



8-17-2012

Effects of Goal Orientation Profile Types on Organizational Outcomes in Veterinarians

Kathleen Arnold

DePaul University, KATIE.ARNOLD@BANFIELD.NET

Recommended Citation

Arnold, Kathleen, "Effects of Goal Orientation Profile Types on Organizational Outcomes in Veterinarians" (2012). *College of Science and Health Theses and Dissertations*. Paper 24.

http://via.library.depaul.edu/csh_etd/24

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the College of Science and Health at Via Sapientiae. It has been accepted for inclusion in College of Science and Health Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Via Sapientiae. For more information, please contact mbernal2@depaul.edu, MHESS8@depaul.edu.

EFFECTS OF GOAL ORIENTATION PROFILE TYPES ON
ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES IN VETERINARIANS

Doctoral Dissertation

Presented to

the Department of Psychology

DePaul University

BY

KATHLEEN MARIE ARNOLD

MAY 17, 2012

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

Douglas F. Cellar, Ph. D.

Chairperson

Alice F. Stuhlmacher, Ph.D.

Jane Halpert, Ph.D.

Kenneth Fidel, Ph.D.

Erich C. Dierdorff, Ph.D.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my genuine gratitude towards my thesis chair, Douglas F. Cellar, and committee members, Alice Stuhlmacher and Jane Halpert for their support throughout this project.

VITA

The author was born in Spokane, Washington, May 11, 1981. She graduated from Gonzaga Preparatory School and received her Bachelor of Arts in Psychology, with a minor in Business Administration, from the University of Portland in 2003. She received her Master of Arts in Industrial/Organizational Psychology from DePaul University in 2006.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dissertation Committee.....	ii
Acknowledgments.....	.iii
Vita.....	iv
List of Tables.....	vii
List of Figures.....	viii
CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Motivation.....	3
Context/Content.....	4
Goals.....	6
Needs.....	6
Personality.....	8
Goal Orientation.....	9
History of Goal Orientation.....	10
Learning Goal Orientation.....	17
Performance Goal Orientation.....	19
Work Avoidance.....	22
Person-Centered Research.....	23
Relationships with Outcome and Affective Variables.....	28
Performance.....	28
Job Satisfaction.....	31
Self-Efficacy.....	32
Organizational Commitment.....	35

Rationale.....	36
Statement of Hypotheses.....	40
CHAPTER II: METHOD.....	44
Research Participants.....	44
Measures.....	46
Goal Orientation.....	46
Work Avoidance.....	46
Satisfaction.....	46
Self-Efficacy.....	47
Organizational Commitment.....	47
Performance.....	48
Tenure.....	49
Procedure.....	49
CHAPTER III. RESULTS.....	51
Variable-Centered Approach.....	51
Person-Centered Approach.....	55
Person-Centered Approach versus Variable-Centered.....	66
CHAPTER IV. DISCUSSION.....	72
Variable-Centered Approach.....	72
Person-Centered Approach.....	79
Comparing Variable-Centered versus Person-Centered Approach.....	80
Implications.....	81
Limitations.....	82

Conclusions.....	83
CHAPTER V. SUMMARY.....	85
References.....	87
Appendix A. Goal Orientation Scale Items	103
Appendix B. Work Avoidance Scale Items.....	104
Appendix C. Satisfaction Scale Items.....	105
Appendix D. Self-Efficacy Scale Items.....	106
Appendix E. Organizational Commitment Scale Items.....	107

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Frequencies and Percentages of Participant Demographics.....	45
Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations of Variables.....	52
Table 3. Regression of Goal Orientation Dimensions onto Relevant Dependent Variables.....	56
Table 4. Mean Goal Orientation Dimension Scores for Groups Identified through K-means Cluster Analysis.....	59
Table 5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Differences Between Clusters on Outcome Variables.....	62
Table 6. Regression of Goal Orientation Cluster Type Dummy Codes onto Relevant Dependent Variables.....	64
Table 7. Comparison of Goal Orientation Dimension and Cluster Multiple Correlation Coefficients.....	67
Table 8. Hierarchical Regression of Goal Orientation Dimension and Cluster Type onto Relevant Dependent Variables.....	68
Table 9. Summary of Results of Hypotheses.....	73

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Cluster Means for Goal Orientation Dimensions Compared.....60

