability of necessary resources and social support and encouragement; used in 50% of the studies reviewed.

4. Teamwork and cooperation—mutual support among team members; used in 33% of the studies reviewed.
5. Participation and involvement in decision making—level of influence in work activities and decisions; used in 29% of the studies reviewed.
6. Goal emphasis—types of outcomes and standards expected; used in 29% of the studies reviewed.
7. Communication flow—the frequency of communication; used in 29% of the studies reviewed.
8. Supervisory/managerial values and practices—the actions, values, expectations, and level of commitment demonstrated by the supervisor and/or higher-level manager; used in 33% of the studies reviewed.

While these dimensions surfaced as being the most commonly used, some are more appropriate for inclusion in this study than others. For example, the dimension of teamwork and cooperation is defined as “the extent to which employees perceive that a friendly cooperative work environment exists” (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989, p. 549). This dimension describes the general environment and is too generic for use in this research. More specifically, this dimension does not help to define distinguishing characteristics across the three climates of interest in this dissertation. For example, would a climate that had a high level of teamwork and cooperation be more indicative of a climate for learning, a climate for performance, or a climate for avoiding failure? In attempting to tailor this dimension more specifically to highlight distinguishing features across these three settings, the “teamwork and cooperation” dimension becomes redundant with the “support dimension.”

In addition, studying supervisory practices as a part of climate blurs the distinction between leadership and climate. Perhaps, the frequency with which researchers measure managerial practices as a part of climate is in part due to the relative rarity of explicitly testing leadership as an antecedent to climate (Barling, Loughlin & Kelloway, 2002; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Schneider et al, 2002 are notable exceptions). However, most recently, researchers have distinguished between these two constructs by specifying leadership as the guiding force or the influence that sets a direction for group members and the work-group climate as the perceptual medium that interprets and implements this direction through a series of ongoing, complex, social interactions among group members, other organizational stakeholders, customers, and the leader (personal communication: B. Schneider, November 20 2002). Furthermore, the dimensions of work-group climate serve to characterize the patterns of these interactions perceived by group members. Seen in this light, it becomes imprecise, and therefore inappropriate, to consider supervisory practices as a part of work-group climate.

The other six dimensions align well with the construct definition of climate and are not too generic, nor redundant. They have been adapted so as to properly describe the three climates of interest in this study (i.e., learning, performance, and avoiding failure). Adjustments to the dimensions described above primarily center on more directly assessing the content and focus of rewards and routines, rather than their frequency or level. Incorporation of these changes yield the following climate dimensions and definitions:

1. Structure of the work environment—extent to which group members perceive that protocols, standardized practices, and means of accomplishing learning,

performance of tasks, and/or avoiding failure are clearly specified (adapted from Abbey & Dickson, 1983; Burke, Borucki & Hurley, 1992; Kopelman, Brief & Guzzo, 1990; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Ostroff, 1993; Solomon, 1986; Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968).

2. Rewards—the extent to which group members perceive that various rewards are used to encourage and acknowledge learning, performance, and/or avoiding failure (adapted from Abbey & Dickson, 1983; Burke et al, 1992; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Kopelman et al, 1990; Ostroff, 1993; Solomon, 1986; Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968).
3. Support—the extent to which group members perceive that the necessary resources and social support, including feedback from colleagues, is available to promote learning, performance, and/or avoiding failure (adapted from Abbey & Dickson, 1983; Burke et al, 1992; Gonzalez-Roma et al, 2002; Jones & James, 1979; Kopelman et al, 1990; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Kozlowski & Farr, 1988; Kozlowski & Hults, 1988; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Solomon, 1986; Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968; Tracey et al, 1995). To reduce redundancy with the leadership construct, this dimension only focuses on support provided by the organization and colleagues, not work-group leaders.
4. Participation and involvement in decision making—the extent to which the group members perceive their involvement in decision making regarding learning, performance, and/or avoiding failure issues (adapted from Abbey & Dickson, 1983; Drexler, 1977; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Kozlowski & Farr, 1988; Ostroff, 1993; Solomon, 1986).

5. Goal emphasis—the extent to which group members perceive learning, performance, and/or avoiding failure as valued and expected outcomes (adapted from Burke et al, 1992; Gonzalez-Roma et al, 2002; Kopelman et al, 1990; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Lindell & Brandt, 2000; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Tracey et al, 1995).
6. Communication—the extent to which group members perceive that work-group communication centers on learning, performance, and/or avoiding failure (adapted from Drexler, 1977; Griffin & Neal, 2000; Jones & James, 1979; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987; Neal, Griffin, & Hart, 2000; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993; Tracey et al, 1995).

Adequate measurement of work-group climate will hinge on the applicability of these dimensions to the context of the sampled organization. For this reason, these dimensions will be further validated for their appropriateness, as well as the identification of additional dimensions, during the qualitative stage of data collection (please see Chapter 3 for more details).

Work-group Climate: Description of Three Prototypical Climates. These six dimensions will be used in describing three prototypical work-group climates (i.e., climate for learning, a climate for performance, a climate for avoiding failure). These climates are not mutually exclusive; instead, each of these climates may be present within the same work group to varying degrees. Because limited organizational resources demand focused attention on a limited set of valued behaviors and outcomes, it is likely that one, perhaps two, particular climate(s) is/are more dominant than the others as a way to help work-group members focus on the more important priorities.

Climate for learning. The concept of a climate for learning builds on previous work in the employee developmental literature and has been referred to as a “continuous learning culture” (Tracey et al, 1995) and “a climate for technical updating” (Kozlowski & Farr, 1988; Kozlowski & Hults, 1987). Training researchers have explored a similar concept, namely a “transfer of training climate” (Burke & Baldwin, 1999; Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). Consistent with this prior research, a climate for learning emphasizes continuous development of knowledge and skills. Employees perceive that continuous learning and ongoing engagement in developmental activities is valued, supported, and the expected means for achieving individual and work-group goals (Rosow & Zager, 1988; Tracey et al, 1995).

In this type of climate, informal practices and formal systems provide opportunities for development and reinforce learning (Dubin, 1990). Intrinsic rewards such as satisfaction gained from continuous improvement and learning are stressed as important rewards; extrinsic rewards, such as public acknowledgement for learning and promotion based on demonstrated dedication to continuous improvement of one’s skills, are also emphasized.

Co-workers in climates for learning provide the necessary social support, challenge, encouragement to learn, and feedback to assist in developing and maintaining motivation in the face of challenges (Dubin, 1990; Kram, 1985; Noe & Wilk, 1993; VanVelsor et al, 1998); it is perceived that resources are available, such as training, time to engage in development, and access to other developmental activities (Dubin, 1990; Maurer & Tarulli, 1994; Morrison & Brantner, 1992; Noe & Wilk, 1993). Moreover, in this type of climate, incumbents perceive themselves as being an active participant in

deciding when, how, and which skills they need to develop. Lastly, given this description of the structure, rewards, support structure, and decision-making, it is probably not surprising that issues of employee development, learning, feedback, and developmental activities are perceived as being commonly discussed within the group.

Climate for performance. The construct of a climate for performance is similar to what safety climate researchers have referred to as “high reliability organizations.” High reliability organizations are defined as “organizations in which complex technology must be controlled and complex processes carried out in an error free manner” (Hofmann, Jacobs & Landy, 1996, p. 139). Moreover, within the oil industry, Wright (1986) observed an organizational pressure to complete the work as quickly as possible. The central theme here is on high levels of productivity, without error. A climate for performance is a bit broader than observations from the safety climate literature in that performance is not limited to productivity levels and/or efficiency. Performance, as in many knowledge-based organizations, also refers to effectiveness in completion of complex tasks or projects.

In a climate for performance, employees perceive achieving the performance standard as the most valued outcome. It is expected that these performance standards will be attained efficiently, effectively, and accurately through applying team members’ current skills, knowledge, and abilities. Informal practices and policies support the accomplishment of work tasks, specifying clear methods or task approaches. Extrinsic rewards, such as promotion and salary, are consistently provided for individuals who are viewed as having high ability in meeting or exceeding performance standards. Group

members perceive satisfaction (i.e., intrinsic rewards) when particularly difficult, challenging performance standards are met (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Perceived support focuses on removing possible barriers to achieving performance goals, such as a lack of materials, information, staff, or time. In addition, group members support one another to accomplish the task by providing advice on difficult issue and encouragement to meet performance standards. In this type of climate, group members perceive themselves as involved in decisions regarding performance issues, such as goal-setting and performance strategies and approaches, and work-group communication primarily centers around goals, goal accomplishment, and performance strategies.

Many of these points complement Locke and Latham's (1990) high performance cycle in which they detail how performance goals and standards motivate high levels of performance. Consistent with their view, rewards in this climate are seen as contingent upon performance, and situational constraints are seen as barriers to performance, and therefore, need to be removed. While the concept of a climate for performance emphasizes more of the environmental conditions, Locke and Latham (1990) work parallels the central emphasis of this particular climate and supports some of its major distinctions.

Climate for avoiding failure. In this context, avoiding failure (i.e., making errors) is extremely valued because it is perceived to be instrumental in maintaining the appearance of competence. Being labeled as "incompetent" risks future opportunities (e.g., promotion), limits access to resources (e.g., information, salary increases), and respect and acceptance from colleagues and organizational leaders. The teams and

climate literatures documents how some work groups foster a climate that is not supportive of admitting errors, discussing mistakes, or offering dissenting opinions (e.g., Edmondson, 1996; 1999; Hofmann & Stetzer, 1998).

In a climate for avoiding failure, the common practice is to engage in “face saving” behaviors (e.g., avoid discussions of errors and mistakes, asking for help, shifting blame). Typically, group members perceive that they are encouraged to avoid blame, resist taking on assignments that risk failure, and/or avoid taking action so as to evade revealing low ability of a particular group member. Group members perceive being rewarded for “not screwing up” with verbal acknowledgements, promotion, and salary increases. It is perceived that committing errors carry significant punishment such as constant reminders of one’s mistake and brutal, demeaning confrontations by others (Edmondson, 1996).

Because this environment is unforgiving of even the slightest error, group members do not perceive the same type of social support from their colleagues as in a climate for learning or performance. Here, support comes in the form of covering up for one another. This phenomenon of attributing mistakes to external events to shift blame away from group members has been documented in Hofmann and Stetzer’s (1998) work on safety climate. Moreover, because errors are not discussed, group members in this climate are not involved in decisions regarding how to improve group functioning. Work-group discussions center around anything but errors and mistakes, potentially at the expense of addressing key issues preventing members from effectively performing their jobs.

In summary, work-group climate has been defined as work-group members' "perceptions of events, practices, and procedures and the kinds of behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected in a setting" (Schneider, 1990: 384). In this dissertation, three prototypical climates will be examined: a climate for learning, a climate for performance, and a climate for impression management. These climates have been described using standard dimensions derived from review of existing literature. A summary of these descriptions can be found in Table 2.

Table 2.

Descriptions of Three Prototypical Work-group Climates

Climate Dimensions	Climate for Learning	Climate for Performance	Climate for Avoiding Failure
<i>Goal emphasis</i>	Continuously developing and learning new skills, knowledge, and capabilities	Achieving performance goals and standards	Avoid committing and admitting to mistakes
<i>Structure</i>	Formal systems and practices provide opportunities for development and reinforce learning	Formal systems and practices specify how best to achieve performance goals	Informal practices endorse avoiding discussion of errors
<i>Rewards</i>	For learning	For high performance	For "not screwing up;" severely punished for making mistakes
<i>Support</i>	Availability of developmental activities; encouragement and feedback on how to develop from peers	Availability of resources necessary to meet performance goals; encouragement and coaching from peers on how to accomplish specific tasks	Group members covering up for one another
<i>Involvement in decision making</i>	Involved in decisions pertaining to one's development	Involved in decisions pertaining to goal accomplishment	Not involved in decisions regarding improvement issues
<i>Communication</i>	Focuses on learning and development	Focuses on meeting performance goals	Focuses on anything but mistakes and errors

Goal orientation: construct definition. As previously discussed, goal orientation is defined as one's goal preference in achievement settings (Dweck, 1986) and refers to one's desire to develop, realize, or exhibit the capability to perform a specific activity

(Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Initial research identified two broad classes of underlying goals that individuals pursue: mastery and performance (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Individuals displaying a mastery or learning orientation focus on building one's competence and/or improving their abilities. Those favoring a performance orientation seek to demonstrate their competence by seeking favorable judgments and/or avoiding negative judgments regarding their capabilities.

Goal orientation provides a mental framework that affects how individuals view challenging situations and shapes their responses in these situations (Dweck, 1986; Dweck, 2000; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). The causal mechanism underlying these two broad classes of goals is one's implicit beliefs regarding intellectual ability and effort. Individuals with a learning orientation hold an incremental view of ability and believe their competencies may be developed through effort and experience. In this view, effort and improved task strategies lead to success. In contrast, individuals with a performance orientation ascribe to an entity view of ability, believing that ability is a fixed personal attribute that cannot be changed. According to this mental framework, higher effort is an indication of lack of ability because individuals who are naturally talented should not have to try so hard to be successful.

Goal orientation: dimensionality. Our understanding of the dimensionality of goal orientation has evolved. Initially, Dweck and her colleagues left the question of dimensionality unclear, although some scholars have suggested early work posited goal orientation as uni-dimensional (Button et al, 1996; VandeWalle, 1997). The first measure developed specifically for adult populations was developed and validated by Button and his colleagues (1996). In this research, they provided support for two, distinct

dimensions of goal orientation: learning and performance. Their empirical approach was consistent with the goal orientation theory and research of the time and rigorously compared various models consisting of different combinations of learning and performance orientations. No conceptual work at that time had suggested the potential for a three-factor model, and therefore, they did not test this possibility.

More recent empirical evidence supports further partitioning performance orientation into two components, i.e., prove and avoid, arguing that “seeking favorable judgments” and “avoiding negative judgments” are two distinct goals (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; VandeWalle, 1997). Accordingly, individuals with a proving orientation prefer tasks that allow them the opportunity to demonstrate their capabilities and gain favorable feedback. Their avoiding-oriented counterparts avoid responsibilities that may reveal their shortcomings to others. It is important to note that both individuals with a proving orientation and individuals with an avoiding orientation subscribe to the entity theory of intellectual ability.

Goal orientation: malleability. Researchers consider goal orientation to be a stable, dispositional construct that is susceptible to situational influences. Researchers treating goal orientation as a dispositional trait, measure goal orientation, rather than induce it (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Brown, 2001; Chen et al, 2000; Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Elliot & Church, 1997; Elliot & McGregor, 1999; Fisher & Ford, 1998; Ford et al, 1998; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Towler & Dipboye, 2001; VandeWalle et al, 1999; VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). This body

of research predicts specific behavioral and motivational outcomes based on individual differences in goal orientations.

Researchers treating goal orientation as more malleable induce specific forms of goal orientation through situational influences and often refer to this construct as *state* goal orientation. A state orientation is a temporary preference for specific achievement goals. Dweck and Leggett (1988) suggest that when the situation offers few cues as to which orientation to adopt, individuals will rely on their dispositional goal orientation. If, on the other hand, the circumstances increase the value or saliency of a specific orientation, “predispositions should be overridden and greater homogeneity among individuals will result” (1988: 269-270).

These arguments are consistent with Mischel (1977) who asserts that situational strength impacts the extent to which dispositional variables become observable through behavior. According to Mischel (1977), strong situations encourage individuals to construe the situation similarly, induce conformity in expectations regarding appropriate behaviors, reward expected behaviors, and require skills individuals possess. On the other hand, weak situations allow for variation in perceptions and behavioral responses. Personality researchers suggest that situations such as experimental settings create strong situations through clearly articulated expectations and requirements and structured tasks (Schneider, 1983; Weiss & Adler, 1984). Consequently, in strong situations, personality influences do not emerge as powerful predictor of behavior.

Empirical evidence documents that trait goal orientation has a state counterpart. Through confirmatory factor analysis, Button et al (1996) showed that dispositional and state goal orientations are distinct dimensions, and situational influences may cause

individuals to adopt an orientation different than their dispositional one. Additional research has documented that the strength of specific situational cues, such as framing of the task, competition, extrinsic rewards, and evaluations standards, cause individuals to adopt a *state* goal orientation (Ames & Archer, 1988; Butler, 1993; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Harackiewicz & Elliot, 1993; Nicholls, 1984; Stevens & Gist, 1997). In studies by Butler (1993), Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996), Harackiewicz and Elliot (1993), and Stevens and Gist (1997), researchers induced state goal orientations through experimental manipulations. Adult participants were randomly assigned to an experimental condition in which a different goal (i.e., performance or mastery) for the experimental task was emphasized. For other studies, state goal orientation was induced through task instructions that emphasized the fixed or incremental nature of ability (Mangos & Steele-Johnson, 2001; Steele-Johnson et al, 2000). Even though the framing of the task was subtle, it proved effective in inducing state goal orientations among participants.

Studies conducted with samples of children demonstrate a similar pattern of results. With a sample of fifth graders, Elliott and Dweck (1988) randomly provided each student with a learning or performance goal. Students with the performance goal consistently demonstrated behavior consistent with a performance orientation. Likewise, students with the learning goal exhibited behavior consistent with a learning orientation. Similarly, Ames and Archer (1988) examined how the teacher's emphasis on performance or learning goals in the classroom affected junior high and high school students. Perceptions of learning or performance goals led to similar behavioral patterns

found by Elliott and Dweck (1988). These studies highlight the potency of goals and the situational influence of an authority figure on state goal orientation.

Given the most recent empirical evidence on the dimensionality and malleability of goal orientation, three dimensions of state goal orientation will be investigated at the individual level of analysis in this dissertation. The current study extends this previous work by examining state goal orientation in an organizational setting with a working adult population, rather than in an experimental setting. This methodology will allow for greater understanding of how naturally occurring contextual factors, such as leadership and work-group climate, affect individual state goal orientation and associated outcomes.

Individual outcomes. To better capture the multi-faceted construct of performance, three primary categories of outcome variables are investigated in this dissertation: task performance, learning strategies, and defensive behaviors (e.g., avoiding challenge, blaming, excuse making). The more specific nature of the outcome variables examined in this study, in part, will be driven by the context of the sampled organization, which has yet to be determined. Therefore, I provide below specific definitions of these constructs as well as examples from previous research as a way to clarify the meaning of the outcome variables of interest.

Task performance refers to the quality, accuracy, and quantity of performance associated with execution of the task and will be investigated at the individual-level of analysis. Examples of task performance from previous studies include exam performance (e.g., Chen et al, 2000; Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Elliot & McGregor, 1999; Phillips & Gully, 1997), quality of presentation (e.g., Brett & Vandewalle, 1999), performance of skills learned in training and transferred to another context (Ford et al, 1998; Kozlowski

et al, 2001), quality of performance on problem-solving tasks (e.g., Butler, 1993), sales volume (e.g., VandeWalle et al, 1999), and accuracy on problem solving tasks (e.g., Steele-Johnson et al, 2001; Mangos & Steele-Johnson, 2001).

As argued by other scholars (e.g., Hall, 2002), individual learning and adapting are necessary for employee effectiveness given changing business, organizational and career demands. Learning refers to “a relatively permanent change in knowledge or skill produced by experience” (Weiss, 1990, p. 172). This definition suggests the need to document a relatively stable change through a comparison of pre- and post-assessments of knowledge and/or skill and is difficult to study in cross-sectional designs, such as the one proposed here. For this reason, this dissertation adopts the same approach taken by others and examines precursors of learning, that is, learning strategies (e.g., Fisher & Ford, 1998; Ford et al, 1998; Kozlowski et al, 2001). Learning strategies refer to “an internal process by which learners select and modify their ways of attending, learning, remembering, and thinking” (Gagne, Briggs, & Wager, 1992, p. 66). These strategies become apparent through exhibited behavior. Examples of these types of strategies studied by previous researchers include feedback seeking (e.g., Butler, 1993; Middleton & Midgley, 1997; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997), metacognition (e.g., Ford et al, 1998), and other strategies, such as practice, self-maintenance activities, organizing knowledge into coherent structures, and elaboration (e.g., Brown, 2001; Fisher & Ford, 1998; Kozlowski et al, 2001; Stevens & Gist, 1997). Consistent with the research cited above, these types of behaviors are viewed as more proximal indicators of learning and will be investigated at the individual-level of analysis.

According to some scholars, one barrier to achieve the learning and adaptation necessary in today's business environment is defensive behaviors (e.g., Edmondson, 1996). Defensive behaviors are defined as "reactive and protective actions intended to reduce a perceived threat to or avoid an unwanted demand of an individual or group" (Ashforth & Lee, 1990, p. 622) and may include avoiding delivering "bad news," avoiding blame, and avoiding taking action that might implicate oneself. These behaviors have been studied as a part of political behavior (Valle, 1997), means to managing mentor-protégé relationships (Tepper, 1995), and as a barrier to team learning and effectiveness (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Edmondson, 1996). Conventional wisdom and the extant literature, albeit it limited, suggests that these behaviors are largely dysfunctional and negatively impact group performance and functioning. Here, they are particularly relevant to understanding how different dimensions of goal orientation may affect the frequency in which individuals engage in these potentially dysfunctional behaviors, an area of study that has received no research attention to date.

Quality of leader-member exchange. The construct of leader-member exchange relationships, also commonly referred to as LMX, is built on two fundamental and interrelated theoretical perspectives: role making and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Graen, 1975). Graen (1975) posited that dyads of interdependent organizational members engage in the role making process to define how each will behave and agree on the general nature of their relationship. In particular, the relationship between the leader and subordinate, also referred to as vertical dyad linkages in early LMX research, becomes especially important in shaping role expectations of the member (Graen, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986), and therefore, is the central

relationship of interest. Moreover, through the role-making process, differentiated role definitions develop between leaders and each of their members, resulting in varied leader-member exchange relationships within a particular group.

Drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), LMX researchers have argued that the basis for exchange relationships lie in the valued resources each party may provide (e.g., Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997). For example, leaders may provide challenging assignments, mentoring, and/or informational resources. In exchange, members offer valued resources such as greater levels of effort and/or loyalty.

Based on this theoretical background, the most commonly-used working definition of leader-member exchange is the “quality of the exchange relationship between leader and subordinate” (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999, p. 77). Often times, LMX is operationalized by having leaders, their members, and/or both parties respond to a set of items assessing the quality of the relationship. The analysis is then conducted at the individual level using the perceptions from the leader, member or both.

Recently, however, researchers have questioned this practice because of the logical inconsistency of theoretically defining the construct’s level of analysis at the dyadic or relationship level and testing the hypothesized relationships at the individual level (Schriesheim et al, 1999; Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000). While this is a valid criticism, for the purposes of this dissertation, the compelling force believed to drive whether a group member adopts a particular state goal orientation is the *member’s perception* of the quality of the relationship, not necessarily the dyad’s assessment of the quality of this relationship. Focusing on member perceptions is logically consistent with examining the role of work-group climate, another perceptual medium. For these

reasons, this dissertation will focus on the member's perception of LMX, and it will be investigated at the individual level of analysis.

Summary of Construct Definitions and their Level of Analysis. In sum, this dissertation will focus on five key constructs: leader priority, work-group climate, group member state goal orientation, individual outcomes, and member's perception of the quality of leader-member exchange relationship. Each of these constructs has been defined in the preceding discussion, and these definitions are summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3.

Construct Definitions

Construct	Definition	Proposed Investigated Level of Analysis
Leader priority	An aspect of the group functioning given special attention by the leader (adapted from Random House Dictionary).	Group
Work-group climate	Group members' "perceptions of events, practices, and procedures and the kinds of behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected in a setting" (Schneider, 1990, 384).	Group
State goal orientation	A temporary preference for specific achievement goals.	Individual
Individual Outcomes -Task performance -Learning strategies -Defensive behaviors	Task performance: the quality, accuracy, and quantity of performance associated with execution of the task Learning strategy: "an internal process by which learners select and modify their ways of attending, learning, remembering, and thinking" (Gagné, Briggs, & Wager, 1992, p. 66). Defensive behaviors: "reactive and protective actions intended to reduce a perceived threat to or avoid an unwanted demand of an individual or group" (Ashforth & Lee, 1990, p. 622)	Individual
Member perception of the quality of LMX relationship	"quality of the exchange relationship between leader and subordinate" (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999, p. 77).	Individual

Hypothesized Relationships

As highlighted previously, the model proposed herein posits group leaders' priorities as the key drivers of three unique climates described in the preceding discussion. It is predicted that group members adopt a state goal orientation consistent

with the types of behavior that are rewarded, supported and expected, as communicated by the work-group climate. In turn, group members' state goal orientation is posited as the key motivational mechanism impacting individual outcomes. Lastly, it is theorized that the effects of climate and the role of the exchange relationship interact to impact group member state goal orientation. In the following section, the rationale for each of these hypotheses is detailed in the order highlighted above.

Relation between leader priority and work-group climate. There is a strong historical tradition documenting the key role of leadership in establishing work-group climate. In their classic works, Likert (1967) and McGregor (1960) asserted that leaders transmit their beliefs and expectations through the climate they create. McGregor (1960) suggests that managers convey their attitudes about workers, consistent with Theory X or Theory Y, through their behavior. In turn, this behavior establishes the work-group climate. Lewin et al (1939) empirically tested the role of leadership in establishing work-group climate. Across three leadership conditions (i.e., democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire), Lewin et al (1939) found notable differences in followers' attitudes and behaviors between the groups. More recently, Eden and his colleagues' research on the Pygmalion Leadership Effect (2000) shows how leaders transmit their expectations and beliefs regarding their group member ability to create a supportive climate. These findings suggest a group-level phenomenon that is shaped by the leader and, in turn, affects the behaviors and attitudes of group members.

Schneider and Reichers (1983) provide three theoretical explanations for why climates emerge, two of which are relevant to this discussion. First, citing Payne and Pugh (1976), they suggest one way in which climate is influenced is through

organizational members' perceptions of objective characteristics of the work setting, such as the extent of centralization of decision making and the degree to which rules and policies constrain behavior. According to Payne and Pugh (1976), this structure shape how organizational members perceive organizational events.

This structural argument complements early and contemporary leadership theory. According to researchers involved in the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies (as cited in Bass, 1990; Porter, Steers, & Bigley, 1996), leaders structure the work of their employees through rules, policies and goal setting. This basic idea can be seen in more recent theorizing of leadership in climate. For example, Kopelman et al (1990) and Ostroff and Bowen (2000) argue that human resource practices give rise to climate. In work-group settings, human resource practices are executed in large part by group leaders (Zohar, 2000) and are used to organize and guide the work of group members. In turn, this imposed structure influences group member perceptions of group events and rewards. As an example, Smith-Jentsch, Salas, and Brannick (2001) document that team leadership as exercised through specific job assignment practices, such as delegation of opportunities to perform trained tasks (e.g., Ford, Quinones & Sego, & Sorra, 1992), lead to a transfer of training climate.

An additional argument presented by Schneider and Reichers (1983) posits an interactionist perspective, stating that "climates emerge out of the interactions that members of the work group have with each other" (p. 30). Through these interactions, shared meaning and perceptions of objective aspects of the work environment emerge. Drawing on social comparison and social conformity theory, Ashforth (1986) argues

greater conformity of perceptions and meaning converge on a particular “fulcrum” when a “compelling referent” exists in the work group.

A leader acts as a “compelling referent” in the work group. Their formal status in the organization provides them a heightened degree of saliency and value within the group. Drawing from the safety climate literature, Hofmann et al (1995) echo Ashforth’s (1986) assertions by arguing that workers motivation and attitudes mirror the leaders’ priorities on safety, thereby impacting the efficacy of safety climate. Leader-group communications have been shown to impact how members perceive the openness of the climate, and in turn, shape their attributions of work events and willingness to admit mistakes (Edmondson, 1996; Hofmann & Stetzer, 1998). In addition, Scott and Bruce (1994) find that leader expectations affect a climate for innovation, and in turn, innovative behavior. Lastly, Barling et al (2002) show that transformational leaders influence climate through expressing idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. These aspects of leadership provide opportunities for interaction between leaders and their group members. These interactions convey the leader priorities, thereby shaping climate perceptions.

In sum, building from Payne and Pugh (1976) and Schneider and Reichers’ (1983) structural arguments, it has been argued that, through communication of their priorities, leaders provide the necessary structure to shape group members perceptions of group routines and rewards. A second complementary argument adopted from Schneider and Reichers (1983) and Ashforth (1986) asserts that specific forms of climate emerge through interactions among group members and their leaders. During these interactions, leaders represent a “compelling referent,” driving conformity of perceptions to converge

on their central priorities. Moreover, more recent empirical evidence substantiates the link between leadership and climate. For these reasons, I offer the following general proposition, accompanied by more specific hypotheses:

Proposition 1: The leader's priority directly impacts work-group climate.

Hypothesis 1a: The leader's priority on employee development is positively related to a climate for learning

Hypothesis 1b: The leader's priority on goal accomplishment is positively related to a climate for performance

Hypothesis 1c: The leader's priority on avoiding failure is positively related to a climate for avoiding failure.

Relation between work-group climate and group-member state goal orientation.

In part, the relationship between work-group climate and group-member state goal orientation hinges on the question of whether one's perceptions of the environment can affect his/her motivation. The broader motivational literature demonstrates a relationship between individual perceptions and one's motivation. For example, equity theory (Adams, 1965) posits that motivation is a function of how an individual perceives his/her ratio of efforts to rewards as compared to that of another party. These perceptions of oneself in comparison to another drive individual motivation. Similarly, expectancy theory predicts effort will be a function of an individual's perceptions regarding the utility of effort, value of the reward, and probability an achieved outcome will result in receipt of reward (Vroom, 1964). Lastly, Bandura's (1997) triadic reciprocal causation model stipulates that perceptions of factors relating to the environment, individual and his/her behavior continuously interact to affect one another. Moreover, individual

factors, such as motivational constructs (e.g., self-efficacy), are products and drivers of the perceived environment and one's behavior. Consistent with this logic, the reasoning underlying the model proposed herein suggests that individual perceptions of their work environments, i.e., work-group climate and their relationship with the leader, affect one's motivation, and in turn, their behavior.

Consistent with the broader literature on motivation, research support the logic that climate impacts individuals motivationally, and in turn, their performance outcomes (Griffin & Neal, 2000; Kopelman et al, 1990; Neal et al, 2000). Kopelman et al (1990) posit that climate affect motivation by helping to clarify outcome expectancies through rewards, influencing individuals' self-efficacy through task support, and affecting the valences of particular behaviors and outcomes through rewards and group structures. Empirically, Griffin and Neal (2000) and Neal et al (2000) demonstrate that climate influences individual motivation levels, and in turn, performance.

However, as Bandura (1997) points out, person-factors, such as personality, affect causal relationships between environmental factors, motivational states, and behavioral outcomes. Consequently, the relationship of work-group climate to state goal orientation also depends on the extent to which this contextual factor is compelling enough to override personal preferences. Mischel (1977) theorized that situational strength impacts the extent to which personality factors are dominated by contextual influences. He describes strong situations as ones that lead situation participants to hold uniform perceptions of events and expectations of appropriate behaviors and receive rewards for behaving consistent with expectations. On the other hand, weak situations are not sufficiently compelling to cause situation incumbents to share perceptions regarding

events and expected behaviors. Mischel's theory (1977) predicts that in strong situations, individuals are more likely to behave consistent with situational demands. Conversely, in weak situations, individual behavior will be more reflective of individual difference factors.

Like other strong situations, a work-group climate provides clear situational cues as to what behaviors are expected, valued, and rewarded. However, why might individuals conform to the demands of a strong situation, such as work-group climate? Schneider (1975) provides two theoretical arguments that explain why individuals align their attitudes, motivations, and behavior with the existing climate. First, Gestalt Psychologists posit that the duty of every individual is to understand the order that objectively exists, as represented by situational cues, and to behave consistently with this apprehended order. In this way, Gestalt Psychologists assert that individuals are driven to make sense of their patterned context and to act in accordance with the demands of this environment. Consequently, acting consistent with the demands of the climate, fulfill individuals' need for order and understanding of their environment.

Secondly, Schneider (1975) describes the Functionalist school of thought as an additional rationale for why individuals conform to the existing climate. Similar to Gestalt Psychology, Functionalists assert that individuals perceive individual environmental cues as representative of a larger, patterned order of their environment; however, Functionalists believe that individuals apprehend this order in order to effectively adapt to their environment, not because they are driven to without choice. Moreover, this school of thought asserts that people behave consistently with this perceived order to achieve homeostasis and harmony with their environments. This logic

implies that individuals would be greatly challenged to resist conforming to the climate they perceive (Schneider, 1975). Taken together, Gestalt Psychology and the Functionalist tradition extends the suggestion that work-group climate provides a strong situation to provide rationales for why individuals are driven to adapt their perceptions, motivations, and behavior in accordance with the expectations conveyed by the climate.

Recent research and theory supports these theoretical assertions that work-group/sub-unit climate affect individual outcomes (Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, in press; Hofmann & Stetzer, 1996; Hofmann & Stetzer, 1998; Zohar, 2000). In their investigation of three plants within a duty truck manufacturer, Joyce and Slocum (1984) found that unique plant climates were differentially related to individual performance and job satisfaction. Hofmann and Stetzer (1996, 1998) found that a climate for safety shaped attributions for the causes of workplace accidents and impacted the frequency of unsafe behaviors and accidents. Similarly, Zohar (2000) found that a work-group climate that encouraged and valued safe behaviors led to a decrease in injuries on the job. Lastly, Hofmann et al (in press) found that together with leadership, work-group safety climate impacted individual perceptions of their organizational role, and in turn, affected safe behaviors. Taken together, these results suggest that work-group climate is a strong situation that influences individual-level phenomena.

While research has not explored the specific question of whether work-group climate affects individual state goal orientation, theory and empirical evidence regarding goal orientation suggests the existence of such a relationship. Dweck and Leggett (1986) assert that when strong situational cues are present, as in the case of work-group climate, individual dispositional goal orientations may be dominated by a state goal orientation.

Nicholls (1984) provides additional clarification regarding the specific conditions that impact state goal orientation. According to Nicholls (1984), individuals are more inclined to hold a mastery or learning orientation if there is a moderate amount of task challenge and task-related extrinsic rewards are not salient. Because in a climate for learning, growth and development are emphasized, completion of easy tasks is not valued. Consequently, in this climate, on average, employees tend to be faced with moderate to high task challenge. In addition, intrinsic satisfaction, gained through professional growth, is emphasized. These points suggest that individuals will adopt a state learning orientation when working in a climate for learning.

Nicholls (1984) asserts that certain conditions encourage individuals to adopt a performance orientation: (1) when individuals are cognizant that their performance on a task is being evaluated, (2) when competition among group members is fostered, and (3) when task performance is highly visible. The saliency of task evaluation and level of competition are particularly relevant here.

In both a climate for performance and avoiding failure, employees receive subtle and explicit messages that their performance is being evaluated. In the climate for performance, employee performance is consistently gauged against set standards. Performance and achievement are emphasized consistently, heightening the saliency of performance evaluation. In addition, task and socio-emotional support are around attaining performance goals, reinforcing the notion that performance is being monitored and evaluated continuously.

In a climate for avoiding failure, the consistent evaluation of performance is subtler. Employees are expected to avoid committing and admitting mistakes in order to

appear competent. Consequently, group members are consistently monitoring potential errors that may need to be covered up, thereby heightening the saliency of sub-par performance. Moreover, in these types of climates, the focus is on avoiding negative competence assessments. Consequently, attention is focused almost exclusively on the evaluation of performance rather than on possible task strategies, such as experimentation and learning from mistakes.

Typically, organizations have a fixed amount of resources, including rewards. For this reason, emphasis on extrinsic rewards fosters competition among team members. However, in a climate for learning, this “fixed pie” perception is offset by the emphasis on intrinsic rewards such as intrinsic satisfaction for improving and preserving in the face of challenge. In climates for performance and avoiding failure, intrinsic rewards are not salient; therefore, employees more actively compete for extrinsic rewards. Consequently, the perception of a fixed quantity of rewards breeds competition within these climates, encouraging the emergence of state performance orientations.

Lastly, researchers have consistently shown that individuals adopt state goal orientations consistent with situational demands. As reviewed earlier, Butler (1993), Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996), Harackiewicz and Elliot (1993), Mangos & Steele-Johnson (2000), Steele-Johnson et al (2000), and Stevens and Gist (1997) induced state goal orientations among respondents that were consistent with the experimental task instructions. Studies conducted with samples of children demonstrate a similar pattern—participants conform their state goal orientation to situational demands (Ames & Archer, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988).

Based on motivational theory, climate research and theory, arguments for climate as a strong situation, goal orientation theory and related empirical evidence, I propose the following proposition and hypotheses:

Proposition 2: Work-group climate is directly related to team members' state goal orientation.

Hypothesis 2a: A climate for learning is positively related to team members' state learning orientation.

Hypothesis 2b: A climate for performance is positively related to team members' state prove performance orientation.

Hypothesis 2c: A climate for avoiding failure is positively related to team members' state avoid performance orientation.

Relation between state goal orientation and outcomes. Consistent with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), which stipulates that learning and behavior is motivated and regulated by one's cognitions, the theory underlying goal orientation centers on a socio-cognitive approach to motivation. Early goal orientation scholars theorized that one's goal orientation, derived from their implicit beliefs of ability, created cognitive frameworks that shape their interpretations of achievement settings (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). More specifically, two sets of underlying cognitions drive behavioral differences: one set center on interpretations of the task while the other set deal with cognitive responses during task performance.

Research shows that when state goal orientation is induced, these cognitions emerge in parallel form to their trait goal orientation counterpart (Ames & Archer, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Mangos & Steele-Johnson, 2001). For example, Elliott and

Dweck (1988) found that children given specific achievement goals (i.e., learning, performance) mirrored the same cognitive, affective, and performance patterns as children relying on their own trait goal orientation. Ames and Archer (1984) found similar results: perceptions of task challenge and causes of success and failure shaped by the type of achievement goal the children's classroom promoted paralleled their respective trait goal orientation cognitions. Lastly, consistent with trait explanations, Mangos and Steele-Johnson (2001) found that a state goal orientation was related to perceptions of task complexity. Because similar sets of cognitions accompany state goal orientations as their trait counterparts and these cognitions are reasoned to drive behavioral differences, I rely on trait and state goal orientation evidence in theorizing about the relationships between state goal orientation and outcomes. For the sake of clarity, however, I note those studies that employed a state approach.

Goal orientation theory suggests that learning-oriented individuals view achievement settings as opportunities to develop their competence (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Toward this end, individuals holding a learning orientation will devote the necessary effort to persevere in the face of failure to achieve higher levels of performance. Empirical evidence supports this theoretical claim and has shown that learning orientation predicts higher levels of task performance (Brett & Vandewalle, 1999; Butler, 1993; Chen et al 2000; Ford et al, 1998; Phillips & Gully, 1997). Brett and Vandewalle (1999) demonstrated that MBA students with a mastery orientation attained higher ratings for the quality of their in-class presentations. In adopting a state approach, Butler (1993) found that individuals subjected to a mastery orientation experimental condition asked more task-related questions and, in turn, received higher scores on a

problem-solving task. Ford et al (1998) demonstrated that individuals with a learning orientation made more correct decisions after receiving training on a PC-based, dynamic decision-making simulation program. In addition, Chen et al (2000), Phillips and Gully (1997), and VandeWalle et al (1999) found consistent results indicating a positive, indirect relationship between learning orientation and graded exam performance.

Dweck and her colleagues (1986; 1988; 2000) further suggest that learning-oriented individuals will employ effective learning strategies to self-regulate their responses to challenging settings. Organizational research provides convincing evidence substantiating this link. VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) document that learning-oriented individuals perceive higher value in feedback, and as a result, engage in more feedback seeking behavior. Brett and VandeWalle (1999) found that individuals holding a learning orientation were more likely to set learning goals. Ford et al (1998) found that trainees with a learning orientation monitored their own thought processes so as to pinpoint ways to improve and maintain active mental engagement in the training. Fisher and Ford (1998) found that the effect of mastery orientation is positively related to effort and negatively related to off-task attention.

Research on state goal orientation offers similar findings, further substantiating a link between state learning goal orientation and use of learning strategies. Stevens and Gist (1997) found that individuals in a mastery condition engaged in more skill-maintenance activities after receiving negotiation training. Kozlowski et al (2001) and Schmidt, Chambers, Kozlowski & DeShon (2001) found that individuals with a learning state goal orientation engaged in sophisticated cognitive strategies, such as organizing their knowledge into consistent patterns and meta-cognitive activities. Lastly, Ames &

Archer (1988) found that students engaged in higher levels of learning strategies, such as self-planning and monitoring, when operating in a state mastery condition. Together, these studies provide a sound empirical justification to predict that state learning orientation is positively related to use of learning strategies.

Because a state and trait learning orientation serves to regulate cognitive functioning by focusing individual attention on the task, rather than on preserving one's ego (e.g., Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984), it is unlikely that learning-oriented individuals would engage in defensive behaviors. By their very nature, defensive behaviors require individuals to shift their attention from the task to preserving their appearance of being competent. In this way, these behaviors would require increased off-task attention, a condition that contradicts Fisher and Ford's (1998) finding that mastery orientation is negatively related to off-task attention. While limited empirical evidence exists, theory and logic make it reasonable to expect a negative relationship between state learning goal orientation and defensive behaviors.

Theory suggests that individuals with a performance orientation interpret challenging situations as potential threats to their confidence (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). As a result, these individual withdraw from the task and experience significant declines in performance in the face of obstacles (Dweck, 1986, 2000; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Consistent with this assertion, empirical research has shown a negative relationship between individuals holding an avoid orientation and task performance. Elliot and Church (1997) and Elliot and McGregor (1999) found that individuals who held avoid performance orientations demonstrated lower levels of performance on exams. VandeWalle et al (1999) found similar results: students high on

avoid performance orientation exhibited lower levels of effort and self-efficacy, which in turn, produced lower levels of performance on exams. Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) showed that a state approach-avoidance, i.e., state avoid orientation, was negatively related to task involvement. While they did not measure task performance, it seems likely that if individuals are disengaged in a task, their task performance would suffer as a result. Theory and evidence suggests that an avoid orientation is negatively related to task performance.

Because performance-oriented individuals believe that ability cannot be augmented or developed, theory predicts that they would not engage in strategies to learn new competencies (Dweck, 1986, 2000; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Holding true to this assertion, research documents that performance orientation was not related to metacognition (Ford et al, 1998), rehearsal of new skills, organization of new material, using examples to better learn (Fisher & Ford, 1998), nor practice level (Brown, 2001). Adopting a state approach, researchers have found similar results: state performance orientation is unrelated to learning strategies (Ames & Archer, 1988) and organizing coherent knowledge structures (Kozlowski et al, 2001). It is important to note that these studies did not tease apart the effects of avoid and prove goal orientation.

A few studies provide more fine-grained insights into how avoid and prove orientation might be related to use of learning strategies. VandeWalle and Cummings (1997) found that avoidant individuals perceive higher cost associated with feedback and engaged in less feedback seeking behavior. However, prove orientation was unrelated to perceive cost of feedback and feedback seeking behavior. Elliot and Harackiewicz's (1996) finding that state avoid orientation is negatively related to task involvement

suggests the potential for decreased use of learning strategies, particularly given that other researchers have shown a significant relationship between effort and involvement and learning strategies (Fisher & Ford, 1998). These findings do not provide convincing evidence of a relationship between prove orientation and learning strategies; therefore, no formal hypothesis is offered. However, this research does suggest a negative relationship between avoid orientation and learning strategies.

Additional research and logic further justifies a hypothesized, negative relationship between avoid orientation and learning strategies. Learning from errors and experimentation have been shown to be effective learning strategies for organizations as well as individuals (e.g., McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988; Sitkin, 1992). However, engaging in these types of behaviors is perceived as particularly threatening to those with an avoid goal orientation. To them, making errors, asking for assistance, and/or experimenting only invites others to perceive them as incompetent, an outcome they are actively motivated to avoid. Moreover, it seems reasonable to expect that these individuals will engage in more defensive behaviors when errors do occur (e.g., excuse making, blaming others) in order to preserve the façade of being competent. Taken together, this research and logic suggests that avoid orientation and learning strategies are negatively related, and avoid orientation and defensive behaviors are positively related.

Dweck and Leggett (1988) and Heyman and Dweck (1992) note that an emphasis on performance goals may be adaptive in certain circumstances and have a positive effect on task performance. Dweck and Leggett assert: “it is often important for individuals to evaluate their abilities or to gain positive judgments of their competence” (1988, 260). The emphasis on gaining positive competence judgments is consistent with a proving

orientation, and research has shown that a prove performance orientation is positively related to task performance. Brett and Vandewalle's (1999) study of MBA students demonstrated that individuals with a proving orientation adopted goals to refine their skills and to perform better than others to positively impact the quality of their presentations. Elliot and McGregor (1999) and Elliot and Church (1997) found a direct, positive relationship between prove performance orientation and exam performance, while Vandewalle et al (1999) found an indirect, positive relationship between prove orientation and exam performance.

In sum, guided by extant theory and research, I propose the following proposition and hypotheses:

Proposition 3: Group members' state goal orientation is directly related to individual outcomes.

Hypothesis 3a: Group members' state learning goal orientation will be positively related to task performance and use of learning strategies and negatively related to defensive behaviors.

Hypothesis 3b: Group members' state prove performance goal orientation will be positively related to task performance.

Hypothesis 3c: Group members' state avoid goal performance orientation will be negatively related to task performance and use of learning strategies and positively related to defensive behaviors.

Role of the quality of leader-member exchange relationship. Leader-member exchange (LMX) describes a relational leadership process. Because leaders develop different types of relationships with each of their members (Graen & Cashman, 1975),

work group members experience different levels of access to the leader and varying degrees of a sense of obligation to meet leader expectations (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al, 1997). These two mechanisms, level of access and sense of obligation, characterize the quality of the leader-member exchange relationship. It is argued that leader-member relationships provide a conduit for transmission, receipt, and internalization of the messages being conveyed through a particular climate. Together, work-group climate and the quality of leader-member exchange relationship are expected to affect state goal orientation. The nature of this interaction is detailed below.

Because leaders create unique relationships with each of his/her employees, some members enjoy greater levels of access, communication, and interaction with their leader, while others interact with the leader strictly on the basis of their formal employment agreement (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al, 1997). Members who perceive themselves as having a better quality exchange relationship with their leader have an advantage in deciphering expectations of their role and performance as communicated by the work-group climate over members who do not have this same quality of relationship. This advantage has been documented as positively influencing performance (cf., Liden et al, 1997), reducing role conflict, and improving role clarity (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Research demonstrates that leaders and members with high quality LMX relationships are more likely to be in perceptual agreement regarding work issues and messages conveyed by the climate (Graen & Schiemann, 1978; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989). Holding uniform expectations and perceptions is one crucial precondition to

situational strength (Mischel, 1977). Consequently, sharing similar perceptions with one's leader augments the existing situational strength provided by the work-group climate and supplies an additional vehicle through which one can further clarify expectations and heighten one's sense of obligation to conform to these expectations. In this case, group members with high quality LMX relationships are more likely to perceive an even stronger situation than those with low quality LMX relationships. In turn, the perceived augmented strength of the situation for members enjoying high-quality LMX is expected produce greater clarity regarding which form of state goal orientation is favored and greater pressure to conform to the ascribed motivational state.

This sense of obligation arises out of the convention of reciprocity established by the leader-member exchange relationship (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden et al, 1997; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Built on the notion from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) that social exchanges between two parties "engender feelings of obligation, gratitude, and trust" (p. 94), LMX researchers have argued that members with higher quality relationships with their leaders are given greater amounts of resources, and in return, offer higher levels of loyalty, behavioral consistency with expectations, effort, performance, and positive work-related attitudes (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Liden et al, 1997; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Tierney et al, 1999). Employing this logic, Hofmann et al (in press) argue that climate cues members as to which behaviors are emphasized and valued, and higher levels of LMX create a heightened sense of obligation to redefine their roles consistent with these cues. Their empirical findings support this theoretical contention that high-quality LMX relationships produce

greater levels of conformance with the expectations conveyed through the work-group climate as compared to lower-quality LMX.

The work by Hofmann et al (in press) supports the logic endorsed here. It has been argued that leader-member exchange relationships provide a channel for further transmission, clarification, and internalization of cues conveyed by the work-group climate. In this way, the work-group climate signals the preferred motivational orientation while the leader-member exchange relationship provide a means for reinforcing climate cues, clarifying expectations conveyed through the climate, and engendering a sense of obligation to adopt the state goal orientation ascribed by the climate. This logic suggests the following proposition and hypotheses:

Proposition 4: Work-group climate and group member perceptions of their leader-member exchange relationship interact to affect member state goal orientation.

Hypothesis 4a: A climate for learning is more strongly related to state learning orientation when members perceive a higher-quality LMX relationship than when members perceive LMX to be of low quality.

Hypothesis 4b: A climate for performance is more strongly related to state proving orientation when members perceive a higher-quality LMX relationship than when members perceive LMX to be of low quality.

Hypothesis 4c: A climate for avoiding failure is more strongly related to state avoid orientation when members perceive a higher-quality LMX relationship than when members perceive LMX to be of low quality.

To summarize, it is argued that leader priorities shape three prototypical work-group climates: a climate for learning, a climate for performance, and a climate for

avoiding failure (Proposition 1). It is predicted that group members adopt a state goal orientation consistent with the types of behavior that are perceived to be rewarded, supported and expected, as communicated by the work-group climate (Proposition 2). Further, the type of state goal orientation will be differentially related to individual task performance, use of learning strategies, and defensive behaviors (Proposition 3). Finally, the effects of leader-member exchange are predicted to interact with those of work-group climate to further explain group members' adoption of the state goal orientation (Proposition 4).

CHAPTER 3

Research Methods

To test the proposed relationships, a multi-phase, multi-method cross-sectional empirical study was conducted. The first phase utilized a qualitative approach to gather data to refine construct measurement and develop a measure of state goal orientation. The second phase involved development and measurement testing of the newly-created state goal orientation measure and is referred to here as the measurement study. The final stage involved surveying respondents via questionnaire in a field setting to test the hypothesized relationships. Each of these phases is discussed in more detail below. Because the findings from the first two phases informed the final stage of research, i.e., the field study, findings from the qualitative and measurement studies are reported here.

Research Design: Phase I—Qualitative Stage

The purpose of this stage was to gather data to (1) tailor existing measures to be used in the field study to the particular research setting (2) augment and refine the leadership and climate measures, and (3) develop a context-appropriate, valid state goal orientation measure.

Sample and design. Six one-on-one interviews were conducted with managers from the regional retail bank that opted to participate in the final phase of this dissertation. This particular bank has a unique reporting structure—financial center managers (FCM) are responsible for overseeing the performance of the branch and directly supervise the personal banking staff (e.g., relationship bankers, loan officers). The area operations managers (AOM) manage the operational aspects of 3-5 different branches, have their office in only one of these branches, and directly supervise the tellers

and other administrative staff within those branches. Consequently, I conducted three interviews with FCMs and the other three with AOMs. I worked with senior managers to identify one FCM and one AOM that best represented each of the leadership styles of interest (i.e., places a priority on employee development, goal accomplishment, avoiding failure). Each interview lasted approximately 60-90 minutes and were used primarily to identify the most relevant performance measures for retail bank employees and a range of leader behaviors that might be appropriate for inclusion in the leader priority measures (see Appendix A for the interviewing protocol).

In addition, six three-hour focus groups with 4-6 retail bank employees were conducted. Focus group participants were selected by senior managers to represent a diversity of job functions and company tenure. A completely crossed design was used with two primary experimental factors: (1) type of leader that focus group participants report to (e.g., learning oriented, performance-oriented, sensitive to failure) and (2) whether the AOM was co-located with the participant. This approach enabled me to determine the extent to which the physical proximity of the AOM influenced the core processes investigated here (it was found to have a minimal effect). The agenda for the focus groups included gathering data on climate dimensions and sample task situations that required unique motivational orientations, which ultimately provided the basis for the measure of state goal orientation (see Appendix B for the focus group protocol).

Key findings. Several important findings emerged in the qualitative portion of this dissertation that guided subsequent data collection and analysis. First, there was high agreement among managers and employees that the Financial Center Manager/Leader is

responsible for setting the tone and priorities within the branch.² The Area Operation Manager was often described as having a supporting role in this regard. This finding is important because it identified the “leader” in this particular research context. Second, focus group data on branch climate revealed that a strong, consistent infrastructure exists in this particular organization that standardizes training and rewards. Focus group participants did still note that there was variation in the extent to which branch leaders make opportunities and rewards available to their employees.

With respect to measure development, data collected during the interviews with the managers indicated that tellers and administrative personnel are assessed on different performance measures than members of the personal banking staff. As a result, using a broad based measure of individual-level performance seemed appropriate. Focus group data on the behaviors that leaders use to communicate their priorities validated Schein’s (1992) work and suggested that what leaders pay attention to and measure and the type and focus of their coaching are particularly important in conveying implicit priorities in this particular research context. Lastly, output from the focus group contained a variety of task situations that employees in this organization routinely face. Three task situations were identified as highly relevant to all participants who would be involved in the final study of this dissertation, regardless of job class and branch—generating new business, managing difficult, irate clients, and participating in meetings. In addition, focus group respondents indicated that bank employees adopt a wide range of motivational orientations in these three task situations.

² Financial Center Leaders differ from Financial Center Managers in that they supervise the operations of more than one branch.

Research Design: Phase II—Measurement Study

Sample. A total of 273 part-time MBA students participated in this study (average response rate: 95.39%). Sixty-four percent of participants are White, 16% are Asian/Pacific Islander, 5% are Latino or Hispanic, 4% are African American, and 4% are of other ethnic backgrounds. Sixty-three percent of this sample is male, and on average, participants are 28 years old ($SD=3.51$ years). Participants have a wide variety of work experience (overall work experience: mean=5.49 years; $SD=3.38$) in various industries. Approximately, half of participants do not currently supervise others, 23% of respondents are supervisors, 14% are middle managers, and 3% are executives. Those who manage others have, on average, 1.94 years of experience ($SD=2.61$).

Design. The design of the measurement study was a 3X3 between- and within-subjects design. The between-subject factor was the achievement orientation of the work-group context (i.e., leader and climate) and was communicated to participants through a description of a hypothetical leader and work group (see Appendix C for experimental conditions). Repeated measures of the state goal orientation measure were captured by asking respondents to assess their motivational orientation under three different task situations—generating new business, handling difficult clients, and participating in meetings (i.e., within-subject factor). A situation-based approach to measure state goal orientation was employed to (1) allow me to test the potential effects of objective task demands on state goal orientation, (2) minimize measurement error by providing respondents the same set of task conditions, and (3) increase reliability by capturing repeated assessments.

Data Collection Procedures. Data were collected at two points in time. First, during their core HR course, 260 MBA students were asked to sign a consent form and complete a survey that collected various background (i.e., gender, ethnic background, age, managerial experience, total work experience) and personality measures (i.e., trait goal orientation, implicit theory of ability, core self evaluations, self monitoring). Of these 260 students, 253 provided data for a response rate of 97.24%. Approximately two weeks later, these same students were randomly assigned to one of three different experimental conditions and were asked about their state goal orientation in three task situations and the likelihood they would engage in a variety of behaviors in these situations (e.g., feedback seeking, self promotion, and avoiding blame). In addition, it should be noted that the ordering of the task situations were randomized so as to remove any possible priming effects. A total of 262 students were asked to participate in the Time 2 data collection, and 244 provided data (response rate: 93.53%). Matching responses from Time 1 and Time 2 yielded a total matched sample of 227. Surveys administered at Time 1 and 2 appear as Appendices D and E, respectively.

To ensure that participants understood the experimental condition in which they participated, responses to the following three items were captured on a 5-point scale (“I responded to questions asked on this survey as if I worked for a boss who emphasizes...
(a) the importance of continuous learning, (b) the importance of proving one’s ability to others inside and outside the branch, and (c) the avoidance of committing and admitting mistakes”). One-way analysis of variance conducted on these manipulation checks revealed significant differences across the three experimental conditions (learn check $F=136.42$, $p<.01$; prove check $F=48.09$, $p<.01$; avoid check

$F=122.85$, $p<.01$) and the trend in the means was as expected (e.g., learn check: learn condition $M=4.46$; prove condition $M=2.56$; avoid condition $M=1.86$). This evidence suggests that participants understood in which experimental condition they participated.

Measures. The following discussion of the measurement study measures is organized by (1) controls and theoretically relevant variables, which were collected for subsequent analysis of state goal orientation's nomological network, (2) behavioral outcome variables, which were collected to establish the predictive ability of state goal orientation and were expected to differentially vary as a function of state goal orientation, and (3) state goal orientation. In the discussion of the state goal orientation measure, the process by which this measure was developed is detailed, the method for determining convergent and discriminant validity and subsequent evidence from these analyses are presented, and the way in which the state goal orientation measure was created is clarified.

Control and theoretically-relevant measures (collected at Time 1). To control for their effects, three dimensions of trait goal orientation were assessed on a five-point scale using VandeWalle's (1997) measure (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree; 13 items; sample learn item: "I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge"). The reliabilities for trait learning, prove and avoid goal orientation were adequate (learn Cronbach's $\alpha=.85$; prove Cronbach's $\alpha=.77$; avoid Cronbach's $\alpha=.82$).

In addition, a series of theoretically-relevant variables were collected for the purpose of performing a nomological network analysis. Four items from Dweck (2000) were used to measure respondents' implicit theory of ability on the same five-point scale (Cronbach's $\alpha=.94$; sample item: "to be honest, you can't really change how intelligent

you are"). Respondents' core self evaluations were measured on the same five-point scale using 12 items (Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2003; Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$; sample item: "I complete tasks successfully"). The extent to which respondents' engage in self-monitoring was captured using Lennox and Wolfe's measure (1984; 13 items; Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$) on the same five-point scale (sample item: I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading the listener's eyes").

Dependent measures (collected at Time 2). To establish some predictive validity of the state goal orientation measure, respondents were asked to assess the likelihood that they would engage in feedback seeking behavior (2 items; adapted from Ashford, 1986), self promotion behavior (2 items; adapted from Turnley & Bolino, 2001), and the avoidance of blame (3 items; developed for this study based on the work of Ashforth & Lee, 1990). These three behavioral outcomes were assessed for each of the task situations and the correlations across the three task situations for each of these outcomes were extremely high. Consequently, overall measures of feedback seeking, self promotion, and avoiding blame were computed by taking the weighted average across the three task situations (feedback seeking Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$; self promotion Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$; avoiding blame Cronbach's $\alpha = .97$).

State goal orientation: development of the measure. The measure of state goal orientation was intended to assess the extent to which respondents held a particular state goal orientation in different task situations found highly relevant to the respondents during the qualitative stage of this research. Because the emphasis of this work is on understanding how perceptions of group members' environment influences their state

goal orientation, this state measure focuses on various settings, i.e., task situations, rather than on aspects of time, as some other state-like measures do (e.g., mood).

A 27-item measure of state goal orientation was developed through a systematic, iterative process. First, possible task situations were identified in which one could conceivably hold one of the three achievement orientations of interest. Second, items were generated to tap each of the three achievement goals (i.e., learn sample item: “learn alternative work strategies to generate new business;” prove sample item: “show others that I am good at generating new business;” avoid sample item: “avoiding being perceived as incompetent in generating new business”). Next, the experimental conditions and items were pre-tested on 12 doctoral students who suggested modifications to the conditions and item wording. As a result of this feedback, the state goal orientation and experimental conditions were refined (version 2 of Time 2 questionnaire). Lastly, 25 part-time MBA students completed the Time 1 survey; approximately 2 weeks later, these students were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental conditions and asked to complete the Time 2 questionnaire. It should be noted that these sub-samples were independent from the measurement study’s main sample. Preliminary analyses of these data indicated that one of the task situations might be problematic, a few of the state goal orientation items were cross loading, and the experimental conditions needed further refinement. These changes were made to produce the final version of the state goal orientation measure (see Appendix E) and the experimental conditions (see Appendix C).

State goal orientation: method for determining convergent and discriminant validity. Three sets of analyses were conducted to gather construct validity evidence of

the newly-created state goal orientation measure: confirmatory factor analysis, multi-trait multi-method analysis, and a nomological network analysis. In conducting confirmatory factor analysis, I used an incremental process to improve model fit by first allowing error terms associated with a particular state goal orientation dimension within a specific task situation to covary (Model $\chi^2=641.41$; CFI=.942; Standardized RMR=.09; RMSEA=.07). Then, I used the Lagrange Multiplier indicators to determine which additional error covariances could be added to improve model fit while being theoretically justified (Model $\chi^2=512.03$; CFI=.961; Standardized RMR=.09; RMSEA=.06). After making these minor adjustments, I examined whether more substantive changes to the model were appropriate. Due to cross loadings, three prove items from the same task situation were removed to produce a final model with acceptable fit with the data (Final Model $\chi^2=310.85$; CFI=.982; Standardized RMR=.06; RMSEA=.04).

Additional construct validity evidence was gathered through multi-trait, multi-method analyses conducted in structural equation modeling (Byrne, 1994). In these analyses, traits refer to the dimensions of state goal orientation and methods refer to the task situations that were used to measure state goal orientation. Four nested models were statistically compared to determine convergent and discriminant validity: (model 1) state goal orientation dimensions, i.e., traits, were allowed to freely correlate, as were the three task situations, i.e., methods; (model 2) no state goal orientation dimensions were modeled and task situations were allowed to freely correlate; (model 3) state goal orientation dimensions were perfectly correlated and task situations were allowed to freely correlate, and (model 4) state goal orientation dimensions were allowed to freely correlate while task situations were constrained to be perfectly correlated. Convergent

validity is a function of the extent to which independent measures of the same trait are correlated. A statistically significant difference between Models 1 and 2 would provide evidence that the inclusion of state goal orientation dimensions enhances model fit by allowing independent measures of the same dimension to correlate.

Discriminant validity is a function of the correlations of independent measures of different traits. A statistically significant difference between Models 1 and 3 would indicate that allowing for independent measures of different dimensions of goal orientation would improve model fit. In addition, in this case, a statistically significant difference between Models 1 and 4 would provide evidence that the task situations are not interchangeable and no common method effect is present, and is another aspect of discriminant validity.

In addition, one logical theoretical question concerning discriminant validity was investigated—that is, “can dimensions of state and trait goal orientation be distinguished?” This question was addressed in structural equation modeling by comparing two nested models: (1) a model (Model A) consisting of three factors (i.e., learn, prove, avoid) in which a randomly selected set of combined state and trait items were hypothesized to load on their respective dimension, and (2) a model (Model B) consisting of six factors in which items were hypothesized to load on their expected aspect of goal orientation (i.e., trait, state) and dimension. Significant model improvement from Model A to B would indicate that trait and state goal orientation are distinguishable.

Lastly, additional construct validity evidence was gathered by examining state goal orientation’s placement within a broader nomological network. Correlational and

regression analyses were used to assess state goal orientation's relation to different, yet related, constructs and to examine the predictive ability of state goal orientation in relation to key behavioral outcomes. To further understand the antecedents to state goal orientation, analysis of variance while controlling for trait goal orientation (ANCOVA) was used to test whether hypothetical work-group contexts induced the expected form of state goal orientation.

State goal orientation: convergent and discriminant validity evidence. Results from the confirmatory factor analyses provide compelling validity evidence of the dimensionality of the newly-created state goal orientation measure. The final model fit the data well (Final Model $\chi^2(217)=310.85$; CFI=.982; Standardized RMR=.06; RMSEA=.04) and all items deemed worthy of inclusion significantly loaded on the hypothesized dimension of state goal orientation (see Table 4). In addition, the relationships among the dimensions of state goal orientation were expected to reflect the same pattern of relationships that have been found with the trait components of goal orientation (e.g., VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). The results were consistent with my expectation and in addition suggested adequate discrimination across state dimensions (see bottom of Table 4).

Table 4.

Final Results from Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Loadings

Item	Factor			R^2
	Learn	Prove	Avoid	
Task: Generating New Business				
1. Show others that I am good at generating new business.		.644		.415
2. Demonstrate to others that I am one of the best in our branch at generating new business.		.787		.620
3. Outperform others in generating new business.		.570		.325
4. Learn alternative work strategies to generate new business.	.714			.509

5.	Continually improve my skills in generating new business.	.778	.605
6.	Put forth a great deal of effort to learn how to become better at generating new business.	.743	.552
7.	Avoid being perceived as incompetent in generating new business.	.709	.502
8.	Be concerned that I might reveal my incompetence in generating new business.	.853	.727
9.	Shy away from generating new business if there was a chance I might be perceived as incapable.	.848	.719

Task: Handling Difficult Clients

10.	Show others that I am the best in our branch at handling difficult customers. ⁺		
11.	Prove to others that I can effectively handle difficult customers. ⁺		
12.	Outperform others in handling difficult customers. ⁺		
13.	Learn how to better deal with tough customers like this one.	.772	.597
14.	Improve my ability to deal with tough customers.	.810	.656
15.	Learn new strategies to handle difficult customers.	.827	.684
16.	Avoid being perceived as incapable to this customer.	.510	.260
17.	Be concerned that I might appear incompetent.	.804	.647
18.	Shy away from handling this customer if there was a chance I might be perceived as incompetent.	.783	.613

Task: Participating in Meetings

19.	Highlight my accomplishments during our weekly meetings.	.692	.479
20.	Show others that I am good at my job during our weekly meetings.	.759	.576
21.	Make it a point to talk about how I am doing a good job during our weekly meetings.	.764	.584
22.	Learn from others how to improve my performance during our meetings.	.715	.511
23.	Look for opportunities to learn something new from our weekly meetings.	.793	.629
24.	Learn about different work approaches or strategies during our weekly meetings that would help me become more effective in my job.	.835	.698
25.	Avoid being perceived as stupid or foolish in our weekly meetings.	.764	.583
26.	Be concerned about appearing incapable in our weekly meetings.	.841	.707
27.	Shy away from saying anything during our meetings, if there was a chance that I might be perceived as incompetent.	.830	.689

Intercorrelation between Learn and Prove

-.11

Intercorrelation between Prove and Avoid

.67**

Intercorrelation between Avoid and Learn

-.55**

⁺ Item removed due to cross loadings.

** significant at the p<.01 level

Table 5 presents the model comparison results from the multi-trait multi-method analysis. To assess convergent validity, Models 1 and 2 were compared and the change statistics indicated that inclusion of the dimensions of state goal orientation above modeling the method effects dramatically improves model fit, thereby providing convergent validity support ($\Delta \chi^2(30)=-3373.26$, $p<.01$). Next, I examined the variance explained by the dimensions of state goal orientation relative to the method used to measure this construct (see Table 6). I find that in 11 out of 27 cases (41%) the method explains more variance than the particular dimension of state goal orientation. While the model comparison provides strong evidence of convergent validity, closer examination of the individual parameter estimates suggest that in some cases method effects outweigh the trait effects, thereby tempering the evidence of convergent validity. Interestingly enough, in two out of the three task situations, method effects are slightly stronger than the state learning goal orientation effect, indicating that the measurement of state learning goal orientation might be particularly sensitive across tasks.

With regard to discriminant validity, I find that when distinctions among the dimensions of state goal orientation are made, fit to the data dramatically improves, i.e., compare Models 1 and 3 ($\Delta \chi^2(3)=-713.98$, $p<.01$). The correlations among the dimensions of state goal orientation provide further evidence of discriminant validity (prove/learn=-.10; avoid/prove=.57; avoid/learn=-.49). In addition, it appears as though distinguishing between the methods also improves fit to the data (compare Models 1 and 4 $\Delta \chi^2(3)=-515.08$, $p<.01$). Correlations among the methods are not terribly high which further indicates that distinguishing between the methods is important (customer/generate=.41; meeting/generate=.31; meetings/customer=.24). These findings

suggest that the objective nature of the task, as represented in each of the different task situations, may be one contributing factor to the emergence of state goal orientation.

Table 5.

Multi-Trait, Multi-Method Results: Model Fit Statistics

Model Description	χ^2	df	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA
1 Freely correlated traits; Freely correlated methods	875.26	291	.902	.092	.094
2 No traits; Freely correlated methods	4248.52	321	.339	.323	.233
3 Perfectly correlated traits; Freely correlated methods	1589.24	294	.782	.071	.140
4 Freely correlated traits; Perfectly correlated methods	1390.34	294	.815	.065	.129

Table 6.

Variance Components due to Trait, Method, and Error for Model 1.

State Dimension	Item Number	Trait	Method	Error
Task: Generate New Business				
Prove	1	.64	.08	.28
	2	.86	.06	.08
	3	.41	.13	.46
Learn	4	.30	.39	.31
	5	.39	.44	.17
	6	.35	.49	.16
Avoid	7	.54	.00	.46
	8	.77	.00	.22
	9	.71	.01	.27
Task: Dealing with Clients				
Prove	10	.25	.31	.45
	11	.22	.35	.43
	12	.24	.29	.47
Learn	13	.41	.45	.13
	14	.41	.50	.09
	15	.43	.44	.13
Avoid	16	.33	.02	.66
	17	.66	.00	.34
	18	.57	.03	.40
Task: Participating in Meetings				
Prove	19	.32	.49	.20
	20	.37	.54	.09

	21	.38	.34	.28
Learn	22	.69	.06	.25
	23	.83	.03	.14
	24	.88	.05	.08
Avoid	25	.62	.06	.31
	26	.74	.05	.22
	27	.69	.00	.30

Finally, one additional model comparison provided evidence that state and trait goal orientation are distinguishable. Model A consisted of three factors (i.e., learn, prove, avoid) in which a combined set of state and trait items were hypothesized to load on their respective dimension (Model A $\chi^2(272)=1440.01$; CFI=.561; Standardized RMR=.17; RMSEA=.14). Model B partialled the state and trait components of goal orientation to yield six latent factors; items were hypothesized to load on their expected dimension and aspect of goal orientation (i.e., trait, state) ($\chi^2(260)=463.01$; CFI=.924; Standardized RMR=.06; RMSEA=.06). The degree of improvement from Models A to B is significant ($\chi^2(12)=977.00$, $p<.001$), indicating that trait and state goal orientation are distinguishable. This finding provides additional evidence of discriminant validity of the newly-created goal orientation measure.

Together, this evidence provided substantial construct validity evidence, so subscales were created for each of the state goal orientation dimensions for each task situation (e.g., state learning goal orientation in 1) generating new business, 2) handling a difficult client, and 3) participating in meetings). Because of the high intercorrelations across the task situations (learn state goal orientation: .67, .66, .69; prove state goal orientation: .46, .59, .46; avoid state goal orientation: .72, .78, .72), these subscales were averaged to produce an overall state goal orientation for each dimension. In the case of state proving orientation, only the state prove subscales from the task situations involving generating new business and participating in meetings were used because confirmatory

factor analysis indicated removing the prove items associated with the task situation of handling difficult clients would yield better fit to the data. Reliabilities of the overall state goal orientation measures were sound (overall learn Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$; overall prove Cronbach's $\alpha = .74$; avoid Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$).

These overall measures were used in examining the relation of state goal orientation within a broader nomological network. Table 7 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the measurement study. It is noteworthy that in examining the relationships among state and trait goal orientation, the dimensions of state goal orientation are most strongly related to their trait goal orientation counterpart, as was expected.

Contrary to my original expectation, with only one exception, none of the state goal orientation dimensions are related to implicit theory of ability, core self evaluations, and self-monitoring. In retrospect, I believe there is a logical explanation for this lacking of findings. Implicit beliefs, core self evaluations, and self-monitoring are considered to be fairly stable over time, capture aspects of an individual's personality, and are similar in their temporal stability to trait goal orientation. It is not surprising, then, that I find significant relationships between trait goal orientation dimensions and implicit beliefs about ability, core self evaluations, and self monitoring—after all, these constructs capture different facets of individual differences that should be relatively stable over time. State goal orientation, however, is a more fluid and dynamic concept that does not solely reflect individual differences, but also considers how the individual responds in a particular context. Because of the uniqueness of state goal orientation in relation to individual difference measures captured in the measurement study, it is logical that only

one significant relationship emerged between state goal orientation dimensions and implicit beliefs, core self evaluations and self-monitoring.

Table 7.

Measurement Study Variable Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations

	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
State Goal Orientation (GO)														
1. Overall learn	3.90	.97	246											
2. Overall prove	3.50	1.01	246	-.03										
3. Overall avoid	3.26	1.13	246	-.46**	.55**									
Related Constructs														
4. Trait: learn GO	4.53	.49	252	.13*	-.04	-.06								
5. Trait: prove GO	3.54	.69	254	.06	.20**	.17*	.05							
6. Trait: avoid GO	2.30	.73	253	.03	.16*	.20**	-.29**	.30**						
7. Implicit theory of ability	2.55	1.03	253	.02	.11	.00	-.11	.18**	.14*					
8. Core self evaluations	3.76	.46	254	-.05	-.15*	-.04	.22**	-.04	-.38**	-.10				
9. Self monitoring	3.64	.46	254	.10	.11	-.03	.16*	.07	-.11	.00	.38**			
Outcomes														
10. Feedback seeking	3.41	1.11	245	.64**	-.08	-.42**	.07	.11	.04	.07	-.03	.13		
11. Self promotion	3.23	1.04	245	.01	.78**	.45**	-.05	.26**	.19**	.13	-.08	.08	.02	
12. Avoiding blame	2.82	1.35	245	-.53**	.49**	.87**	-.04	.14*	.14*	.03	-.01	-.01	-.52**	.41**

Notes. * p<.05 level ** p<.01 level

Results from analysis of variance and regression analyses demonstrate the predictive validity of state goal orientation (see Table 8 and 9). In testing whether the experimental condition induced the parallel form of state goal orientation, I find that each of the experimental conditions was differentially related to each dimension of state goal orientation. As was expected, respondents in the learning condition indicated significantly higher levels of state learning goal orientation than the other dimensions of state goal orientation (learn $M=4.53$; prove $M=2.90$; avoid $M=2.32$). Similarly, respondents in the prove condition reported significantly higher levels of state prove goal orientation ($prove\ M=4.08$; learn $M=3.98$; avoid $M=3.36$) and individuals in the avoid conditions reported significantly higher levels of state avoid goal orientation (avoid $M=4.07$; prove $M=3.50$; learn $M=3.21$). These trends in the means were expected and provide preliminary support that work-group context, even if hypothetical, induces the parallel form of state goal orientation.

It is interesting to note that there are significant mean differences across each of the experimental conditions for each dimension of state goal orientation. For example, respondents in the prove and avoid experimental condition reported significantly different levels of learning state goal orientation (prove condition $M=3.98$; avoid condition $M=3.21$) and is contrary to the expectation that reports on a particular dimension of state goal orientation would be equivalent in non-focal experimental conditions. It appears as though in addition to their parallel form of state goal orientation, these work-group contexts may be related to other dimensions of state goal orientation.

Table 8.

Mean Differences in State Goal Orientation (GO) Across Experimental Conditions

Dependent Variable	Experimental Conditions						Model F	Eta Squared
	Learn M	Learn N	Prove M	Prove N	Avoid M	Avoid N		
Learn State GO	4.53 ^a	79	3.98 ^b	73	3.21 ^c	73	50.96**	.32
Prove State GO	2.90 ^c	79	4.08 ^a	74	3.50 ^b	74	32.63**	.23
Avoid State GO	2.32 ^c	79	3.36 ^b	74	4.07 ^a	74	86.87**	.44

Notes:

- ◆ Means should be read horizontally
- ◆ Different subscripts denote statistically significant mean differences, with “a” indicating the largest mean and “c” indicating the smallest mean.
- ◆ All analysis conducted after controlling for the trait goal orientation counterpart
- ◆ **p<.01

In terms of its predictive ability, dimensions of state goal orientation are related to outcomes in the expected ways (see Table 9). State learning goal orientation is positively related to feedback seeking ($\beta=.52$, $p<.01$) and negatively related to a type of defensive behavior, namely avoiding blame ($\beta=-.22$, $p<.01$). State prove goal orientation is positively related to behaviors that draw others' attention to one's achievements ($\beta =.74$, $p<.01$). Finally, state avoid goal orientation is negatively related to feedback seeking ($\beta=-.20$, $p<.01$) and positively related to avoiding blame ($\beta=.77$, $p<.01$). These results hold after controlling for trait goal orientation and provide initial evidence that state goal orientation is a meaningful predictor of individual-level behavior. Interestingly enough, state goal orientation is more consistently and strongly related to outcomes than trait goal orientation.

Table 9.

Hierarchical Regression Results: State Goal Orientation (GO) Predicting Outcomes

	Feedback Seeking	Self Promotion	Avoiding Blame
Step 1			
Trait GO: learn	.07	-.04	-.02
Trait GO: prove	.09	.23**	.11
Trait GO: avoid	.03	.10	.11
Model F	1.21	6.28**	2.38
R ²	.02	.08	.03
Step 2			
State GO: learn	.52**	.07	-.20**
State GO: prove	.03	.74**	.08
State GO: avoid	-.22**	.07	.74**
Model F	27.59**	65.84**	123.70**
Δ R ²	.42**	.57**	.75**
Total R ²	.43	.65	.77**
Degrees of freedom	223	223	223

* p< .05

** p<.01

Key Findings from the Measurement Study. To summarize, I found that the newly-created state goal orientation measure had sound psychometric qualities when tested in an experimental setting. Convergent validity was adequate, as indicated by the multi-trait multi-method analyses, the high intercorrelations across the task situations for each dimension, and the overall reliability of the measure. Discriminant validity was also sound, with evidence from the multi-trait multi-method analyses, the nomological network analysis, and the analysis which determined that state and trait goal orientation are distinguishable. Lastly, antecedents and outcomes were related to state goal orientation in expected ways to further provide confidence in the construct validity of this measure.

Research Design: Phase III—Field Study.

Sample. Employees and managers of thirty-four retail bank branches within one region of a large regional bank located in the Southeast US comprised the sample for this study. Employee responses were received from all 34 branches with an average of 7.08 responding employees per branch (range of employee responses received per branch: 2-19), and of the 322 employee surveys sent out, 250 were returned (response rate: 77.64%). Of these returned surveys, 14 were unusable because the branch identification code had been removed, yielding a total employee sample size of 236. Seventy-two percent of these respondents were white (7.5% African American; 1.2% were Latino; 1.2% were Native American; 1.6% specified that they were of another ethnic group), seventy-nine percent were women, and the average age of respondents is 36.24 years ($SD=12.65$). The majority of the sample works approximately 40-50 hours a week (20.9% work 20 or fewer hours; 11.8% work 21-39.5 hours; 1.8% of the sample works more than 50 hours). Employees in this sample have an average tenure in the retail banking industry of 9.65 years ($SD=8.78$) and have worked with this particular bank on average for 7.31 years ($SD=6.85$). There is a wide variation in the amount of time employees have spent in their current position ($M=4.88$ years; $SD=4.61$). In terms of familiarity with current managers and branch, employees on average have been assigned to their current branch for 5.31 years ($SD=5.46$), their current Financial Center Manager/Leader for 3.34 years ($SD=3.91$), and their current Area Operations Manager for 3.39 years ($SD=3.42$). For a more detailed breakdown of these descriptives by branch, please refer to Appendix F.

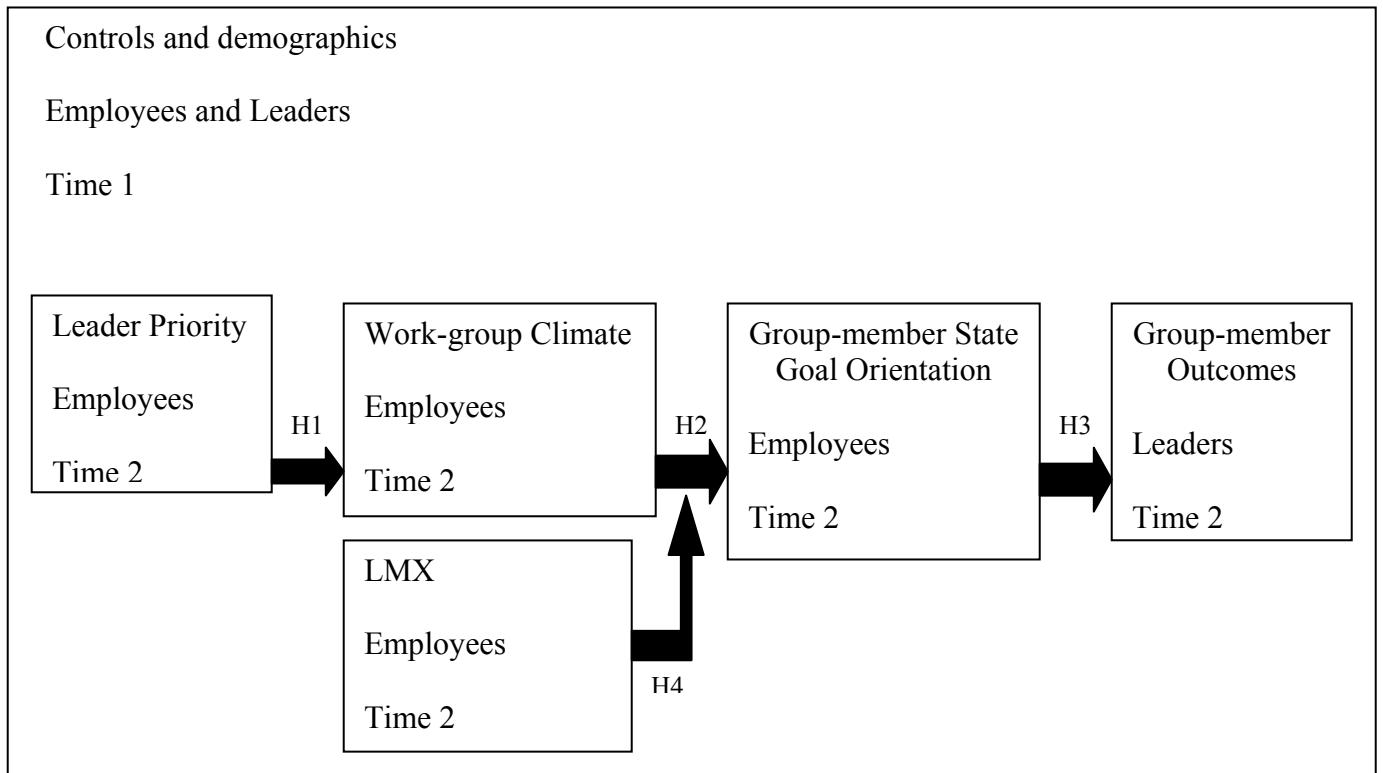
The manager sample was comprised of Financial Center Leaders and Managers ($N=28$; 90.32% response rate). Ninety percent of the manager sample is white (5%

African American; 2.4% Latino; 2.4% Native American), 71% are women, and are, on average, 40.24 years old ($SD=12.08$). Managers in this sample have an average tenure in the retail banking industry of 12.35 years ($SD=12.04$) and have worked with this particular bank on average for 8.68 years ($SD=9.65$). There is a wide variation in the amount of time managers have spent in their current position ($M=4.82$ years; $SD=5.17$). In terms of familiarity with their current branch, managers have been assigned to their current branch for an average of 5.18 years ($SD=7.43$).

Design and Data Collection Procedures. Consent was obtained from the Regional Bank President for retail managers and employees to participate in this study. Data were collected at two different points in time via questionnaire (see Figure 2 for an overview of data collection sources and sequencing). At Time 1, all respondents were asked to sign a consent form, provide general background information, and complete a measure of trait goal orientation and implicit theory of ability (see Appendix G). Approximately one month later, employees were asked to complete the main study survey, which contained measures of leader priority, branch climate, state goal orientation, and LMX (see Appendix H). Managers were asked to assess each of their employees on a set of performance outcomes (e.g., feedback seeking, performance, avoiding blame) and provided a self assessment of their achievement priority (see Appendix I). At both points in time, employee and managers surveys were accompanied by a cover letter from the regional president stating the purpose of the study. To help ensure confidentiality, completed questionnaires were directly returned to me.

Figure 2.

Data Sources and Sequencing



Measures. To best control for its effect, a measure of trait goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997) was collected at Time 1. The reliabilities of this measure were adequate (trait learning goal orientation Cronbach's $\alpha=.82$; trait proving goal orientation Cronbach's $\alpha=.84$; trait avoid goal orientation Cronbach's $\alpha=.84$).

The core constructs of leader priority, work-group climate, group member state goal orientation, LMX and group member outcomes were all captured at Time 2. The leader priority measures were captured from employees on a scale of 1-5 (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree) and assessed the extent to which their Financial Center Manager communicates to branch members his/her achievement priority. Even though FCMs do not directly supervise the administrative and operational employees, focus group and interview data suggested that the FCM is responsible for setting the priorities

and tone for the branch. For this reason, the FCM was thought to be the most appropriate referent for respondents.

This particular leadership construct is relatively new in the literature, and therefore, common measures have not been established. Nineteen items were developed from the interview and focus group data and two items were adopted from existing scales. The total of twenty-one items were subject to Principal Axis Factoring with oblique rotation, which indicated the need to remove three items from the leader priority on proving performance scale due to cross loadings (learn priority=7 items; prove priority=4 items; avoid priority=7 items). The factor loadings appear in Appendix J.

Because it is hypothesized that leaders express a relatively consistent priority to group members through their behavior (i.e., leader priority is a group-level construct), the level of agreement among employees within a particular branch and the reliability of this construct at the group level (i.e., intra-class correlations) were investigated. The average r_{wg} statistic of inter-rater agreement (James, Demaree & Wolf, 1984) indicated acceptable agreement (learn priority r_{wg} median=.93; prove priority r_{wg} median=.83; avoid priority r_{wg} median=.93). All one-way ANOVAs to assess the ratio of between branch variance relative to within branch variance were significant at the $p<.05$ level, indicating a branch-level effect. The reliability of the leader priority construct, as measured by the intra-class correlation 1 value, indicates adequate reliability (learn priority ICC1=.12; prove priority ICC1=.07; avoid priority ICC1=.12). Together, the r_{wg} and ICC1 statistics justified aggregating branch member responses and the branch mean was used for the branch-level measure of leader priority. The reliability of the group means across branches, as measured by the intra-class correlation (ICC2), was: learn priority ICC2=.50; prove

priority=.33; avoid priority=.48. These relatively lower ICC2 values are a function of the smaller number of respondents per branches (Bliese, 2000).

Branch climate measures were captured from branch employees on a scale of 1 to 5 (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree) and assessed employee perceptions of work events and valued and expected behaviors within the branch. Just as with leader priority measures, the construct of an achievement-oriented branch-level climate is relatively new in the literature, and therefore, twenty-four items were developed from the interview and focus group data and four items were adopted from an existing scale. The total of thirty items were subject to Principal Axis Factoring with oblique rotation, which indicated the need to remove two items from the climate for avoiding failure scale due to cross loadings and one item from this same scale due to a low loading (learning climate=10 items; proving climate=10 items; avoid priority=7 items). Appendix J presents the factor loadings for these measures.

This construct was hypothesized to exist at the group level; however, aggregation statistics did not justify aggregation. The level of agreement among employees appeared adequate (learn climate r_{wg} median=.96; prove priority r_{wg} median=.95; avoid priority r_{wg} median=.92), but none of the one-way ANOVAs to assess the existence of a branch-level effect were significant at the $p<.05$ level. Examination of the ICC(1) values indicated that only between 5-6% of the variance in employee responses could be explained by branch membership.

I investigated the possibilities of sub-climates within the branches. Based on the qualitative work, one possible source of perception differences could stem from individuals fulfilling different job functions within the branch (i.e., operational/administrative, personal banking). To examine this possibility, I visually

compared the means between the operational staff and the personal banking staff for each of the climate variables for each branch. Approximately, 33% of the branches had notable differences between operational and personal banking employees in assessing their branch climate for learning. Roughly, 36% of the branches had notable differences in these two job groups in assessments of their branch climate for proving performance. Lastly, approximately 24% of the branches had notable differences in these two job groups in assessing their branch climate for avoiding failure.

For a more definitive answer as to whether job function impacted the extent to which a shared-branch climate emerged, I ran a series of one-way ANOVAs to investigate the amount of variance between versus within job functions. First, I tested whether job function explained variance in climate perceptions across the whole sample, thus ignoring the nested nature of the data, and found that it did not account for any meaningful variance (ANOVA F: learn climate = .00; prove climate = 2.08; avoid climate = .54). Next, I tested each branch to see if job function explained meaningful variation in climate perceptions within each branch and found that in only 5% of the cases there was significantly more variance between job function than within job function.

The results of this post hoc testing lead me to rule out the possibility that job function plays a significant role in explaining why a shared climate at the branch level is not present in this sample of retail bank branches. Moreover, the high r_{wg} statistics provide further evidence that there is a high level of consistency in the ratings of climate by branch employees. Perhaps the lack of a branch effect is due to the fact that an organizational climate, versus unique branch climates, exists within this particular region of retail banks. Because no branch-level climate existed and these measures had adequate reliability at the individual level of analysis (learn climate Cronbach's $\alpha=.92$;

prove climate Cronbach's $\alpha=.91$; avoid climate Cronbach's $\alpha=.84$), all climate measures were analyzed at the individual level of analysis and are referred to in the results and discussion sections as psychological climate.

Employees were asked to complete a similar version of the 27-item state goal orientation measure developed in the measurement study of this dissertation. Minor wording changes were made to the original 27 items used in the measurement study to avoid possible increased social desirability bias when completing this measure as a part of one's job. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess the validity of this measure, and I used the same incremental process as I did when analyzing the measurement study data. First, I allowed error terms associated with a particular state goal orientation dimension within a specific task situation to covary (Model $\chi^2=659.82$; CFI=.912; Standardized RMR=.10; RMSEA=.08). Then, I used the Lagrange Multiplier indicators to determine which additional error covariances could be added to improve model fit while being theoretically justified (Model $\chi^2=580.29$; CFI=.931; Standardized RMR=.09; RMSEA=.07). After making these minor adjustments, I examined whether more substantive changes to the model were appropriate. Due to low loadings, two avoid items were removed to produce a final model with acceptable fit with the data (Final Model $\chi^2=499.05$; CFI=.938; Standardized RMR=.08; RMSEA=.07).

As in the measurement study, subscales were created for each of the state goal orientation dimensions for each task situation. Because of the moderate to high intercorrelations across the task situations, these subscales were averaged to produce an overall state goal orientation for each dimension (learn state goal orientation: .47, .64, .54; prove state goal orientation: .59, .43, .36; avoid state goal orientation: .59, .33, .47). For state learn, prove and avoid goal orientation, task-specific subscales were averaged to

produce an overall measure. Reliabilities of the overall state goal orientation measures were adequate (overall learn Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$; overall prove Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$; avoid Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$).

Employees rated the quality of their leader-member exchange relationship (LMX) with their Financial Center Manager using a 7-item scale (Scandura & Graen, 1984; response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). This measure was intended to assess the group member's perception of the quality of the one-on-one relationship between leader and member (sample item: "my working relationship with my supervisor is extremely effective"). Items were subject to Principal Axis Factoring which indicated the need to remove one item due to a low loading. As a result, six items were averaged to form an overall individual-level measure of LMX (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$).

Three individual outcomes were deemed relevant during the qualitative phase of this research: use of learning strategies, overall performance and avoiding blame. Managers assessed each of their employees on these three outcomes. The learning strategies scale was comprised of 3 items (Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$): 1 item designed to assess the extent to which the individual seeks feedback (Ashford, 1986), 1 item to assess to which the individual seeks out developmental opportunities (Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney, 1997), and 1 item to assess the extent to which the individual engages in role play as a way to practice new skills (developed for this study based on qualitative work). Two items were used to assess the overall performance of the employee (Williams & Anderson, 1991; sample item: "effectively completes assigned duties;" Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$). A similar two-item scale to the one used in the measurement study was used to measure the extent to which an individual avoids blame (adapted from Ashforth & Lee,

1990; sample item: “provides excuses for his/her performance if he/she failed to do a good job”; Cronbach’s $\alpha = .95$).

Analytic procedures. Because the nested nature of these data (i.e., individuals are nested within bank branches), random coefficient modeling (RCM) is the most appropriate method and was used here. RCM-based inferential tests account for the non-independence of nested data by using the appropriate error terms so as not to inflate test statistics and allows the researcher to properly model individual and group-level variance (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998; Hofmann, Griffin & Gavin, 2000). I used RCM to estimate the amount of between- and within-branch variability in the dependent measures. Next, I modeled individual-level and group-level predictors to see if these variables significantly explained between-branch and/or individual-level variability. Table 10 provides a summary of the analyses that were conducted.

In addition, the proposed model suggests mediation is present. This implicit prediction was tested using Baron and Kenny’s (1986) recommended procedure to investigate the possible mediational role of psychological climate and state goal orientation. First, the extent to which the independent variable was related to the dependent variable was assessed (referred to later in this dissertation as the first condition of mediation). Next, when controlling for the independent variable, the mediator’s relationship to the dependent variable was investigated. Lastly, the extent to which the relationship of the independent variable to the dependent variable became attenuated (case of partial mediation) or nonsignificant (case of full mediation) when the mediator was in the equation was determined. This procedure was conducted in RCM to properly model group and individual level sources of variation and examine the extent to which psychological climate mediated the relationship between leader priority (independent

variable) and state goal orientation (dependent variable). This procedure was repeated to examine the extent to which state goal orientation mediated the relationship between psychological climate (independent variable) and the outcomes (dependent variable).

Issues of Control. In examining the relationship between climate and state goal orientation, trait goal orientation was treated as a control for two primary reasons. First, controlling for trait goal orientation allowed me to better isolate the effects of state goal orientation, separate from trait influences. Moreover, this approach allowed me rule out the possibility that work-group climate results from the homogeneity of team members in their trait goal orientation (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). In addition, because of the intercorrelations among the achievement-oriented psychological climates and among the leader priorities, non-focal psychological climates and leader priorities were controlled for in testing the first two hypotheses to provide a more stringent test.

Table 10.

Analytic Strategy Used for Testing Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Analysis Used
1. Leader priority is directly related to psychological climate	Random Coefficient Modeling Dependent Variable (DV): Psychological Climate 1. Determine amount of between- and within-branch variability in climate 2. Model individual and group level leader priority as predictors of climate (control for alternative priorities)
2. Psychological climate will have a direct effect on group-member state goal orientation	Random Coefficient Modeling Dependent Variable (DV): State goal orientation 1. Determine amount of between- and within-branch variability in state goal orientation 2. Model individual and group level climate as predictors of state goal orientation (control for trait goal orientation counterpart and non-focal psychological and group climates)
3. Group member state goal orientation is directly related to individual-level outcomes	Random Coefficient Modeling Dependent Variable (DV): outcomes 1. Determine amount of between- and within-branch variability in outcomes 2. Model individual and group level state goal

	orientation as predictors of outcomes
4. Work-group climate and employee perceptions of their leader-member exchange (LMX) interact to affect individual state goal orientation	<p>Random Coefficient Modeling Dependent Variable (DV): state goal orientation</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determine amount of between- and within-branch variability in state goal orientation 2. Model individual main effects, group climate, and interaction (control for trait counterpart)

CHAPTER 4

Results from the Field Study

Psychometric Evidence of the State Goal Orientation Measure. Results from the confirmatory factor analysis are relatively consistent with those from the measurement study. While the fit of the model to the data was not as close as in the measurement study, the final model fit the data reasonably well (Final Model $\chi^2(247)=499.05$; CFI=.938; Standardized RMR=.08; RMSEA=.07) and all items deemed worthy of inclusion significantly loaded on the hypothesized dimension of state goal orientation (see Table 11). One curious difference between these findings and the ones from the measurement study are the interrelationships between the dimensions of state goal orientation (see Table 11). Here, all dimensions of state goal orientation are positively correlated, with state prove goal orientation being highly correlated with both state learning and avoid goal orientation. I suspect that this pattern of results may be due to the context in which state goal orientation was measured. The present research site builds competition among bank branches to inspire higher performance and clearly advocates the adoption of a proving orientation. The qualitative data suggests that respondents used learning and avoiding failure as strategies to outperform others. In other words, motivations to learn and avoid failure could be used as a means to an end, i.e., demonstrating that one can perform better than others. Viewed in this light, these positive correlations among state goal orientation dimensions, particularly the strength of the intercorrelations with state prove goal orientation, are not surprising.

Table 11.

Final Results from Main Study Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Loadings

Item	Factor			R^2
	Learn	Prove	Avoid	
Task: Generating New Business				
1. Show others that I am good at generating new business.	.670			.448
2. Demonstrate to others that I am one of the best in our branch at generating new business.	.662			.438
3. Outperform others in generating new business.	.588			.346
4. Learn alternative work strategies to generate new business.	.737			.543
5. Continually improve my skills in generating new business.	.748			.560
6. Put forth a great deal of effort to learn how to become better at generating new business.	.725			.525
7. Avoid being perceived as lacking the ability to generate new business.		.618		.382
8. Make sure I didn't reveal any incompetencies I might have in generating new business.		.700		.489
9. Steer away from situations where I had to generate new business. ⁺				
Task: Handling Difficult Clients				
10. Show others that I am the best in our branch at handling difficult clients.	.661			.437
11. Prove to others that I can effectively handle difficult clients.	.771			.594
12. Outperform others in handling difficult clients.	.623			.389
13. Learn how to better deal with tough clients.	.621			.386
14. Improve my ability to deal with tough clients.	.601			.362
15. Learn new strategies to handle difficult clients.	.677			.459
16. Avoid being perceived as lacking the ability to handle difficult clients.		.687		.472
17. Make sure I didn't reveal any incompetencies I might have in handling difficult clients.		.665		.442
18. Steer away from situations where I had to handle difficult clients. ⁺				
Task: Participating in Meetings				
19. Highlight my accomplishments.	.426			.181
20. Show others that I am good at my job.	.564			.318
21. Make it a point to talk about how I am doing a good job.	.411			.169
22. Learn from others how to improve my performance.	.704			.496
23. Look for opportunities to learn something new.	.796			.634
24. Learn about different work approaches or strategies that could help me become more effective in my job.	.749			.560
25. Avoid saying something that might make me look stupid or foolish.		.467		.218
26. Make sure I didn't come across as incompetent.		.583		.340
27. Stay out of discussions on topics that I am less knowledgeable about.		.366		.134
Intercorrelation: Learn and Prove		.74**		

Intercorrelation: Prove and Avoid	.76**
Intercorrelation: Avoid and Learn	.41**

+ Item removed due to low loading.

** p<.01

Findings: Hypothesis Testing. The branch-level means, standard deviations, and correlations appear in Table 12. Table 13 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations for the major study variables investigated at the individual level of analysis. There are some interesting patterns of relationships that are noteworthy: (1) dimensions of state goal orientation are related to their trait goal orientation counterpart, (2) individual-level perceptions of leader priority are correlated with their parallel form of psychological climate and state goal orientation, (3) a psychological climate that embodies a particular achievement orientation is related to its parallel form of state goal orientation, (4) in general, psychological climate is more predictive of individual outcomes than leader priority, state goal orientation, trait goal orientation and LMX, which challenges the notion that motivation is the most proximal predictor of behavior (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990).

Table 12.

Branch-level Main Study Variable Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations

	Mean	SD	N	1	2
(Branch) Leader Priority on...					
1. Learning	3.83		34		
2. Proving	3.20		34	.13	
3. Avoiding failure	3.38		34	-.50	.37

Table 13.

Individual-level Main Study Variable Means, SDs, and Intercorrelations

	Mean	SD	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
(Individual) Leader Priority on...													
1. Learning	3.79	.77	230										
2. Proving	3.18	.88	229	.12									
3. Avoiding failure	3.38	.76	229	-.13*	.46**								
Psychological climate for...													
4. Learning	3.73	.64	228	.53**	.05	-.05							
5. Proving	3.11	.72	225	.01	.66**	.39**	.06						
6. Avoiding failure	2.55	.64	229	-.36**	.22**	.35**	-.41**	.28**					
State Goal Orientation (GO)													
7. Overall learn	3.51	.72	231	.15*	.27**	.21**	.22**	.15*	-.04				
8. Overall prove	2.45	.85	231	.08	.43**	.32**	.06	.35**	.05	.54**			
9. Overall avoid	2.84	.86	231	.03	.22**	.25**	.00	.16*	.18**	.31**	.52**		
Moderator and Controls													
10. LMX	3.47	.79	231	.75**	.20**	-.08	.46**	.12	-.27**	.05	.08	-.03	
11. Trait: learn GO	4.28	.53	273	.06	.16*	.20**	.10	.10	.00	.35**	.26**	.05	.06
12. Trait: prove GO	3.34	.87	272	-.01	.36**	.29**	-.07	.34**	.26**	.21**	.51**	.35**	.07
13. Trait: avoid GO	2.36	.81	272	.01	.21**	.16*	-.10	.28**	.25**	-.08	.24**	.21**	.06
Outcomes													
14. Feedback seeking	4.50	.88	269	.11	-.06	-.04	.17*	-.10	-.14*	.16*	-.11	-.01	.08
15. Performance	4.94	.81	267	.09	-.10	-.07	.12	-.15*	-.16*	-.01	-.20**	-.10	.05
16. Avoiding blame	2.32	1.29	267	-.10	-.06	-.08	-.21**	-.01	.05	-.01	.01	-.07	-.12

	11	12	13	14	15
(Individual) Leader Priority on...					
1. Learning					
2. Proving					
3. Avoiding failure					
Psychological climate for...					
4. Learning					
5. Proving					
6. Avoiding failure					
State Goal Orientation (GO)					
7. Overall learn					
8. Overall prove					
9. Overall avoid					
Moderator and Controls					
10. LMX					
11. Trait: learn GO					
12. Trait: prove GO	.30**				
13. Trait: avoid GO	-.11*	.44**			
Outcomes					
14. Feedback seeking	.08	-.09	-.11		
15. Performance	-.10	-.18**	-.14*	.55**	
16. Avoiding blame	-.03	.03	.01	-.53**	-.33**

Notes. * p<.05 level ** p<.01 level

Hypothesis 1 stated that the commensurate form of psychological climate would be related to the leader's achievement-oriented priority and was tested through a series of steps. First, the variability between branches on psychological climate was estimated (learn climate ICC1=.04; prove climate ICC1=.08; avoid ICC1=.06). Next, two models were statistically compared—one that allowed for between branch variation (i.e., intercept variation) and one that did not. Significant results would indicate that allowing the intercept term to vary across branches significantly improves the fit to the data. Study results here indicated that there was not significant model improvement when allowing for between-branch variation in psychological climate for learning and psychological climate for avoiding failure (learn model comparison log Likelihood=-221.79, p=ns; avoid model comparison log Likelihood=-222.35, p=ns). Consequently, a necessary precondition for substantiating a cross-level relationship between branch-level leader priority (learn and avoid) and the parallel form of psychological climate was not satisfied. For a psychological climate for proving, there was significant between branch variation (i.e., intercept variation), as evidenced by the significant improvement in model fit by allowing for intercept variation (prove model comparison log Likelihood=-244.72, p<.05)—next, branch-level leader priority (prove) was tested to see if it significantly explained branch-level variation in a psychological climate for proving.

In the final stage, the relationship between individual-level and branch-level predictors and psychological climate was examined (see Table 14 for results). For psychological climate for learning, employees' individual level perceptions of their manager's priority on learning was related to a psychological climate for learning ($t=8.92$, $p<.01$). For a psychological climate for proving, individual employee

perceptions of their manager's priority on proving one's competence and avoiding failure were related to a psychological climate for proving performance (prove $t=9.31$, $p<.01$; avoid $t=2.12$, $p<.05$). In addition, no branch-level predictors were significantly related to a psychological climate for proving. Lastly, employee perceptions of their manager's priority on avoiding failure and learning were related to a psychological climate for avoiding failure (avoid $t=3.21$, $p<.01$; learn $t=-4.98$, $p<.01$). In sum, I found no evidence of a cross-level relationship between branch-level leader priority and psychological climate; therefore Hypothesis 1 is not supported. However, there is consistent evidence that individual-level perceptions of leader priority are related to their parallel form of psychological climate.

Table 14.

Random Coefficient Modeling Results: Leader Priority Predicting Psychological Climate

	Dependent Variable					
	Psychological Climate for Learning		Psychological Climate for Proving Performance		Psychological Climate for Avoiding Failure	
	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df
Individual-level predictors						
Leader priority: prove	-.03 (.05)	188	9.31**(.05)	185	2.31* (.05)	188
Leader priority: learn	8.92**(.05)	188	-1.32 (.06)	185	-4.98** (.06)	188
Leader priority: avoid	-.10 (.05)	188	2.12* (.06)	185	3.21** (.06)	188
Branch-level predictors						
Leader priority: prove	.11 (.14)	30	.36 (.13)	30	.17 (.13)	30
Leader priority: learn	-.47 (.15)	30	.98 (.14)	30	-1.04 (.14)	30
Leader priority: avoid	.62 (.17)	30	-.22 (.16)	30	-1.02 (.15)	30

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

In Hypothesis 2, I predicted a significant relationship between each form of achievement-oriented psychological climate and their respective dimension of state goal orientation and testing this hypothesis included the same procedure as outlined for Hypothesis 1. First, the between-branch variability in state goal orientation was estimated (learn ICC1=.05; prove ICC1=.16; avoid ICC1=.08). Next, the existence of significant between-branch variation in state goal orientation was investigated through model comparisons. In only a state prove goal orientation was there significant model fit improvement by allowing for between-branch variation (prove log Likelihood=-2.84.35, $p<.01$); this finding was unexpected and provided an opportunity to find a cross-level relationship between a branch-level climate for proving and individual state goal orientation (which was not found; see Table 15). Lastly, relationships between individual-level and branch-level climate and state goal orientation were investigated (see Table 15). As hypothesized, a psychological climate for learning was related to individual state learning goal orientation ($t=2.40$, $p<.05$) and a psychological climate for proving was related to individual state prove goal orientation ($t=3.09$, $p<.01$). Interestingly enough, there was no evidence that a psychological climate for avoiding failure was related a state avoid goal orientation ($t=1.81$, $p=ns$). These findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 2.

In addition, there were a few unexpected findings: (1) a psychological climate where one perceives proving oneself as valuable was related to employees' state learning goal orientation (prove climate $t=1.98$, $p<.05$) and (2) a psychological climate that perceives avoiding failure as valued was negatively related to a state prove goal

orientation (avoid climate $t=-2.20$, $p<.05$). These findings are further discussed in the discussion section of this dissertation.

Table 15.

Random Coefficient Modeling Results: Psychological Climate Predicting State Goal Orientation

	Dependent Variable							
	State Orientation (GO)	Learning Goal Orientation (GO)	Goal	State Orientation (GO)	Prove Goal	Goal	State Orientation (GO)	Avoid Goal
	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df
Parallel form of Trait GO	5.14**(.09)	175	7.02** (.06)	174	2.01*(.08)	174		
Individual-level predictors								
Climate: learn	2.40* (.08)	175	-.10 (.09)	174	1.24 (.11)	174		
Climate: prove	1.98* (.07)	175	3.09**(.08)	174	.55 (.10)	174		
Climate: avoid	-.06 (.09)	175	-2.20* (.10)	174	1.81 (.12)	174		
Branch-level predictors								
Climate: learn	.04 (.20)	30	.73 (.25)	30	.05 (.28)	30		
Climate: prove	-.78 (.16)	30	.91 (.20)	30	.51 (.23)	30		
Climate: avoid	1.09 (.21)	30	.70 (.25)	30	.14 (.28)	30		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

No support was found for Hypothesis 3, which proposed differential relationships among the dimensions of state goal orientation and individual-level outcomes. Significant between-branch variation existed in each of the outcome variables (learning strategies $ICC1=.12$, performance $ICC1=.12$; avoiding blame $ICC1=.32$). For this reason, branch-level state goal orientation predictors were also investigated and results are presented in Table 16. State learning goal orientation at the individual and branch level was not related to use of learning strategies (individual level $t=.76$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=1.61$, $p=ns$), performance (individual level $t=-.56$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=.41$, $p=ns$),

or avoiding blame (individual level $t=.42$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=.36$ $p=ns$). Contrary to my hypothesis, state prove goal orientation was not related to performance (individual level $t=-1.77$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=-.13$, $p=ns$). Lastly, avoid state goal orientation was not significantly related to use of learning strategies (individual level $t=-.49$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=-.06$, $p=ns$), performance (individual level $t=.01$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=.68$, $p=ns$), and avoiding blame (individual level $t=-.57$, $p=ns$; branch level $t=-.94$, $p=ns$). Possible explanations for these lack of findings are discussed in the discussion section of this dissertation.

Table 16.

Random Coefficient Modeling Results: State Goal Orientation Predicting Outcomes

	Dependent Variable					
	Learning Strategies		Performance		Avoiding Blame	
	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df
Trait Learn GO	.78 (.13)	159	.28 (.11)	157	-.01 (.17)	159
Trait Prove GO			-.63 (.08)	157		
Trait Avoid GO	-1.70 (.08)	159	-1.29 (.08)	157	1.26 (.10)	159
Individual-level predictors						
Learn state GO	.76 (.10)	159	.42 (.09)	157	.97 (.13)	159
Prove state GO			-1.77 (.09)	157		
Avoid state GO	-.49 (.08)	159	.01 (.07)	157	-.57 (.10)	159
Branch-level predictors						
Learn state GO	1.60 (.32)	30	.36 (.31)	29	-.62 (.55)	30
Prove state GO			-.13 (.25)	29		
Avoid state GO	-.06 (.26)	30	.68 (.28)	29	-.94 (.45)	30

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 4 dealt with the interaction of leader-member exchange and psychological climate in predicting state goal orientation, and the results are presented in Table 17. In testing the interactive effect of LMX and each psychological climate, the

parallel form of trait goal orientation and the branch-level climate counterpart were controlled for by entering them into the equation simultaneously. In predicting a state learning goal orientation, the main effect of psychological climate for learning was not significant ($t = -1.09$, $p = ns$) while there was a main effect of LMX ($t = -2.27$, $p < .05$). The interaction term is significantly related to state learning goal orientation (interaction $t = 2.08$, $p < .05$). To aid in interpretation, this interaction was plotted using Aiken and West's (1996) recommended procedure (see Figure 3). As Figure 3 suggests, under conditions of low quality leader-member exchange relationships, the relationship between psychological climate for learning and state learning goal orientation was relatively stable. However, when employees enjoy high quality leader-member exchange relationships, their psychological climate for learning was more strongly related to the adoption of a state learning goal orientation. The nature of this interaction was consistent with my expectations.

In predicting state prove goal orientation, none of the main effects were significant (prove psychological climate $t = .26$, $p = ns$; LMX $t = -.18$, $p = ns$), nor was the interaction term (LMX X climate $t = .33$, $p = ns$). This same lack of results was true for state avoid goal orientation (main effects: avoid psychological climate $t = -.02$, $p = ns$; LMX $t = -.53$, $p = ns$; interaction term $t = .53$, $p = ns$). Together, this evidence provides partial support for Hypothesis 4.

Table 17.

Random Coefficient Modeling Results: Interactive Effect of Psychological Climate and LMX in Predicting State Goal Orientation

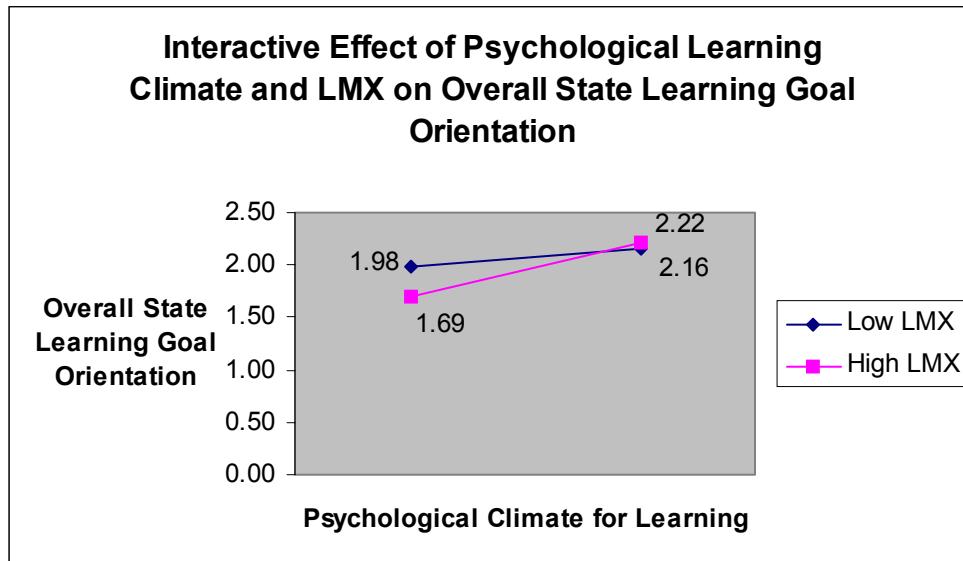
	Dependent Variable					
	State Learning Goal Orientation (GO)		State Prove Goal Orientation (GO)		State Avoid Goal Orientation (GO)	
	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df	t (SE)	df
Parallel form of Trait GO	4.86** (.09)	177	6.76** (.06)	173	2.32* (.07)	178
Individual-level predictors						
Parallel climate	-1.06 (.29)	177	.26 (.32)	173	-.02 (.41)	178
Branch-level predictors						
Parallel climate	-.47 (.18)	32	1.42 (.20)	32	-.03 (.24)	32
LMX	-2.27* (.31)	177	-.18 (.28)	173	-.53 (.31)	178
LMX X climate	2.08* (.08)	177	.33 (.09)	173	.53 (.11)	178

* p< .05

** p<.01

Figure 3.

Interactive Effect of Psychological Learning Climate and LMX on State Learning Goal Orientation.



Findings: Tests for Mediation. No evidence was found to support the claim that psychological climate mediates the role between leader priority and state goal orientation. In examining the mediational role of a psychological climate for learning, I found that leader priority for learning at the individual level is positively related to state learning goal orientation (individual $t=2.74$, $p<.01$; branch-level $t=-.95$, $p=ns$) and satisfies the first condition of mediation. When psychological climate for learning was added into the equation, I found that the relationship of leader learning priority and state goal orientation becomes nonsignificant ($t=1.14$, $p=ns$). However, psychological climate for learning was not significantly related to state learning orientation ($t=1.92$, $p=ns$).

In examining the mediation role of a psychological climate for proving, I found that a leader priority for proving was significantly related to state prove goal orientation at the individual and branch level (individual $t=4.77$, $p<.01$; branch $t=3.76$, $p<.01$).

When a psychological climate for proving was added into the model, the relationship between leader prove priority and state prove goal orientation was attenuated (individual $t=2.51$, $p<.01$; branch $t=3.09$, $p<.01$); however, the relationship between psychological climate for proving and state prove goal orientation was not significant ($t=1.72$, $p=ns$).

With regard to the mediational role of a psychological climate for avoiding failure, I found that leader priority to avoid failure was positively related to a state avoid orientation (individual $t=3.09$, $p<.01$; branch $t=.52$, $p=ns$). With the addition of a psychological climate to avoid failure, the strength of the relationship between leader priority to avoid failure and state avoid orientation decreased ($t=2.36$, $p<.05$), but again there was not a significant relationship between psychological climate for avoiding and state avoid goal orientation ($t=1.67$, $p=ns$).

The second set of mediational analyses examined whether state goal orientation mediates the relationship between psychological climate and individual outcomes. With respect to the mediational role of state learning goal orientation, a psychological and branch climate for learning were not found to be significantly related to use of learning strategies (individual $t=1.37$, $p=ns$; branch $t=1.14$, $p=ns$) and performance (individual $t=.41$, $p=ns$; branch $t=1.14$, $p=ns$), and therefore, does not satisfy the first condition of mediation. In relating psychological climate for learning to avoiding blame, I found a significant relationship (individual $t=-2.64$, $p<.01$; branch $t=-.60$, $p=ns$). However, when a state goal orientation for learning was added to the model, the relationship between a psychological climate for learning and avoiding blame was strengthened ($t=-2.84$, $p<.01$) and state learning goal orientation was not a significant predictor of avoiding blame ($t=1.28$, $p=ns$).

In examining whether state prove goal orientation mediates the relationship between psychological and branch climate for proving and performance, I found that branch climate for proving was negatively related to performance ($t=-2.51$, $p<.05$; individual $t=-.00$, $p=ns$). When state prove goal orientation was added to the model, the relationship between branch climate for proving and performance was strengthened, rather than attenuated ($t=-3.25$, $p<.01$; individual $t=.51$, $p=ns$), and state prove goal orientation was not significantly related to performance ($t=-1.70$, $p=ns$).

In testing the mediational role of state avoid goal orientation, no significant relationship existed between psychological or branch climate for avoiding failure and the three outcomes of interest (predicting learning strategies: individual $t=-1.32$, $p=ns$; branch $t=.02$, $p=ns$; predicting performance: individual $t=-.64$, $p=ns$; branch $t=-1.46$, $p=ns$; predicting avoiding blame: individual $t=1.15$, $p=ns$; branch $t=-.85$, $p=ns$). Because these results did not satisfy the first condition of mediation, no further tests were run.

Summary of Findings

From the field study, several key findings emerged. First, employee perceptions of their leader's achievement priority was positively related to its parallel form of psychological climate—this pattern of relationships was expected; however, it was hypothesized that these relationships would exist at the group-level of analysis, instead of the individual level; therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Second, one's achievement-oriented psychological climate was related to the parallel form of state goal orientation, except in the case of a psychological climate for avoiding failure, and provided partial support for Hypothesis 2. Third, none of the dimensions of state goal orientations were related to any of the outcomes examined, and so Hypothesis 3 was not

supported. Fourth, the relationship between state learning goal orientation and a psychological climate for learning was found to be stronger under conditions of higher quality leader-member exchange relationship, and provided some support for Hypothesis 4. Lastly, no evidence of mediation was found.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The implicit focus of much of the theory and research on motivation centers on the motivation to perform a specific task (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1996). While a valuable line of inquiry, current business and career trends necessitate exploration of a broader range of employee motivations. Understanding how to enhance employees' motivation to learn has become critical given the increasingly dynamic nature of work (Howard, 1995). Similarly, individuals' motivation to demonstrate their competence is common in organizations and has implications for one's career and leadership (e.g., Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Lastly, recent corporate scandals involving cover ups of questionable management practices illustrate the costly implications of being motivated to avoid failure. The pervasiveness and implications of these trends warrants increased attention on these alternative forms of motivation.

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore a broader range of achievement goals by examining the emergence of state goal orientation in organizational work groups. More specifically, leaders achievement priorities and work-group climate were investigated as core antecedent processes of state goal orientation. The concept of leader-member exchange was employed as a relational medium through which, I argued, the leader's priority was transmitted, clarified, and internalized, depending upon the quality of the relationship between an individual group members and his/her leader. Finally, the relationships of the dimensions of state goal orientation and outcomes were examined.

One of the major findings of this dissertation is that specific achievement-oriented work-group contexts are related to their parallel form of state goal orientation; these

relationships were found in the experimental and field studies. Consistent with other experimental research, the measurement study demonstrates that state goal orientation can be induced, and in this case, as the result of asking participants to consider how they would respond motivationally when working in a particular achievement-oriented work-group context. In addition, consistent with the measurement study, I found individuals who perceive their work group as endorsing a particular achievement orientation also hold the commensurate form of state goal orientation (with the exception of a psychological climate for avoiding failure). Consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), group members model their learned responses on their interpretations of salient and rewarded work approaches and behaviors. Their psychological climate is in essence their interpretation of their work environment; it signals the desired, emphasized, and expected response and motivates individuals to adopt the ascribed achievement goal by clarifying behavior-outcome contingencies and the valued approach to securing rewards (e.g., Kopelman et al, 1990). According to this theoretical perspective, the similarity in achievement orientation across respondents' state goal orientation and their psychological climate results from an attempt to be rewarded for complying with their interpreted expectations about what is rewarded and valued in their particular work-group context. This work provides a significant contribution to the literature in that it (1) empirically demonstrates the potency of individual perceptions of the work-group context on individual group members' state goal orientation, and (2) shows that these relationships hold when tested with different samples and design, thereby offering higher levels of confidence in the efficacy of these relationships.

A more fine-grained understanding of the relationship between leader priority and climate is offered by the field study, in which I found that leader's priority on a particular achievement orientation was consistently related to the parallel form of psychological climate. As Schneider and Reichers (1983) and Zohar (2000; Zohar and Luria, 2004) suggest, work-group leaders shape climate perceptions by providing a structure within the work group through employing a specific set of practices that reinforce their particular achievement priority and interacting with group members to reinforce the types of behaviors consistent with this priority. Surprisingly, individual interpretations of their leader's priority (individual construct), rather than the group's assessment of the leader's priority (group-level construct), predicted psychological climate. There are two possible explanations for these results, which are not mutually exclusive. First, the lower reliability of the group means, i.e., ICC2 values, due to relatively fewer respondents per branch may have made it difficult to detect a cross-level relationship. Second, while significant, the strength of the branch-level effect was not impressive, as evidenced by the lower to mid-range ICC1 values, which may mean that when leaders convey their achievement priority, individual group member or dyadic differences drive interpretation of this priority. Evidence that leadership is an individually perceived phenomenon has been suggested by other leadership scholars (Avolio & Yammarino, 1990; Graen & Cashman, 1975) and raises interesting theoretical and empirical questions regarding this work: to what extent is the concept of leader priority a consistently shared perception or more a function of individual/dyadic differences? And, more importantly, which form of leader priority (group, dyadic, individual) has the greatest influence on group member state goal orientation?

The findings that the relationships between these antecedent processes (i.e., leader priority and climate) and state goal orientation exist at the individual-level of analysis open up exciting opportunities for further theoretical development of the present model. In essence, these findings suggest that influence from the group is not necessary for group members to perceive and adapt their state goal orientation according to the expectations and rewards of their particular organizational work group. Moreover, group-level influences, when tested in other contexts, may provide independent effects above and beyond the individual-level relationships found here. Other empirical work have found significant, simultaneous climate effects at multiple levels of analysis (e.g., Tesluk, Farr, Mathieu, and Vance, 1995; Tesluk, Vance, & Mathieu, 1999), yet little theory exists that clearly explicates the mechanisms through which these multi-level effects operate to impact individual-level outcomes. Further conceptual development of the present model would clarify these mechanisms to better serve future climate research by encouraging clearer theoretical arguments for causal effects, extend multi-level theory by providing an exemplar for how constructs at multiple levels of analysis operate simultaneously, and provide clearer guidance to practice on how to influence group members' goal orientations.

It was unexpected that in many cases non-focal achievement-oriented contexts were related to a particular aspect of state goal orientation. In the field study, for example, I found that when group members perceive a psychological climate in which it is important to prove oneself as competent, they are more likely to hold a state learning goal orientation. As another example regarding the relation to leader priority and psychological climate, when group members perceive their leader as deemphasizing

learning and promoting the value of proving one's competence and avoiding mistakes, they are more likely to perceive a psychological climate in which avoiding failure is expected and valued. The measurement study (see Table 10) also suggest relationships between non-focal conditions and each dimension of state goal orientation. In some cases, I believe these findings reflect the instrumentality of these motivational orientations in work settings—group members may perceive an environment in which proving one's competence is valued and use a motivation to learn to build their abilities to ultimately prove themselves. This interpretation of these findings is consistent with the qualitative data collected and with other anecdotal evidence I have collected from practitioners who work in different organizational contexts. In other cases, I question whether these findings would generalize to other research contexts because specific characteristics of the sampled organization may not hold in other research sites. For example, in the present research site, employees stated the tremendous and continuous pressure they felt to meet specific goals. This pressure from the leader in the form of a priority on proving performance could have ultimately shaped branch members perception that meeting goals was a way to avoid failure in the context of their branch, thereby contributing to a psychological climate for avoiding failure. These dynamics found within the branches may be reflective of this particular organization or industry.

Also unexpected was the finding in the field study that none of the psychological climates were related to state avoid goal orientation. This finding was particularly surprising because it runs contrary to the measurement study, in which I found that the experimental conditions explained the most variance in state avoid goal orientation as compared to the other dimensions. One issue that emerged during the qualitative stage of

this research suggested that respondents defined “failure” differently. As a result, it is possible that the measure of psychological climate for avoiding failure did not fully capture all the various definitions of “failure” that respondents envision in their work context, thereby limiting the power of this predictor. Another potential explanation might be that a factor that I did not measure, such as specific policies and procedures designed to minimize mistakes and failure, is attenuating the relationship between psychological climate and state avoid goal orientation.

Contrary to my expectations, in the field study, climate existed meaningfully only at the individual-level of analysis. Only 5-6% of the variance in climate perceptions could be attributable to the branch, and a shared perception of the branch climate did not emerge in the bank branches studied. One possible explanation is that there is an organizational climate versus branch level climates within this particular region of retail banks. Investigation of the potential for sub-climates based on job function did not reveal that administrative and personal banking personnel have substantial differences in their interpretation of the climate within their branches. Moreover, extremely high r_{wg} statistics indicate that branch employees perceive and rate the policies, structures, practices in their branch in very similar ways. In fact, the r_{wg} statistics run on the entire sample are extremely high, indicating a high level of consistency in branch climate across all employees within the region (r_{wg} learn climate= .95; r_{wg} prove climate =.92; r_{wg} avoid climate=.92). During the qualitative stage of this research, participants commented on the relatively consistent policies and procedures around performance, avoiding mistakes, and employee development. Perhaps this infrastructure and its effective implementation served to minimize unique variation that might be expected at the branch level.

The second set of findings from this dissertation concerns the measurement of state goal orientation. Confirmatory factor analysis results from the measurement and field studies revealed reasonable fit between the hypothesized measurement model and the data. There was consistent evidence of discriminant validity across the two studies—e.g., state goal orientation differs from trait goal orientation, adequate discrimination among the dimensions of state goal orientation. In addition, convergent validity evidence existed across the two studies—e.g., high intercorrelations across the three different task situations for each dimension of state goal orientation existed in the measurement and field studies. Interestingly enough, the method of measurement, i.e., the type of task used in capturing state goal orientation, influenced state goal orientation, particularly for state learning goal orientation. This finding underscores the importance of using task situations that are relevant to the respondents' work to measure state goal orientation and suggests that the objective nature of the task may influence the emergence of state goal orientation, particularly for state learning goal orientation. While this dissertation focuses on how leaders and the resulting climate help shape how group members perceive the task at hand, this finding opens an additional avenue for future research by suggesting that the objective nature of the task might be influential in producing specific forms of state goal orientation.

The psychometric quality of the measure of state goal orientation was stronger in the measurement than in the field study, which I expected due to the greater levels of control inherent in an experimental setting. However, there was a different pattern of intercorrelations among the dimensions of state goal orientation in the measurement as compared to the field study. In the measurement study, the intercorrelations reflected the

same pattern that is often found with trait goal orientation research and was consistent with my expectations (e.g., VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). However, in the field study, all dimensions were positively correlated, with the highest intercorrelations existing with prove state goal orientation and the other two dimensions. As I mentioned previously, I suspect that this pattern of results may be due to the context in which state goal orientation was measured. The present research site builds competition among bank branches to inspire higher performance and clearly advocates the adoption of a proving orientation. The qualitative data suggests that respondents used learning and avoiding failure as strategies to outperform others. In other words, motivations to learn and avoid failure could be used as a means to an end, i.e., a vehicle used to demonstrate higher performance relative to others. Viewed in this light, these positive correlations among state goal orientation dimensions, particularly the strength of the intercorrelations with state prove goal orientation, are not surprising. Moreover, these results suggest that the interpretations of the utility of different achievement goals, i.e., state goal orientation, may be contextually dependent. Consequently, the way in which a particular organization defines effective performance and the mental models employees hold about how to achieve higher levels of performance could affect the nature of state goal orientation such that one particular state goal orientation dimension may emerge as more central than the others. As a result, future researchers embarking on projects to examine state goal orientation would be well served to gather some qualitative data initially to better understand how effective performance is defined within the targeted organization and which task situations are most relevant to potential respondents.

In the measurement study, I found strong and consistent relationships between state goal orientation and hypothesized outcomes. The dimensions of state goal orientation are the most strongly related to the outcomes of interest, even more so than trait goal orientation. While some of this variance explained may be due to same source bias and/or method effects, it is unlikely that controlling for these effects would reduce these relationships to insignificant levels given how robust these relationships appear to be. These findings are consistent with motivation scholars who suggest that motivation is the most proximal indicator of behavior (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990), and further suggest that temporary achievement motives can be more predictive of individual behavior than more personality-based, motivation concepts, e.g., trait goal orientation. The implication of these findings is that positive performance gains may be achieved through designing the work-group context to facilitate specific forms of state goal orientation. This notion complements the implication of the much of the trait goal orientation research, which suggests that they way to improve performance is through selection of individuals holding more productive forms of goal orientation (e.g., VandeWalle, Brown, Cron & Slocum, 1999), and provides an exciting new way to think about how to improve performance via employee goal orientation.

While these results are exciting, they need to be tempered by the fact that no relationships were found between the dimensions of state goal orientation and the outcomes in the field study, nor was there any evidence that state goal orientation mediates the relationship between psychological climate and outcomes. With these individual level outcomes, between-branch variation should be low given that each branch should contain a random distribution of assessments of the individual outcomes.

However, the variance explained in each of the outcomes by branch membership ranged from 12-32%. One logical conclusion is that this between-branch variation reflects some measurement error, as the leader assessed each member of the branch on the outcome measures. In addition, because random coefficient modeling uses listwise deletion and the test for these relationships used two sources of data, the power was slightly lower in these analyses than for the others. Together, these issues may account for the lack of findings between state goal orientation and the outcomes.

The final interesting finding of this dissertation is the interactive effect of leader-member exchange and a psychological climate for learning on state learning goal orientation. The nature of this relationship is in the expected form in that the relationship between psychological climate for learning and state learning goal orientation is stronger for members who enjoy high quality leader-member exchange relationships than for those who have low quality leader-member exchange relationships. As Hofmann et al., (2003) suggest, respondents who enjoy high quality LMX relationships feel a heightened sense of obligation to comply with work-group expectations while the climate perceptions direct these individuals on how to satisfy this obligation (i.e., by complying motivationally to expectations). This finding provides additional credibility to Hofmann et al.'s work (2003) by showing the generalizability of their research on safety climate to another research context, type of climate, and level of analysis.

Significant interactions between LMX and the other two achievement-oriented psychological climates were not found, which raise some interesting questions about why that was the case. It is possible that in the emergence of state goal orientation more than a sense of obligation to comply with work-group expectations, as conveyed by climate

perceptions, is necessary to induce a state goal orientation. Perhaps, high-quality LMX relationships also provide access to resources that support the expression of a particular achievement orientation. In this way, increased access to certain resources further cues individuals to adopt a particular state goal orientation. This explanation that high LMX relationship can also cue particular state goal orientations through the access to specific types of resources is supported by the qualitative data, which suggested that employees with close relationships with their managers receive resources to learn but not necessarily resources that to help them prove their performance or avoid failure.

Study Limitations

The three-phase approach to testing the hypothesized model provides a strong empirical approach. The consistent tension in research of sacrificing generalizability for internal validity (and vice versa) was somewhat alleviated here by coupling an experimental and field design. Nonetheless, there are a few issues that are noteworthy in considering this research.

Because goal orientation is an aspect of achievement motivation, the theory of this dissertation is only intended to apply when group members are working on achievement tasks. Building on McClelland's work (1953), achievement tasks are defined as those perceived by group members to involve some level of problem solving and evaluation of task performance against explicit or implicit standards. As such, the arguments presented here may not generalize to all types of work groups and/or situations. Moreover, in retrospect, the selection of the task situation of participating in meetings to measure state goal orientation may not have been ideal given that in some cases meeting participation does not meet the criteria of an "achievement task." This

rationale may explain why there was relatively lower convergent validity evidence with this particular task situation across all the dimensions of state goal orientation.

In addition, because of the uniqueness of the sampled organization for the field study, some of the findings reported here may not replicate. State goal orientation appears to be a highly context-dependent construct so relationships among the dimensions may be specific to the type of organization sampled. Findings that document the relationships between specific forms of achievement-oriented contexts and the parallel form of state goal orientation are expected to generalize, however. These findings emerged in a setting that had a complicated reporting structure with employees who fell into two major job functions. Despite these complexities, which were only expected to attenuate the hypothesized relationships, solid evidence surfaced to support the logic articulated in this dissertation.

With regard to issues concerning internal validity, in the measurement and field studies, the majority of the constructs were assessed by the same respondents. Consequently, the results presented herein may contain some same source bias. One way to overcome this shortcoming in future research is to use Zohar and Luria's (2004) method for measuring leader priority in which leaders respond to a number of context relevant decisions which elucidates their priority on specific aspect of work-group functioning. This approach would control for same source bias in investigating the relationship between leader priority and climate perceptions.

In addition, while the measurement study provides an internally valid test of the proposed relationships, no causation can be determined in the field study because of the cross-sectional design. One alternative causal argument is that employees are attracted

and selected by leaders with the same trait goal orientation, and therefore, are likely to hold the expected state goal orientation, since it is correlated with trait goal orientation, as a result of selection processes rather than the interactive processes described here. By controlling for the effects of trait goal orientation, I am able to rule out this alternative; however, I recognize that other potential causal sequencing exists. The lack of results regarding the mediational role of psychological climate poses further challenges in making any definitive claims about the causal ordering of these constructs.

Lastly, for adequate power, Hofmann, Griffin and Gavin (2000) recommend 30 groups of 10 members for multi- and cross-level research. The research satisfies this guideline by studying a sample of 34 branches with an average of 7.08 respondents per branch. However, there was wide variation in the number of respondents per branch (range 2-19). This variance in branch sample size impacted the reliability of group means, thereby limiting my ability to conduct a fair cross-level test of Hypotheses 1 and 2, and made it impossible to use a split-sample approach to handle same source bias potentially inherent in the leader priority and climate measures. Perhaps, our guidelines for conducting multi-level research need to better reflect the importance of similar group sizes when close to the recommended threshold.

Research Implications

Theoretically, this dissertation builds on initial suggestions from educational research (e.g., Dweck, 1986; Ames & Archer, 1988) to more fully articulate the leadership and climate mechanisms through which state goal orientation may emerge in organizations. This focus advances our understanding of goal orientation theory by presenting the first model that explains why and how state goal orientation emerges in

organizational work groups and serves to balance the current treatment of goal orientation in the management domain which has extensively studied goal orientation's relation to individual outcomes (e.g., Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Chen et al., 2000; Fisher & Ford, 1998; Ford et al., 1998; VandeWalle et al., 1999). Here, the focus has been on understanding the antecedents to goal orientation with the implication being that the work-group context may be designed to facilitate the emergence of more productive forms of state goal orientation.

Moreover, by showcasing leadership and work-group climate as core antecedent processes, this research contributes to future research on this topic in two distinct ways. First, it integrates a broad base of literature to describe the types of leader behaviors and the characteristics of resulting work-group climates that give rise to different forms of state goal orientation—these research-based descriptions may guide future researchers as they attempt to measure these constructs. Second, it pays particular attention to multi-level issues, which aids in the clarity of the theory and provides sound guidance for future empirical testing, and provides some improvement over the few studies that have struggled methodologically in examining state goal orientation (e.g., Ames & Archer, 1988; Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002).

In addition, this research extends our view of leadership and its effect on goal orientation by incorporating a more distal leadership perspective (i.e., leader priority) and relational perspective (i.e., LMX). This approach of coupling one leadership concept to capture the focus of the leader's behavior (i.e., "the what") with another to capture the relational exchange (i.e., "the how") has been advocated by leadership scholars (e.g., Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). As a result, this dissertation better models the complexity of

leadership to potentially gain greater predictive power and enables a better understanding the interrelationships among different forms of leadership.

One interesting question raised by this dissertation concerns the temporal dynamics of state goal orientation. While this research provides an introduction to the malleability of goal orientation, it is unclear the extent to which state goal orientations may endure over time. Initial research suggests that state goal orientation is easily induced, even by subtle situational cues (e.g., Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Educational scholars suggest that teacher involvement in how students make sense of failure and challenge may help students to hold more productive goal orientations for longer periods of time (e.g., Dweck, 1986); however, no empirical work has been done on this point. The malleability of state goal orientation has direct implications for a more contingency-based view of leadership. For example, leaders may be extremely versatile in promoting a particular state goal orientation for a specific type of task. As a consequence, in some work groups, employees may seamlessly shift to different types of state goal orientations depending on the task at hand. These dynamics suggest the need for additional research attention to more fully explain these dynamics and document the efficacy of these more sophisticated approaches to leadership.

Managerial Implications

The three dimensions of goal orientation provide a vehicle to explore a range of employee achievement goals that are practically significant. The present model elucidates the specific leadership behaviors that are instrumental in constructing unique forms of climate perceptions, and in turn, affecting employee motivation. Articulation of these behaviors and their implications provides a means through which leadership may be

evaluated and provides one necessary component for developing effective leadership in organizations.

Second, the premise that leaders can impact employee goals and perhaps performance through their own priorities and behaviors provides an empowering philosophical orientation toward leadership development. To operationalize this philosophy, organizations may design leadership programs to assist leaders in developing their capabilities in identifying their priorities, reflecting, evaluating, and modifying how they communicate these priorities to their employees, and evaluating and improving the effectiveness of the type of climate they create within their work group. Programs such as these can provide leaders the necessary tools and support as they attempt to modify their behavior to lead their employees to achieving better performance results.

Conclusion

This dissertation extends our knowledge of how leaders can affect the state goal orientation of their employees. In doing so, it guides practitioners and scholars on how to engineer the work group context to facilitate the emergence of different types of employee state goal orientations. I offer this theoretical and empirical introduction to exploring the antecedents of state goal orientation in the hopes of stimulating additional research attention on this domain of research.

APPENDIX A

One-one-One Interview Protocol:

Financial Center Managers and Area Operations Managers

ABC Bank

I. Introductions (10 minutes)

- Introduce myself
- Inform respondent of the purpose of the overall project and interviews
- Show the value of this study to the respondent
- Stress that this interview will be held in confidence
- Note taking and tape recording
- Consent form

How long have you worked for ABC Bank?

What do you most enjoy about your job?

What do you least enjoy?

How long have you been in a leadership position?

II. Outcome variables (15-20 minutes)

What are some of the more important tasks your employees perform?

Describe effective performance on this task. Ineffective performance?

Describe some of the strategies that you have observed employees using to improve their performance on these tasks? Ineffective strategies?

All of us make mistakes from time to time and it's embarrassing because we don't want look foolish and appear incompetent. In your observations, what are some effective ways to avoid appearing incompetent around here?

III. Leader Behaviors (20 minutes)

(Focus on one of three themes: learning, performance, avoiding mistakes)

Think of a leader or manager that you have worked for in the past here at ABC Bank that emphasized/most concerned with: employee development, mission accomplishment, or avoiding making mistakes/CYA.

What types of behaviors did you observe that told you this leader was focused on employee development, mission accomplishment, or avoidance of mistakes/CYA?

Describe to me the type of feedback (in the most general sense of the word) you would typically receive from this leader.

What constituted a “crisis” for this leader?

How did this leader react in a crisis?

How did this leader make decisions about job assignments?

What types of behaviors did this leader reward?

With what types of rewards?

IV. Climate Dimensions (20 minutes)

How did these behaviors exhibited by this leader affect the overall climate/culture of the branch?

If I were to ask you and other members of that particular branch, what would you all say was the goal that was emphasized: learning, performance, avoiding mistakes?

What types of practices, procedures or events were most influential in communicating to you that (learning, performance, avoiding mistakes) was valued?

What types of rewards were most influential in communicating to you that (learning, performance, avoiding mistakes) was important?

How do you and your AOM/FCM work together to set a climate in the branch?
Facilitating factors? Factors to overcome in setting the shared climate?

IV. Task Situations (20 minutes)

You were working for this leader who emphasized (learning, performance, or avoiding making mistakes). Describe to me two to three situations in which you were motivated to:

- Learn, master new skills, ask for feedback to improve, develop competence
- Prove your abilities, shine and show others you knew your stuff
- Avoiding looking like a fool, avoid perceptions of incompetence

How possible is it in this same scenario to have a different motivational approach, if the context supported it (describe the other two approaches)?

V. Closing

- Thanks
- Questions
- Conversation will be held in confidence
- Discuss later portions of project—ask to spread the word to others

APPENDIX B

Focus Group Interviewing Protocol

ABC Bank Branch Employees

Introductions (30 minutes)

Introduce myself and project

- Inform respondent of the purpose of the overall project and focus group
- Why they have been selected to participate
- Show the value of this study to the respondent
- Stress that this focus group will be held in confidence
- Ground rules
- Note taking and tape recording

Introductions of participants:

- Name
- Job title
- How long have you worked for ABC Bank?
- Describe the type of work you would do in a typical day?

Task Situations (60 minutes)

Let's talk more about some of these tasks in a bit more detail for a few minutes. Think about a time when you were:

- Motivated to learn, master new skills, being challenged but not feeling overwhelmed and gaining satisfaction from developing your competence
- Motivated to prove your abilities to others, shine and show others you knew your stuff—perhaps, you were very aware that your performance was being evaluated and/or the task you were performing was highly visible
- Motivated to avoid looking like a fool and avoid perceptions of incompetence—perhaps, you were very aware that your performance was being evaluated and/or the task you were performing was highly visible

Describe the situation and the type of task you were performing.

How well can others of you relate to this situation?

How possible do you think it is in this same situation to hold another motivational orientation (describe other two)?

Why or why not?

What would facilitate adoption of this other type of motivational orientation?

Climate (60 minutes)

Define climate. In your view, who sets the climate in branch?

In cases where the climate is jointly set by the AOM and FCM, what are factors that facilitate this more seamless/shared climate?

In cases where the climate is not jointly set, what are the factors that interfere with a more seamless/shared climate?

You were selected because it was thought that you work in a climate that emphasizes: learning, performance, avoidance of mistakes (verify that this is their perception). What types of practices, procedures or events were most influential in communicating to you that (learning, performance, avoiding mistakes) was valued?

What types of rewards were most influential in communicating to you that (learning, performance, avoiding mistakes) was important?

Leader Behaviors (30 minutes)

What types of behaviors does your AOM/FCM exhibit that tells you he/she is focused on employee development, mission accomplishment, or avoidance of mistakes/CYA?

Describe to me the type of feedback (in the most general sense of the word) you typically receive from him/her.

What constitutes a “crisis” for him/her?

How does he/she react in a crisis?

How does he/she make decisions about job assignments?

What types of behaviors does he/she reward? With what types of rewards?

Closing

- ◆ Thanks
- ◆ Questions
- ◆ Conversation will be held in confidence
- ◆ Discuss later portions of project—ask to spread the word to others

APPENDIX C

Experimental Conditions used in the Measurement Study

Learn Condition

Imagine that you work for a retail bank that provides financial services to individual consumers and commercial organizations. You are employed in one of the local branch offices. Your job entails interacting with customers to service their accounts and generating new business.

Imagine that members of your branch believe that continuous learning is extremely important. Your boss stresses employee development by frequently coaching you and others on how to improve your performance and providing opportunities for training. He/she treats challenging situations as opportunities to learn something new and experiment with new work approaches. The norm in your branch is to encourage one another to develop by providing each other constructive feedback on how to improve work performance. Branch members utilize branch meetings as opportunities to share “best practices” for interacting with clients and generating new business and often informally coach one another. Individuals are consistently recognized and rewarded for learning new skills and knowledge, improving their performance and helping others to develop.

Prove Performance Condition

Imagine that you work for a retail bank that provides financial services to individual consumers and commercial organizations. You are employed in one of the local branch

offices. Your job entails interacting with customers to service their accounts and generating new business.

Imagine that members of your branch believe that demonstrating their abilities to others inside and outside the branch is extremely important. Your boss emphasizes to branch members the need to prove one's competence to others. The norm in your branch is for coworkers to openly compete with one another to prove their ability. Performance is openly evaluated on a monthly basis to create a more competitive environment.

Everyone in the branch knows who are top performers and poor performers, and branch members jockey for the top performer position each month. Meetings are used primarily as a forum to highlight branch member accomplishments. Individuals are consistently recognized and rewarded when they outperform others in the branch. Your boss and coworkers spend a great deal of time communicating individual accomplishments to others inside and outside the branch. Your boss often will manage impressions of others outside the branch to promote a favorable image of the branch and its employees. Branch members also routinely engage in impression management to project a positive image of their performance to their boss and coworkers.

Avoiding Failure Condition

Imagine that you work for a retail bank that provides financial services to individual consumers and commercial organizations. You are employed in one of the local branch offices. Your job entails interacting with customers to service their accounts and generating new business.

Imagine that members of your branch believe that avoiding the appearance of incompetence is extremely important. Your boss is particularly sensitive to how others outside the branch view the competence of branch members. He/she stresses the importance of avoiding committing and admitting mistakes and severely punishes employees when they make mistakes. To minimize performance problems, he assigns tasks only when he/she is confident that the individual will succeed. When mistakes or problems occur, the norm in your branch is for coworkers to cover up for one another to avoid ranting and raving from your boss. During meetings, branch members attempt to avoid being blamed for a problem by shifting blame to others, covering up their actions, and justifying their behavior. Individuals are consistently recognized for “not screwing up” and just doing their jobs. Your boss often will provide excuses and justifications when branch performance is lagging as a way to manage impressions of others outside the branch. He/she views impression management as necessary to protect or repair the image of the branch and its employees.

APPENDIX D

Time 1 Measurement Study Items

Part I Background

What is your current job title/position

Briefly describe the type of company you work for (e.g., service, manufacturing)

How long have been employed full-time?

How long have you managed others?

Level of Management (response set: Supervisor, Middle Manager, Executive, I currently do not supervise others)

Ethnic Background (response set: Caucasian, African American, Latino, Asian/Pacific Islander, Native American, Other)

Gender (response set: Male, Female)

Age (write in response in years)

Part II – Your habits at work, beliefs, and interpersonal relations

Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

Trait Goal Orientation (VandeWalle, 1997)

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills.
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.
6. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.
7. I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworkers can.
8. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.
9. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.
10. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.
11. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear incompetent to others.
12. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.
13. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.

Implicit Theory of Intelligence (Dweck, 2000)

1. You have a certain amount of intelligence and you can't really do much to change it.
2. Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.
3. To be honest, you can't really change how intelligent you are.
4. You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.

Core Self Evaluations (Judge et al., 2003)

5. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
6. Sometimes I feel depressed.
7. When I try, I generally succeed.
8. Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.
9. I complete tasks successfully.
10. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.
11. Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
12. I am filled with doubts about my competence.
13. I determine what will happen in my life.
14. I do not feel in control of my success in my career.
15. I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
16. There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.

Self-monitoring (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984)

1. In social situations, I have the ability to alter my behavior if I feel that something else is called for.
2. I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly through their eyes.
3. I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the impression
I wish to give them.
4. In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with.
5. My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others' emotions and motives.
6. I can usually tell when others consider a joke in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly.
7. When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something that does.
8. I can usually tell when I've said something inappropriate by reading the listener's eyes.
9. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
10. I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirements of any situation I find myself in.
11. If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.
12. Even when it might be to my advantage, I have difficulty putting up a good front.
13. Once I know what the situations calls for, it's easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.

APPENDIX E

Time 2 Measurement Study Survey

State Goal Orientation

Situation 1: Keep in mind you work for a boss that values and rewards continuous learning and improvement. Members of your work group encourage each other to improve, and group members are rewarded for learning new skills and knowledge, improving their performance and helping others to develop. You come into work and need to proactively generate new business, either through expanding the services offered to existing customers or securing new customers.

In this situation, to what extent would you be motivated to do each of the following?
Response scale 1=to no extent; 5=to a great extent)

Prove

1. Show others that I am good at generating new business.
2. Demonstrate to others that I am one of the best in our branch at generating new business.
3. Outperform others in generating new business.

Learn

4. Learn alternative work strategies to generate new business.
5. Continually improve my skills in generating new business.
6. Put forth a great deal of effort to learn how to become better at generating new business.

Avoid

7. Avoid being perceived as incompetent in generating new business.
8. Be concerned that I might reveal my incompetence in generating new business.
9. Shy away from generating new business if there was a chance I might be perceived as incapable.

Behaviors

Given your motivation in this situation, how likely are you to engage in the following behaviors? Response scale 1=not at all likely; 5=extremely likely

Feedback seeking (adapted from Ashford, 1986)

1. Seek information from my coworkers on my work performance.
2. Seek information from my boss on my work performance.

Self promotion (adapted from Turnley & Bolino, 2001)

3. Make other group members aware of my talents and qualifications.
4. Let other group members know that I am a valuable member of the branch.

Avoid blame (adapted from Ashforth & Lee, 1990)

5. Avoid accepting blame if I failed to do a good job.
6. Assign blame to external factors if my work performance did not meet expectations.
7. Provide excuses for my performance if I failed to do a good job.

State Goal Orientation

Situation 2: Keep in mind you work for a boss that values and rewards continuous learning and improvement. Members of your work group encourage each other to improve, and group members are rewarded for learning new skills and knowledge, improving their performance and helping others to develop. An irate customer comes into the crowded lobby screaming that the employees in your branch are “incompetent” and “stupid.” So far, it is unclear what the problem is.

In this situation, to what extent would you be motivated to do each of the following?
Response scale 1=to a very little extent; 5=to a great extent

Prove

1. Show others that I am the best in our branch at handling difficult customers.
2. Prove to others that I can effectively handle difficult customers.
3. Outperform others in handling difficult customers.

Learn

4. Learn how to better deal with tough customers like this one.
5. Improve my ability to deal with tough customers.
6. Learn new strategies to handle difficult customers.

Avoid

7. Avoid being perceived as incapable to this customer.
8. Be concerned that I might appear incompetent.
9. Shy away from handling this customer if there was a chance I might be perceived as incompetent.

Behaviors

Given your motivation in this situation, how likely are you to engage in the following behaviors? Response scale 1=not at all likely; 5=extremely likely

Feedback Seeking (adapted from Ashford, 1986)

1. Seek information from my coworkers on how I handled this customer.
2. Seek information from my boss on how I handled this customer.

Self promotion (adapted from Turnley & Bolino, 2001)

3. Make other group members aware of my talents and qualifications in dealing with situations like these.
4. Let other group members know I am a valuable member of the branch.

Avoiding blame (adapted from Ashforth & Lee, 1990)

5. Avoid accepting blame if I failed to effectively handle this customer.
6. Assign blame to external factors if I was ineffective in handling this customer.
7. Provide excuses for my handling of this customer if I failed to do a good job.

State Goal Orientation

Situation 3: Keep in mind you work for a boss that values and rewards continuous learning and improvement. Members of your work group encourage each other to improve, and group members are rewarded for learning new skills and knowledge, improving their performance and helping others to develop. Every week, your boss holds a meeting with all branch employees to discuss the various branch activities and initiatives.

In this situation, to what extent would you be motivated to do each of the following?
Response scale 1=to a very little extent; 5=to a great extent

Prove

1. Highlight my accomplishments during our weekly meetings.
2. Show others that I am good at my job during our weekly meetings.
3. Make it a point to talk about how I am doing a good job during our weekly meetings.

Learn

4. Learn from others how to improve my performance during our meetings.
5. Look for opportunities to learn something new from our weekly meetings.
6. Learn about different work approaches or strategies during our weekly meetings that could help me become more effective in my job.

Avoid

7. Avoid being perceived as stupid or foolish in our weekly meetings.
8. Be concerned about appearing incapable in our weekly meetings.
9. Shy away from saying anything during our meetings, if there was a chance that I might be perceived as incompetent.

Behaviors

Given your motivation in this situation, how likely are you to engage in the following behaviors? Response scale 1=not at all likely; 5=extremely likely

Feedback seeking (adapted from Ashford, 1986)

1. Seek information from my coworkers on my work performance.
2. Seek information from my boss on my work performance.

Self promotion (adapted from Turnley & Bolino, 2001)

3. Make other group members aware of my talents and qualifications.
4. Let other group members know I am a valuable member of the branch.

Avoid blame (adapted from Ashforth & Lee, 1990)

5. Avoid accepting blame if I failed to do a good job.
6. Assign blame to external factors if my work performance did not meet expectations.
7. Provide excuses for my performance if I failed to do a good job.

Manipulation Checks (Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)

1. I responded to the questions asked on this survey as if I worked for a boss who emphasizes the importance of continuous learning.
2. I responded to the questions asked on this survey as if I worked for a boss who emphasizes the importance of proving one's abilities to others inside and outside the branch.
3. I responded to the questions asked on this survey as if I worked for a boss who emphasizes the avoidance of committing and admitting mistakes.

Appendix F

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1										
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current AOM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2)	Mgr N (T2)
1	Emp M	11.28	7.94	5.69	4.64	4.09	1.00	0.00	36.94	85% W	29
	Emp SD	12.00	8.06	6.41	5.89	4.32	0.47	.	14.99	80% F	
	Emp N	18	18	13	14	11	10	1	17		
	Mgr M	4.50	5.00		1.00	1.00			27.00	50% W	
	Mgr SD	3.54	2.83			50% F	
	Mgr N	2	2		1	1		1			2
2	Emp M	5.80	4.40	3.75	4.40	1.00	1.00	3.60	28.50	71% W	9
	Emp SD	4.97	2.41	2.22	2.41	0.00	0.00	1.34	6.35	86% F	
	Emp N	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	6		
	Mgr M	3.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.00		100% W	
	Mgr SD		100% M	
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			1
3	Emp M	4.00	4.00	3.50	4.00	1.50	1.00		28.40	100% W	9
	Emp SD	1.73	1.73	2.12	1.73	0.71	0.00		7.06	80% F	
	Emp N	3	3	2	3	2	2		5		
	Mgr M	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00			28.00	100% W	
	Mgr SD		100% F	
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1			1
4	Emp M	12.67	8.71	5.14	2.67	4.00	0.86	2.83	33.11	90% W	14
	Emp SD	12.16	9.20	4.98	1.86	5.02	0.38	1.72	15.55	80% F	
	Emp N	6	7	7	6	6	7	6	9		
	Mgr M	20.00	15.00	9.00	3.00	3.00	1.00	1.00	60.00	100% W	
	Mgr SD	25.46	18.39	11.31	2.83	2.83	.	.	.	100% F	
	Mgr N	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1		2

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current AOM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2) Mgr N (T2) Branch size
5 Emp M	11.94	8.13	7.65	6.25	7.33	5.13	5.87	37.93	100% W	
Emp SD	9.43	6.28	7.47	5.70	7.04	7.19	7.54	10.38	100% F	
Emp N	16	16	17	16	15	16	15	15		16
Mgr M	29.50	29.50	7.50	7.50	17.50	14.50	27.00	55.00	100% W	
Mgr SD	3.54	3.54	3.54	3.54	20.51	19.09	.	.	100% F	
Mgr N	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1		2
										19
6 Emp M	9.00	4.50	7.00	8.33	5.50	7.33	6.50	43.25	100% W	
Emp SD	5.60	2.89	6.06	6.66	4.95	7.77	6.56	14.10	100% F	
Emp N	4	4	4	3	2	3	4	4		4
Mgr M										
Mgr SD										
Mgr N										0
										4
7 Emp M	8.33	5.71	4.00	3.14	5.14	0.00	1.71	39.75	100% W	
Emp SD	7.17	3.59	4.12	2.48	3.48	0.00	0.76	15.39	100% F	
Emp N	6	7	7	7	7	2	7	8		7
Mgr M	3.00	3.00	8.00	3.00	.	3.00	1.00	30.00	100% W	
Mgr SD	100% F	
Mgr N	1	1	1	1	.	1	1	1		1
										8
8 Emp M	10.36	8.56	5.44	4.25	5.78	5.67	4.56	38.25	67% W	
Emp SD	9.95	7.76	5.08	4.46	4.09	4.24	2.88	12.25	92% F	
Emp N	11	9	9	8	9	9	9	12		8
Mgr M	34.50	17.00	14.00	10.50	8.50	1.00	6.00	54.00	100% W	
Mgr SD	0.71	1.41	12.73	7.78	10.61	.	.	.	100% F	
Mgr N	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1		2
										13

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1										Branch size
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current ACM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2)	
9 Emp M	9.33	7.17	7.40	5.60	5.00	4.20	4.00	30.20	100% W		
Emp SD	9.65	5.46	6.19	4.45	4.64	2.95	1.73	7.46	100% F		
Emp N	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	5		2	
Mgr M	24.00	10.00	20.00	20.00	6.00		2.00	46.00	100% W		
Mgr SD	100% F		
Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1	1		1	
										10	
10 Emp M	10.00	6.78	3.75	4.89	7.33	2.44	3.00	33.83	90% W		
Emp SD	10.97	5.80	2.92	4.37	6.12	1.01	1.58	10.17	90% F		
Emp N	10	9	8	9	9	9	9	6		10	
Mgr M	24.00	3.00	13.00	3.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	48.00	100% W		
Mgr SD	100% F		
Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	
										11	
11 Emp M	10.00	7.60	6.50	5.33	9.00	2.67	5.00	38.75	80% W		
Emp SD	8.00	5.50	3.70	4.16	7.55	1.53	3.00	12.50	100% F		
Emp N	3	5	4	3	3	3	5	4		5	
Mgr M	6.00	5.00	4.00	2.00	2.00		5.00	34.00	100% W		
Mgr SD	100% F		
Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1	1		1	
										8	
12 Emp M	4.40	4.40	2.33	2.00	4.40	1.00	1.40	26.43	88% W		
Emp SD	3.71	3.71	2.31	2.00	3.71	0.00	0.55	5.22	100% F		
Emp N	5	5	3	4	5	3	5	7		7	
Mgr M	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	36.00	100% W		
Mgr SD	1.41	1.41	.	.	0.00	.	.	16.97	50% F		
Mgr N	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	2		2	
										10	

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current ACM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2) Mgr N (T2) Branch size
13	Emp M	13.22	11.33	5.25	6.00	10.67	9.00	1.50	35.00	63% W
	Emp SD	10.45	11.39	3.81	4.66	8.38	6.13	0.55	11.27	100% F
	Emp N	9	9	8	9	6	6	6	3	9
	Mgr M	33.00	33.00	13.00	13.00	23.00		2.00	58.00	100% W
	Mgr SD	100% F
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1
										10
14	Emp M	15.42	10.33	8.95	7.37	7.29	3.94	4.82	45.53	89% W
	Emp SD	8.98	7.19	8.13	7.10	8.01	1.88	4.30	13.77	95% F
	Emp N	19	18	19	19	17	16	17	17	19
	Mgr M	20.00	13.00	15.00	4.50	5.50	4.00	5.00	42.00	100% W
	Mgr SD	0.00	9.90	7.07	0.71	0.71	.	.	5.66	100% F
	Mgr N	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	2
										21
15	Emp M	7.40	5.80	3.80	3.80	4.75	5.80	4.80	45.00	71% W
	Emp SD	4.98	3.56	2.68	2.68	3.10	3.56	2.39	11.88	100% F
	Emp N	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	6	7
	Mgr M									
	Mgr SD									
	Mgr N									0
										7
16	Emp M	10.33	8.67	7.33	6.00	5.17	2.80	5.00	34.17	88% W
	Emp SD	8.59	6.31	5.20	3.52	2.64	0.45	2.53	10.68	100% F
	Emp N	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	7
	Mgr M	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	33.00	100% W
	Mgr SD	100% F
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
										9

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current AOM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2) Mgr N (T2) Branch size
17	Emp M	8.00	3.75	6.00	3.50	12.50	2.00	2.50	44.50	100% W
	Emp SD	10.74	2.50	7.39	2.52	13.44	0.00	2.12	12.92	100% F
	Emp N	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	4	5
	Mgr M	23.00	23.00	9.00	9.00	2.00		9.00		100% B
	Mgr SD		100% F
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1		1
18	Emp M	4.90	4.60	4.88	3.63	3.56	1.80	1.20	26.78	82% W
	Emp SD	4.61	4.77	5.30	4.81	4.50	0.63	0.63	7.16	91% F
	Emp N	10	10	8	8	9	10	10	9	11
	Mgr M	4.50	4.50	1.50	1.50	3.00	3.00	1.00	39.50	100% W
	Mgr SD	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.71	1.41	.	.	9.19	50% F
	Mgr N	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1
19	Emp M	6.00	8.00	6.00	6.00	3.50		1.00	26.50	100% W
	Emp SD	7.81	9.90	7.07	7.07	3.54		0.00	7.77	100% F
	Emp N	3	2	2	2	2		2	4	4
	Mgr M	3.00	3.00			3.00	1.00	26.00		100% W
	Mgr SD		100% M
	Mgr N	1	1			1	1	1		1
20	Emp M	5.14	4.14	3.86	3.57	2.67	1.50	4.14	34.14	86% W
	Emp SD	2.73	2.04	1.86	1.99	2.34	1.05	2.04	8.99	100% F
	Emp N	7	7	7	7	6	6	7	7	4
	Mgr M	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		1.00	33.00	100% W
	Mgr SD		100% F
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current AOM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2) Mgr N (T2) Branch size
21 Emp M	14.50	12.43	8.00	6.86	8.57	2.86	4.00	34.38	100% W	
Emp SD	9.74	9.45	6.72	6.23	6.92	0.69	1.15	12.30	100% F	
Emp N	8	7	6	7	7	7	7	8		10
Mgr M	17.00	8.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	35.00	100% W	
Mgr SD	2.83	7.07	1.41	1.41	1.41	.	.	.	100% F	
Mgr N	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1		2
										14
22 Emp M	13.25	10.25	11.75	9.33	9.75	9.75	3.75	39.50	100% W	
Emp SD	10.21	6.80	10.40	8.02	6.90	6.90	1.89	16.12	100% F	
Emp N	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	6		3
Mgr M	23.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	23.00			49.00	100% W	
Mgr SD	100% F	
Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1			1		1
										7
23 Emp M	8.14	6.17	3.40	2.60	2.80	1.80		34.00	80% W	
Emp SD	8.49	7.65	3.21	2.51	2.95	0.84		10.49	90% F	
Emp N	7	6	5	5	5	5		9		7
Mgr M	3.00	3.00	10.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	0.00		100% W	
Mgr SD	100% M	
Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			1
										11
24 Emp M	8.67	2.33	2.00	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.00	48.00	60% W	
Emp SD	9.87	1.53	.	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.00	20.52	80% F	
Emp N	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	3		11
Mgr M	2.00	2.00						27.00	100% W	
Mgr SD	100% M	
Mgr N	1	1						1		1
										13

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current ACM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2) Mgr N (T2) Branch size
25	Emp M	5.00	4.25	4.25	4.25	3.25	0.00	0.50	28.33	100% W
	Emp SD	2.45	2.06	2.06	2.06	2.87	.	0.71	5.13	100% F
	Emp N	4	4	4	4	4	1	2	3	3
	Mgr M	2.00	2.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	.	0.00	.	100% W
	Mgr SD	100% M
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	.	1	.	1
26	Emp M	3.57	2.57	4.25	2.75	1.50	2.00	1.50	34.80	100% W
	Emp SD	1.99	1.81	0.50	1.50	0.71	1.00	0.58	12.83	86% F
	Emp N	7	7	4	4	2	3	4	5	6
	Mgr M	7.00	3.00	7.00	1.00	1.00	.	1.00	28.00	100% W
	Mgr SD	100% F
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	.	1	1	1
27	Emp M	6.00	6.00	3.50	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.67	32.75	86% W
	Emp SD	5.03	5.03	1.91	1.63	2.83	.	0.58	15.17	72% F
	Emp N	4	4	4	4	2	1	3	4	4
	Mgr M	1.00	1.00	25.00	100% W	.
	Mgr SD	100% F	.
	Mgr N	1	1	1	.	1
28	Emp M	7.17	7.17	6.00	5.67	4.50	4.17	3.00	36.80	83% W
	Emp SD	4.17	4.17	3.16	3.61	2.74	2.14	1.00	11.92	100% F
	Emp N	6	6	6	6	6	6	3	5	6
	Mgr M	27.00	27.00	25.00	18.00	8.00	.	8.00	62.00	100% W
	Mgr SD	100% F	.
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1	.	1	1	0

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job		Yrs in Current Position		Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current AOM	Age	Race and Gender
29	Emp M	10.00	9.25	9.25	9.25	7.67	1.00	37.80	100% W	
	Emp SD	4.69	4.50	4.50	4.50	6.66	0.00	8.93	83% F	
	Emp N	4	4	4	4	3	3	5		5
	Mgr M	2.00	2.00	1.00		1.00		0.00	100% W	
	Mgr SD	100% M	
	Mgr N	1	1	1		1		1		1
										8
30	Emp M	11.44	11.75	5.78	3.43	4.14	0.00	2.57	37.78	67% W
	Emp SD	11.76	12.62	5.70	2.51	3.02	.	1.27	12.74	92% F
	Emp N	9	8	9	7	7	1	7	9	7
	Mgr M	2.50	2.50	2.00	2.00	3.00		1.00	35.50	100% W
	Mgr SD	0.71	0.71	1.41	1.41	.	.	.	13.44	50% F
	Mgr N	2	2	2	2	1		1	2	2
										14
31	Emp M	9.25	8.00	1.50	1.50	1.00	10.00	1.00	46.33	100% W
	Emp SD	11.98	12.68	0.58	0.58	0.00	.	0.00	13.43	100% F
	Emp N	4	4	4	4	4	1	4	3	5
	Mgr M	14.00	7.50	3.50	3.50	3.00	2.00	2.00	56.00	50% W
	Mgr SD	8.49	4.95	2.12	2.12	50% F
	Mgr N	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
										13
32	Emp M	7.60	5.33	3.00	2.50	2.50		2.00	39.60	17% W
	Emp SD	6.99	3.21	2.83	2.12	0.71		0.00	18.32	100% F
	Emp N	5	3	2	2	2		2	5	5
	Mgr M							47.00	100% latino	
	Mgr SD							.	100% M	
	Mgr N							1		1
										7

Field Sample Descriptive Statistics by Branch (con't)

Branch ID	Data Collected at Time 1									
	Yrs in Industry	Yrs with Company	Yrs in Current Job	Yrs in Current Position	Yrs in Current Branch	Yrs working for Current FCM/FCL	Yrs working for current ACM	Age	Race and Gender	Emp N (T2) Mgr N (T2) Branch size
33	Emp M	10.00	3.33	3.33	3.00	1.00	1.00	1.33	37.50	75% W
	Emp SD	2.83	4.04	4.04	2.83	0.00	0.00	0.58	21.92	75% F
	Emp N	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	2	4
	Mgr M	6.00	3.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		3.00	100% W	
	Mgr SD			100% M	
	Mgr N	1	1	1	1	1		1		1
										7
34	Emp M	5.00	3.33	3.67	3.33	3.00	1.00	1.00	27.00	100% W
	Emp SD	2.00	1.53	1.15	1.53	1.73	0.00	0.00	4.00	100% F
	Emp N	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
	Mgr M									
	Mgr SD									
	Mgr N									0
										4
Total	Emp M	9.65	7.31	5.79	4.88	5.31	3.34	3.39	36.29	
	Emp SD	8.78	6.85	5.50	4.61	5.46	3.91	3.42	12.65	
	Emp N	226	221	201	200	185	164	170	224	236
	Mgr M	12.35	8.68	7.12	4.82	5.18	3.73	3.48	40.24	
	Mgr SD	12.04	9.65	7.00	5.17	7.43	6.81	5.46	12.08	
	Mgr N	40	40	34	34	33	15	25	29	38

Notes:

Emp = employee M = male

Mgr = manager B=black

W = white

F = female

APPENDIX G

Time 1 Field Study Items

Part I Background

Job title/position

Name of the branch office where you primarily work

How many hours out of the week do you work *in this branch*?

How many total hours a week do you work?

Indicate the other branches where you work, along with the number of hours per week you work in each branch

How long have you worked in retail banking?

How long have you worked for ABC BANK?

How long have you held your current position (include time spent at ABC BANK and in similar positions in organizations)?

How long have you held your current position in ABC BANK?

How long have you worked in your current branch?

How long have you worked for or with your current FCM?

How long have you worked for or with your current AOM?

Ethnic Background (response set: Caucasian, African American, Latino, Asian/Pacific Islander, Native American, Other)

Gender (response set: Male, Female)

Age (write in response in years)

Part II – Your habits at work and perceptions of intelligence (Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)

Trait Goal Orientation (VandeWalle, 1997)

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills.
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.
6. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.
7. I'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworkers can.
8. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.
9. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.
10. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.
11. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear incompetent to others.
12. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.
13. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.

Implicit Theory of Intelligence (Dweck, 2000)

1. You have a certain amount of intelligence and you can't really do much to change it.
2. Your intelligence is something about you that you can't change very much.
3. To be honest, you can't really change how intelligent you are.
4. You can learn new things, but you can't really change your basic intelligence.

APPENDIX H

Time 2 Field Study Items (collected from employees)

Priority on Employee Development. **To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your FCM?** Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

My FCM:

1. actively coaches individual branch members on how to improve.
2. makes training available when branch members need it.
3. encourages branch members to participate in learning and development programs.
4. praises branch members when they take the initiative to learn something new.
5. rewards branch members when their performance improves.
6. facilitates the development of branch members.
7. treats mistakes as opportunities to learn something new.

Priority on Proving Performance. **To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your FCM?** Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

My FCM:

1. emphasizes the importance of outperforming others.
2. openly ranks branch members' performance on an ongoing basis.
3. encourages members within my branch to compete with one another.
4. rewards branch members when they outperform others within our branch.
5. spends time promoting branch member accomplishments to senior management.
6. reacts very strongly when our branch does not receive credit for its accomplishments.
7. emphasizes the importance of promoting a positive image of our branch's accomplishments to senior management.

Priority on Avoiding Mistakes. **To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your FCM?** Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

My FCM:

1. is highly critical when branch members don't perform well.
2. reprimands branch members when their performance does not meet expectations.
3. stresses the negative consequences of not performing well to branch members.
4. looks for who is to blame when branch performance is low.
5. emphasizes the importance of repairing the image of our branch when branch members don't perform well.
6. is very concerned with ensuring that our branch does not look bad to senior management.
7. believes it is a severe problem when senior management views our branch as under performing.

Leader-Member Exchange (Scandura & Graen, 1984)

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your relationship with your FCM? Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

1. I always know how satisfied my FCM is with what I do.
2. My FCM understands my problems and needs well enough.
3. My FCM recognizes my potential some but not enough.
4. My FCM would personally use his/her power to help me solve my work problems.
5. I can count on my FCM to bail me out at his/her expense when I really need it.
6. I have enough confidence in my FCM that I would defend and justify his/her behavior if he/she were not present to do so.
7. My working relationship with my FCM is extremely effective.

Climate for Learning. **To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your branch climate?** Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

In this branch...

1. Recognition is given to those who apply new knowledge and skills to their work.
2. Coworkers provide reliable information about ways to improve job performance.
3. Branch members are provided time to acquire and apply new knowledge and skills.
4. Continuous learning is supported and rewarded.
5. Branch member development is often discussed.
6. Branch members tell each other about new information that can be used to increase job performance.
7. Coworkers encourage each other to use new knowledge and skills on the job.
8. Branch members are provided information on developmental programs.
9. Branch member development is valued.
10. Coworkers consistently suggest to one another new work approaches based on their own experiences.

Climate for Proving Performance. **To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your branch climate?** Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

In this branch...

1. Recognition is given to those who outperform their coworkers.
2. Branch members actively compete against one another.
3. Branch members often determine how their performance stacks up against the performance of their coworkers.
4. Performing better than other branch members is supported and rewarded.
5. How branch members' performance compares with their coworkers' is often discussed.
6. Branch members are kept informed on how their performance compares to their coworkers'.
7. Branch members take every opportunity to promote their accomplishments to others.
8. Branch members routinely tell each other about their accomplishments to show a favorable image of their performance.
9. Branch members tell others outside the branch about their accomplishments to promote a favorable perception of their performance.
10. It is important to emphasize individual accomplishments.

Climate for Avoiding Mistakes. *To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements regarding your branch climate?* Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree

In this branch...

1. Reprimands for poor performance are given more often than recognition for good work.
2. Recognition is given for “not screwing up.”
3. Coworkers cover up for one another when their colleagues’ performance is lagging.
4. Branch member receive feedback only when their performance is unacceptable.
5. Discussions often focus on avoiding the perception that our branch performs poorly.
6. Avoiding responsibility for poor performance is common.
7. Branch members routinely avoid negative characterizations of their work.
8. Branch members manage the impressions of others to avoid negative perceptions of their performance.
9. Branch members often provide excuses, justifications, and apologies for poor performance.
10. It is important to avoid being perceived as a poor performer.

State Goal Orientation

Think about times during the past month when you have had to generate new business through your own initiative, either through expanding the services offered to existing clients or securing new clients. *To what extent did you do each of the following?*

Response scale 1=to a very little extent; 5=to a great extent

In generating new business during the past month, I tried to:

Prove

1. show others that I am good at generating new business.
2. demonstrate to others that I am one of the best in our branch at generating new business.
3. outperform others in generating new business.

Learn

4. learn alternative work strategies to generate new business.
5. continually improve my skills in generating new business.
6. put forth a great deal of effort to learn how to become better at generating new business.

Avoid

7. avoid being perceived as lacking the ability to generate new business.
8. make sure I didn’t reveal any incompetencies I might have in generating new business.
9. steer away from situations where I had to generate new business.

Think about times during the past month when a difficult client has come into your branch. ***To what extent did you do each of the following?*** Response scale 1=to a very little extent; 5=to a great extent

In handling difficult clients during the past month, I tried to:

Prove

1. show others that I am the best in our branch at handling difficult clients.
2. prove to others that I can effectively handle difficult clients.
3. outperform others in handling difficult clients.

Learn

4. learn how to better deal with tough clients.
5. improve my ability to deal with tough clients.
6. learn new strategies to handle difficult clients.

Avoid

7. avoid being perceived as lacking the ability to handle difficult clients.
8. make sure I didn't reveal any incompetencies I might have in handling difficult clients.
9. steer away from situations where I had to handle difficult clients.

Think about the branch meetings you have attended during the past month. ***To what extent did you do each of the following?*** Response scale 1=to a very little extent; 5=to a great extent

In meetings during the past month, I tried to:

Prove

1. highlight my accomplishments.
2. show others that I am good at my job.
3. make it a point to talk about how I am doing a good job.

Learn

4. learn from others how to improve my performance.
5. look for opportunities to learn something new.
6. learn about different work approaches or strategies that could help me be more effective in my job.

Avoid

7. avoid saying something that might make me look stupid or foolish.
8. make sure I didn't come across as incompetent.
9. stay out of discussions on topics that I am less knowledgeable about.

APPENDIX I

Time 2 Field Study Items (collected from managers)

Individual-level outcomes. Response scale 1=strongly disagree; 6=strongly agree

This employee...

Use of Learning Strategies (adapted from Ashford, 1986; Spreitzer et al., 1997)

1. Seeks feedback from others on how to improve his/her work performance.
2. Seeks out training and development opportunities to learn new skills and knowledge.
3. Engages in role play to learn how to handle different work-related situations.

Task Performance (adapted from Williams & Anderson, 1991)

4. Effectively completes assigned duties.
5. Effectively performs tasks that are expected of him/her.
6. Fails to effectively perform essential duties.

Avoiding Blame (adapted from Ashforth & Lee, 1990)

7. Avoids accepting blame if he/she failed to do a good job.
8. Assigns blame to external factors if his/her work performance did not meet expectations.
9. Provides excuses for his/her performance if he/she failed to do a good job.

APPENDIX J
Factor Loadings for Leader Priority Items (FCM)

		Factor Loadings		
	I	II	III	
<i>My FCM:</i>				
actively coaches individual branch members on how to improve.	.006	<u>.756</u>		-.019
makes training available when branch members need it.	.001	<u>.813</u>		.041
encourages branch members to participate in learning and development programs ⁱ .	.125	<u>.805</u>		.139
praises branch members when they take the initiative to learn something new.	-.023	<u>.830</u>		-.115
rewards branch members when their performance improves.	-.070	<u>.767</u>		-.145
facilitates the development of branch members.	-.037	<u>.870</u>		-.019
treats mistakes as opportunities to learn something new.	.013	<u>.838</u>		-.015
emphasizes the importance of outperforming others.	.090		-.137	<u>-.711</u>
openly ranks branch members' performance on an ongoing basis.	-.039		.016	<u>-.800</u>
encourages members within my branch to compete with one another.	.022		-.114	<u>-.853</u>
rewards branch members when they outperform others within our branch.	-.058		.061	<u>-.846</u>
spends time promoting branch member accomplishments to senior management.+	.046		.322	<u>-.561</u>
reacts very strongly when our branch does not receive credit for its accomplishments.+	<u>.437</u>		.084	-.397
emphasizes the importance of promoting a positive image of our branch's accomplishments to senior management.+	<u>.405</u>		.216	-.373
is highly critical when branch members don't perform well.		<u>.649</u>		-.073
reprimands branch members when their performance does not meet expectations ⁱⁱ		<u>.767</u>		-.053
stresses the negative consequences of not performing well to branch members.		<u>.724</u>		-.048
looks for who is to blame when branch performance is low.+		<u>.531</u>		-.049
emphasizes the importance of repairing the image of our branch when branch members		<u>.726</u>		-.010

don't perform well.			
is very concerned with ensuring that our branch does not look bad to senior management.	<u>.807</u>	.174	.051
believes it is a severe problem when senior management views our branch as under performing.	<u>.784</u>	.164	-.020
Intercorrelation (Factor 1)		-.047	-.465
Intercorrelation (Factor 2)			-.161

+ Items recommended for deletion

Factor Loadings Branch Climate Items

	Factor Loadings	I	II	III
<i>In this branch:</i>				
Recognition is given to those who apply new knowledge and skills to their work	<u>-.595</u>	.132	-.101	
Coworkers provide reliable information about ways to improve job performance. ⁱⁱⁱ	<u>-.645</u>	.016	-.002	
Branch members are provided time to acquire and apply new knowledge and skills.	<u>-.612</u>	.073	-.175	
Continuous learning is supported and rewarded.	<u>-.724</u>	.069	-.176	
Branch member development is often discussed.	<u>-.686</u>	.082	-.103	
Branch members tell each other about new information that can be used to increase job performance. ⁱⁱⁱ	<u>-.746</u>	-.141	.171	
Coworkers encourage each other to use new knowledge and skills on the job. ⁱⁱⁱ	<u>-.838</u>	-.126	.142	
Branch members are provided information on developmental programs.	<u>-.640</u>	.047	-.151	
Branch member development is valued.	<u>-.766</u>	.012	-.121	
Coworkers consistently suggest to one another new work approaches based on their own experiences. ⁱⁱⁱ	<u>-.775</u>	-.003	.045	
Recognition is given to those who outperform their coworkers.	-.057	<u>.704</u>	-.036	
Branch members actively compete against one another.	.149	<u>.742</u>	-.042	
Branch members often determine how their performance stacks up against the performance of their coworkers.	.120	<u>.764</u>	-.075	
Performing better than other branch members is supported and rewarded.	.044	<u>.816</u>	-.107	
How branch members' performance compares with their coworkers' is often discussed.	.155	<u>.804</u>	-.074	
Branch members are kept informed on how their performance compares to their coworkers'.	-.022	<u>.749</u>	-.033	
Branch members take every opportunity to promote their accomplishments to others.	-.142	<u>.730</u>	.144	
Branch members routinely tell each other about their accomplishments to show a favorable image of their performance.	-.091	<u>.629</u>	.236	
Branch members tell others outside the branch about their accomplishments to promote a favorable perception of their performance.	-.216	<u>.556</u>	.215	
It is important to emphasize individual accomplishments.	-.105	<u>.564</u>	.101	
Reprimands for poor performance are given more often than recognition for good work.+	<u>.477</u>	.009	.354	
Recognition is given for "not screwing up."	.127	.147	<u>.425</u>	

Coworkers cover up for one another when their colleagues' performance is lagging.	-.039	-.012	<u>.560</u>
Branch member receive feedback only when their performance is unacceptable.+	.394	.019	<u>.464</u>
Discussions often focus on avoiding the perception that our branch performs poorly.	.174	.035	<u>.601</u>
Avoiding responsibility for poor performance is common.	.280	.026	<u>.569</u>
Branch members routinely avoid negative characterizations of their work.	-.037	.022	<u>.781</u>
Branch members manage the impressions of others to avoid negative perceptions of their performance.	.001	-.048	<u>.800</u>
Branch members often provide excuses, justifications, and apologies for poor performance.	.056	.037	<u>.658</u>
It is important to avoid being perceived as a poor performer.+	-.011	.218	<u>.254</u>
Intercorrelation (Factor 1)		-.028	.365
Intercorrelation (Factor 2)			.256

+ Items recommended for deletion

ⁱ Adapted from Maurer & Taurelli (1994)

ⁱⁱ Adapted from Pearce & Sims (2000)

ⁱⁱⁱ Adapted from Tracey et. al (1995)

REFERENCES

- Abbey, A. & Dickson, J.W. (1983). R&D work climate and innovation in semiconductors. Academy of Management Journal, 26, 362-368.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology Vol. 2, (pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.
- Aiken, L.S. & West, S.G. (1996). Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ames, C., & Archer, J. (1988). Achievement goals in the classroom: Students' learning strategies and motivational processes. Journal of Educational Psychology, 80, 260-267.
- Ancona, D.G. & Caldwell, D.F. (1992). Bridging the boundary: External activity and performance in organizational teams. Administrative Science Quarterly, 37, 634-665.
- Ashford, S.J. (1986). Feedback-seeking in individual adaptation: A resource perspective. Academy of Management Journal, 29, 465-487.
- Ashforth, B.E. (1985). Climate formation: Issues and extensions. Academy of Management Review, 10, 837-847.
- Ashforth, B.E. & Lee, R.T. (1990). Defensive behavior in organizations: A preliminary model. Human Relations, 43, 621-648.
- Avolio, B.J. & Yammarino, F.J. (1990). Operationalizing charismatic leadership using a levels of analysis framework. Leadership Quarterly, 1, 193-208.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social-cognitive view. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of self-control. New York: W.H. Freeman.

- Barling, J., Loughlin, C. & Kelloway, E.K. (2002). Development and test of a model linking safety-specific transformational leadership and occupational safety. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 488-496.
- Baron, R.M. & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51, 1173-1182.
- Bass, B.M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). Bass & Stogdill handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications (3rd Ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Basu, R. & Green, S.G. (1997). Leader-member exchange and transformational leadership: An empirical examination of innovative behaviors in leader-member dyads. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 27, 477-499.
- Bell, B.S. & Kozlowski, S.W.J. (2002). Goal orientation and ability: Interactive effects on self-efficacy, performance and knowledge. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 497-505.
- Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders. New York: Harper & Row.
- Blau, P. (1964). Exchange and power in social life. New York: Wiley.
- Bliese, P.D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K.J. Klein and S.W.J. Kozlowski (Eds.), Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions and new directions (pp. 349-381). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Brett, J.F. & Vandewalle, D. (1999). Goal orientation and goal content as predictors of performance in a training program. Journal of Applied Psychology, 84, 863-873.
- Brown, K.G. (2001). Using computers to deliver training: which employees learn and why? Personnel Psychology, 54, 271-296.
- Burke, L.A. & Baldwin, T.T. (1999). Workforce training transfer: A study of the effect of relapse prevention training and training climate. Human Resource Management, 38, 227-242.
- Burke, M.J., Borucki, C.C. & Hurley, A.E. (1992). Reconceptualizing psychological climate in retail service environment: A multiple-stakeholder perspective. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 717-729.
- Butler, R. (1993). Effects of task- and ego-achievement goals on information-seeking during task engagement. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65, 18-31.
- Button, S.B., Mattieu, J.E., & Zajac, D.M. (1996). Goal orientation in organizational research: A conceptual and empirical foundation. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 67, 26-48.
- Byrne, B.M. (1994). Structural equation modeling with EQS and EQS/Windows: Basic concepts, applications, and programming. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Chen, G., Gully, S.M., Whitman, J., & Kilcullen, R.N. (2000). Examination of relationships among trait-like individual differences, state-like individual differences, and learning performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 835-847.
- Cohen, S.G. & Bailey, D.E. (1997). What makes teams work: Group effectiveness research from the shop floor to the executive suite. Journal of Management, 23, 239-290.

Colquitt, J.S., & Simmering, M.J. (1998). Conscientiousness, goal orientation, and motivation to learn during the learning process: A longitudinal study. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 654-665.

Dansereau, F., Cashman, J., & Graen, G. (1973). Instrumentality theory and equity theory as complementary approaches in predicting the relationship of leadership and turnover among managers. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 10, 184-200.

Dienesch, R.M. & Liden, R.C. (1986). Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. Academy of Management Review, 11, 618-634.

Drexler, J.A., Jr. (1977). Organizational climate: Its homogeneity within organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, 38-42.

Dubin, S.S. (1990). Maintaining competence through updating. In S.L. Willis & S.S. Dubin (Eds.), Maintaining professional competence (pp. 9-43). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Durham, C.C., Knight, D. & Locke, E.A. (1997). Effects of leader role, team-set goal difficulty, efficacy, and tactics on team effectiveness. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 72, 203-231.

Dweck, C. S. (1986). Motivational processes affecting learning. American Psychologist, 41, 1040-1048.

Dweck, C.S. (2000). Self-theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Dweck, C.S. & Leggett, E.L. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. Psychological Review, 95, 256-273.

- Eden, D. (1992). Leadership and expectations: Pygmalion effects and other self-fulfilling prophecies in organizations. Leadership Quarterly, 3, 271-305.
- Eden, D., Geller, D., Gewirtz, A., Gordon-Terner, R., Liverman, M., Pass, Y., Salomon-Segev, I. & Shalit, M. (2000). Implanting Pygmalion leadership style through workshop training: Seven field experiments. Leadership Quarterly, 11, 171-210.
- Edmondson, A.C. (1996). Learning from mistakes is easier said than done: Group and organizational influences on the detection and correction of human error. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 32, 5-28.
- Edmondson, A. (1999). Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. Administrative Science Quarterly, 44, 350-383.
- Elliot, A.J. & Church, M.A. (1997). A hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72, 218-232.
- Elliot, A.J. & Harackiewicz, J.M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A mediational analysis. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70, 461-475.
- Elliot, A.J. & McGregor, H.A. (1999). Test anxiety and the hierarchical model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76, 628-644.
- Elliott, E.S. & Dweck, C.S. (1988). Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54, 5-12.
- Fisher, S.L. & Ford, K.J. (1998). Differential effects of learner effort and goal orientation on two learning outcomes. Personnel Psychology, 51, 397-420.
- Ford, J.K., Quinones, M.A., Sego, D.J. & Sorra, J.S. (1992). Factors affecting the opportunity to perform trained tasks on the job. Personnel Psychology, 45, 511-527.

- Ford, J.K. Smith, E.M., Weissbin, D.A., Gully, S.M., & Salas, E. (1998). Relationships of goal orientation, metacognitive activity, and practice strategies with learning outcomes and transfer. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 218-233.
- Gardner, W.L. & Avolio, B.J. (1998). The charismatic relationship: A dramaturgical perspective. Academy of Management Review, 23, 32-58.
- Gagne, R.M., Briggs, L.J., & Wager, W.W. (1992). Principles of instructional design. Philadelphia: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Gerstner, C.R. & Day, D.V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 827-844.
- Gonzalez-Roma, V., Peiro, J.M., & Tordera, N. (2002). An examination of the antecedents and moderator influences of climate strength. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 465-473.
- Graen, G. (1975). Role making processes within complex organizations. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Graen, G. & Cashman, J.F. (1975). A role-making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J.G. Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership Frontiers (pp. 143-165). Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.
- Graen, G., Novak, M.A., & Sommerkamp, P. (1982). The effects of leader-member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: Testing a dual attachment model. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 30, 109-131.
- Graen, G. & Schiemann, W. (1978). Leader-member agreement: A vertical dyad linkage approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 206-212.

- Graen, G.B. & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. Leadership Quarterly, 6, 219-247.
- Griffin, M.A. & Neal, A. (2000). Perceptions of safety at work: A framework for linking safety climate to safety performance, knowledge, and motivation. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5, 347-258.
- Hall, D.T. (2002). Careers In (and Out) of Organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Foundations of Organization Science Series.
- Hall, D.T. & Mirvis, P.H. (1996). The new protean career: Psychological success and the path with a heart. In D.T. Hall (Ed.), The Career is Dead: Long live the Career (pp. 15-45). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Harackiewicz, J.M. & Elliot, A.J. (1993). Achievement goals and intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65, 904-915.
- Heyman, G.D. & Dweck, C.S. (1992). Achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: Their relation and their role in adaptive motivation. Motivation and Emotion, 16, 231-247.
- Hofmann, D.A. & Gavin, M.B. (1998). Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. Journal of Management, 24, 623-641.
- Hofmann, D.A., Griffin, M.A. & Gavin, M.B. (2000). The application of hierarchical linear modeling to organizational research. In K.J. Klein and S.W.J. Kozlowski (Eds.), Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions and new directions (pp. 467-511). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hofmann, D.A., Morgeson, F.P., & Gerras, S.J. (2003). Climate as a moderator of the relationship between leader-member exchange and content-specific citizenship behavior: Safety climate as an exemplar. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88, 170-178.

Hofmann, D.A. & Stetzer, A. (1996). A cross-level investigation of factors influencing unsafe behaviors and accidents. Personnel Psychology, 49, 307-339.

Hofmann, D.A. & Stetzer, A. (1998). The role of safety climate and communication in accident interpretation: Implications for learning from negative events. Academy of Management Journal, 41, 644-657.

Hofmann, D.A., Jacobs, R. & Landy, F. (1995). High reliability process industries: Individual, micro, and macro organizational influences on safety performance. Journal of Safety Research, 26, 131-149.

House, R.J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 16, 321-340.

Howard, A. (1995). A framework for work change. In A. Howard (Ed.), The Changing Nature of Work (pp. 3-44). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Howe, J.G. (1977). Group climate: An exploratory analysis of construct validity. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 19, 106-125.

Howell, J.M. & Hall-Merenda, K.E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader-member exchange, transformational, and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 84, 680-694.

- James, L.R., Demaree, R.G. & Wolf, G. (1984). Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 85-99.
- Jones, A.P. & James, L.R. (1979). Psychological climate: Dimensions and relationships of individual and aggregated work environment perceptions. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 23, 201-250.
- Joyce, W.F. & Slocum, J.W., Jr. (1984). Collective climate: Agreement as a basis for defining aggregate climates in organizations. Academy of Management Journal, 27, 721-742.
- Judge, T.A., Erez, A., Bono, J.E., & Thoresen, C.J. (2003). The core self-evaluations scale: Development of a measure. Personnel Psychology, 56, 303-331.
- Katzenbach, J.R. & Smith, D.K. (1993). The wisdom of teams: Creating the high-performance organization. New York: Harper Books.
- Kopelman, R.E., Brief, A.P., Guzzo, R.A. (1990). The role of climate and culture in productivity. In B. Schneider (Ed.), Organizational climate and culture (pp. 282-318). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kotter, J.P. (1982). The general managers. New York: Free Press.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J. & Doherty, M.L. (1989). Integration of climate and leadership: Examination of a neglected issue. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 546-553.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J. & Farr, J.L. (1988). An integrative model of updating and performance. Human Performance, 1, 5-29.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J., Gully, S.M., Brown, K.G., Salas, E., Smith, E.M., & Nason, E.R. (2001). Effects of training goals and goal orientation traits on multidimensional training outcomes and performance adaptability. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 85, 1-31.

- Kozlowski, S.W.J., Gully, S.M., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J.A. (1996). Team leadership and development: Theory, principles and guidelines for training leaders and teams. In M.M. Beyerlein, D.A. Johnson, & S.T. Beyerlein (Eds.), Advances in Interdisciplinary Study of Work Teams: Team Leadership, Vol. 3, (pp. 253-292). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J. & Hattrup, K. (1992). A disagreement about within-group agreement: Disentangling issues of consistency versus consensus. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 161-167.
- Kozlowski, S.W.J. & Hults, B.M. (1987). An exploration of climates for technical updating and performance. Personnel Psychology, 40, 539-563.
- Kram, K.E. (1985). Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.
- Lennox, R.D. & Wolfe, R.N. (1984). Revision on the self-monitoring scale. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46, 1349-1364.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. & White, R.K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created “social climates.” Journal of Social Psychology, 10, 271-299.
- Lindell, M.K. & Brandt, C.J. (2000). Climate quality and climate consensus as mediators of the relationship between organizational antecedents and outcomes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 331-348.
- Liden, R.C., Sparrowe, R.T., & Wayne, S.J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management, 15, 47-119.
- Likert, R. (1967). The human organization: Its management and value. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Locke, E.A. & Latham, G.P. (1990). A theory of goal setting and task performance. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Longnecker, C.O., Sims, H.P., Jr., & Gioia, D.A. (1987). Behind the mask: The politics of employee appraisal. Academy of Management Executive, 1, 183-193.
- Mangos, P.M. & Steele-Johnson, D. (2001). The role of subjective task complexity in goal orientation, self-efficacy, and performance relations. Human Performance, 14, 169-186.
- Manz, C.C. & Sims, Jr., H.P. (1987). Leading workers to lead themselves: The external leadership of self-managing work teams. Administrative Science Quarterly, 32, 106-128.
- Manz, C.C. & Sims, H.P. Jr. (1992). SuperLeadership: Beyond the myth of heroic leadership. Organizational Dynamics, 199, 18-35.
- Maurer, T.J. & Tarulli, B.A. (1994). Investigation of perceived environment, perceived outcome, and person variables in relationship to voluntary developmental activity by employees. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 3-14.
- McCall, M.W., Jr., Lombardo, M.M. & Morrison, A.M. (1988). The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the job. New York: Free Press.
- McCauley, C.D., Ruderman, M.N., Ohlott, P.J., & Morrow, J.E. (1994). Assessing the developmental components of managerial jobs. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 544-560.
- McClelland, D.C., Atkinson, J.W., Clark, R.A. & Lowell, E.L. (1953). The achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.
- McGregor, D. (1960). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw Hill.

Middleton, M.J. & Midgley, C. (1997). Avoiding the demonstration of lack of ability: An underexplored aspect of goal theory. Journal of Educational Psychology, 4, 710-718.

Mischel, W. (1977). The interaction of person and situation. In D. Magnusson & N.S. Endler (Eds.), Personality at the crossroads. (pp. 333-352). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Morrison, R.F., & Brantner, T.M. (1992). What enhances or inhibits learning a new job? A basic career issue. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 926-940.

Neal, A., Griffin, M.A. & Hart, P.M. (2000). The impact of organizational climate on safety climate and individual behavior. Safety Science, 34, 99-109.

Nicholls, J.G. (1984). Achievement motivation: conceptions of ability, subjective experience, task choice, and performance. Psychological Review, 91, 328-346.

Noe, R.A. & Wilk, S.L. (1993). Investigation of the factors that influence employees' participation in development activities. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 291-302.

Ostroff, C. (1993). The effects of climate and personal influences on individual behavior and attitudes in organization. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 45, 56-90.

Ostroff, C. & Bowen, D.E. (2000). Moving HR to a higher level: HR practices and organizational effectiveness. In K.J. Klein and S.W.J. Kozlowski (Eds.), Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions and new directions (pp. 211-267). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Payne, R.L. & Pugh, D.S. (1976). Organizational structure and climate. In M.D. Dunnette (ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1125-1173). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Pearce, C.L. & Sims, H.P., Jr. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 6, 172-197.

Porter, R.M., Porter, L.W. & Bigley, G.A. (1996). Models of leadership. In R.M. Steers, L.W. Porter, & G.A. Bigley (Eds.), Motivation and Leadership at Work (6th ed., pp. 166-185). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Phillips, J.M. & Gully, S.M. (1997). Role of goal orientation, ability, need for achievement, and locus of control in the self-efficacy and goal-setting process. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 792-802.

Potosky, D. & Ramakrishna, H.V. (2002). The moderating role of updating climate perceptions in the relationship between goal orientation, self-efficacy, and job performance. Human Performance, 15, 275-297.

Powell, G.N. & Butterfield, D.A. (1978). The case for subsystem climates in organizations. Academy of Management Review, 3, 151-157.

Pritchard, R.D. & Karasick, B.W. (1973). The effects of organizational climate on managerial job performance and job satisfaction. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 9, 126-146.

Random House (1998). Random House Webster's Dictionary (3rd Ed.). New York: Ballantine Books.

Rentsch, J.R. (1990). Climate and culture: Interaction and qualitative differences in organizational meaning. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 668-681.

Rosow, J.M. & Zager, R. (1988). Training: The competitive edge. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Rouiller, J.Z. & Goldstein, I.L. (1993). The relationship between organizational transfer climate and positive transfer of training. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 4, 377-390.
- Scandura, T.A. & Graen, G.B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention. Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 428-436.
- Scandura, T.A. & Schriesheim, C.A. (1994). Leader-member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. Academy of Management Journal, 37, 1588-1602.
- Schein, E.A. (1992). Organizational culture and leadership (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schmidt, A.M., Chambers, B.A., Kozlowski, S.W.J., & DeShon, R.P. (2001). Can I do it and do I care? Examining the antecedents to state goal orientation. In K.A. Smith-Jentsch & L. Rhodenizer (Chairs), When do learning and performance orientations enhance learning outcomes? Symposium presented at the 16th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego, CA.
- Schneider, B. (1975). Organizational Climates: An essay. Personnel Psychology, 28, 447-479.
- Schneider, B. (1983). Interactional psychology and organizational behavior. In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior, Vol. 5 (pp. 1-31). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. Personnel Psychology, 40, 437-454.

Schneider, B. (1990). The climate for service: An application of the climate construct. In B. Schneider (Ed.), Organizational climate and culture (pp. 383-412). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, B., Ehrhart, M.G., Mayer, D.M. & Saltz, J.L. (2002). Toward a multi-faceted mediated model of organizational-customer relationships in service settings. Working Paper: University of Maryland, College Park.

Schneider, B. & Reichers, A.E. (1983). On the etiology of climates. Personnel Psychology, 36, 19-39.

Schneider, B., Salvaggio, A.N. & Subirats, M. (2002). Climate strength: A new direction for climate research. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 220-229.

Schneider, B., White, S.S. & Paul, M.C. (1998). Linking service climate and customer perceptions of service quality: Test of a causal model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 150-163.

Schriesheim, C.A., Castro, S.L. & Cogliser, C.C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic practices. Leadership Quarterly, 10, 63-110.

Schriesheim, C.A., Castro, S.L. & Yammarino, F.J. (2000). Investigating contingencies: An examination of the impact of span of supervision and upward controllingness on leader-member exchange using traditional and multivariate within- and between-entities analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 659-677.

Scott, S.G. & Bruce, R.A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. Academy of Management Journal, 37, 580-608.

Shamir, B., House, R.J., & Arthur, M.B. (1996). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. In R.M. Steers, L.W. Porter, & G.A. Bigley (Eds.), Motivation and Leadership at Work (6th ed., pp. 213-233). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sitkin, S.B. (1992). Learning through failure: The strategy of small losses. In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), Research in Organizational Behavior, Vol. 14 (pp. 231-266). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Smith-Jentsch, K.A., Salas, E., & Brannick, M.T. (2001). To transfer or not to transfer? Investigating the combined effects of trainee characteristics, team leader support, and team climate. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 279-292.

Smith-Jentsch, K.A., Van Duyne, L.R., & Reynolds, A.M. (2001). The moderating effect of leader goals on the relationship between team member traits and states during training. In K.A. Smith-Jentsch & L. Rhodenizer (Chairs), When do learning and performance orientations enhance learning outcomes? Symposium presented at the 16th Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Diego, CA.

Solomon, E.E. (1986). Private and public sector managers: An empirical investigation of job characteristics and organizational climate. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 247-259.

Sparrowe, R.T. & Liden, R.C. (1997). Process and structure in leader-member exchange. Academy of Management Review, 22, 522-552.

Spreitzer, G.M., McCall, M.W., & Mahoney, J.D. (1997). Early identification of international executive potential. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 6-29.

- Steele-Johnson, D., Beauregard, R.S., Hoover, P.B., & Schmidt, A.M. 2000. Goal orientation and task demands effects on motivation, affect, and performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 724-738.
- Stevens, C.K. & Gist, M.E. (1997). Effects of self-efficacy and goal-orientation training on negotiation skill maintenance: What are the mechanisms? Personnel Psychology, 50, 955-978.
- Stevens, C.K. & Kristof, A.L. (1995). Making the right impression: A field study of applicant impression management during job interviews. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 587-606.
- Tagiuri, R. & Litwin, G.H. (Eds). (1968). Organizational climate: Explorations of a concept. Cambridge, MA: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University.
- Tepper, B.J. (1995). Upward maintenance tactics in supervisory mentoring and nonmentoring relationships. Academy of Management Journal, 38, 1191-1205.
- Tesluk, P.E., Farr, J.L., Mathieu, J.E. & Vance, R.J. (1995). Generalization of employee involvement training to the job setting: Individual and situational effects. Personnel Psychology, 607-632.
- Tesluk, P.E., Vance, R.J., & Mathieu, J.E. (1999). Examining employee involvement in the context of participative work environments. Group and Organization Management, 24, 271-299.
- Tierney, P., Farmer, S.M. & Graen, G.B. (1999). An examination of leadership and employee creativity: The relevance of traits and relationships. Personnel Psychology, 52, 591-620.

Towler, A.J. & Dipboye, R.L. (2001). Effects of trainer expressiveness, organization, and trainee goal orientation on training outcomes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 664-673.

Tracey, J.B., Tannenbaum, S.I. & Kavanagh, M.J. (1995). Applying trained skills on the job: The importance of the work environment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 239-252.

Turnley, W.H. & Bolino, M.C. (2001). Achieving desired images while avoiding undesirable images: Exploring the role of self-monitoring in impression management. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 351-360.

Valle, M. (1997). Perceptions of organizational politics and subsequent behaviors. Psychological Reports, 81, 945-946.

VandeWalle, D. (1997). Development and validation of a work domain goal orientation instrument. Journal of Educational and Psychological Measurement, 57, 995-1015.

VandeWalle, D. & Cummings, L.L. (1997). A test of the influence of goal orientation in the feedback seeking process. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 390-400.

VandeWalle, D., Brown, S.P., Cron, B., & Slocum, J. (1999). The influence of goal orientation and self-regulation tactics on sales performance: A longitudinal field test. Journal of Applied Psychology, 84, 863-873.

VandeWalle, D., Cron, B. & Slocum, J. (2001). The role of goal orientation following performance feedback. Journal of Applied Psychology, 86, 629-641.

VanVelsor, E., McCauley, C.D. & Moxley, R.S. (1998). Our view of leadership development. In E. VanVelsor, C.D. McCauley, & R.S. Moxley (Eds.), Handbook of Leadership Development (pp. 1-25). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Vecchio, R. (1982). A further test of leadership effects due to between-group variation and within-group variation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, 200-208.
- Vroom, V. (1964). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.
- Weiss, H.M. (1990). Learning theory and industrial and organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette and L.M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (Vol. 1, pp. 171-221). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Weiss, H.M. & Adler, S. (1984). Personality and organizational behavior. In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior, Vol. 6 (pp. 1-50). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Williams, L.J. & Anderson, S.E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17, 601-617.
- Wren, D.A. (1979). Evolution of management thought (2nd Ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Wright, C. (1986). Routine deaths: Fatal accidents in the oil industry. Sociological Review, 4, 265-289.
- Zaccaro, S.J. & Marks, M.A. (1999). The roles of leaders in high-performance teams. In E. Sundstrom & Associates (Eds.), Supporting work team effectiveness, (pp. 95-125). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Zohar, D. (1980). Safety climate in industrial organizations: Theoretical and applied implications. Journal of Applied Psychology, 65, 96-102.
- Zohar, D. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: Testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents on manufacturing jobs. Journal of Applied Psychology, 85, 587-596.

Zohar, D. & Luria, G. (2004). Climate as a social-cognitive construction of supervisory safety practices: Scripts as proxy of behavior patterns. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89, 322-333.