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organizations are continually seeking to understand determinants of employee performance to improve organizational success. In addition to ability, motivation is seen as a primary influence on performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). One influence on motivation is employee personality or individual differences; which may affect employee attitudes and behaviors. Goal orientation, dispositional or situational goal preferences in achievement situations, may affect the way that individuals interpret motivation and affect performance in the workplace (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). This same research shows that employee goal orientation can affect how goals are set, employee interpretation and response to performance appraisal systems, and the influence of training on employee performance. Differences in goal orientation have been shown to be related to employee performance, satisfaction, and self-efficacy (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Cellar, Stuhlmacher, Young, Fisher, Twichell, Haynes, Adair, Arnold, Palmer, Denning, & Riester, 2011; Chen, Gully, Whiteman, & Kilcullen, 2000; Day Radosevich, & Chasteen, 2003; Kozlowski, Gully, Brown, Salas, Smith, & Nason, 2001; Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007; Phillips & Gully, 1997; VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum, 1999; VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001; VanYperen & Janssen, 2002; Wang & Takeuchi, 2007). The previously mentioned variables have been found to be significantly correlated with one or several of the three different dimensions of goal orientation as follows: mastery or learning goal

orientation, performance approach goal orientation, and performance avoidance goal orientation.

Still, the nature of these relationships in the context of a whole person with varying levels of each dimension, using a goal orientation profile from all three dimensions, has not been fully explored. Goal orientation profiles have recently been examined in education settings with students (e.g., Dina & Efklides, 2009; Tuominen-Soini, Salmela-Aro, & Niemivirta, 2011). Still, several recent summaries of the literature have identified dimensional profiles as an area of goal orientation research in need of further examination (e.g., Cellar et al., 2011; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Payne et al., 2007). VanYperen and Janssen (2002) found that specific goal orientation profiles affected satisfaction when job demands were increased. These findings show that goal orientation profiles may provide additional information about relationships with outcome and affective variables to that provided by the isolated relationships with each goal orientation dimension. In addition, Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996) describe the benefits of high levels of different dimensions of goal orientation and mention a profile that might be maladaptive. Also, Arnold (2006) found evidence of four consistent profiles of goal orientation and found that these were significant predictors of performance, self-efficacy, and satisfaction. The purpose of the present study is to verify these common profile types of goal orientation in a workplace setting, and determine whether these types predict levels of performance, satisfaction, self-efficacy, and commitment in a workplace setting.

Motivation

Motivation, or part of the reason why people behave the way they do, is a primary interest in the workplace (e.g., Latham & Pinder, 2005). Motivation can be defined as a set of energetic forces that originate both within and outside of an individual and determine the form, direction, intensity, and duration of behavior (Pinder, 1998). For example, motivation might create energy towards the behavior of being a successful veterinarian. But, motivation will also determine the preferred form of success, in which work setting, with what level of commitment to the work, and for how long. Due to the many effects of motivation on behavior, it is no mystery there has been so much effort made towards illuminating this topic.

Beyond determining actions, motivation has some additional effects that are also important to understanding human behavior. According to Mitchell and Daniels (2003), motivation has four effects related to specific behavior. First, motivation focuses attention on the task at hand. Second, motivation results in effort towards its objective. Third, motivation produces persistence towards completion. And lastly, motivation leads to the creation of task strategies implemented to reach the goal. All of the effects of motivation often lead the motivated person to be successful in their endeavors. While there are marketing professionals researching the reasons why consumers buy one product over another and police trying to understand the motivation for committing a crime, the field of industrial/organizational psychology is focused on the motivation behind

behaviors in the workplace. Many explanations for motivation cross disciplines, but others might be considered specific to the workplace.

There are many different views of which factors most strongly impact the nature of motivation within and beyond the workplace. There are theories professing the importance of context, goals, needs, and traits in influencing individual motivation (e.g., Latham & Pinder, 2005). Context, goals, needs, and traits are all explored in different versions of goal orientation theory. It is likely that combinations of these forces determine individual motivation and, consequently, create a great variety of possible behavioral outcomes in any given situation. These major theories of motivation will be subsequently described, followed by more detailed explanation of goal orientation research.

Context/Content

Research has examined the ideal work context for motivating employees. Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed work design theory identifying job characteristics that affect motivation in the work environment. This approach suggests that there are five job characteristics which affect psychological states that result in certain work outcomes. This theory is particularly practical for organizations hoping to make changes that will affect employee motivation. The theory suggests that the following job characteristics affect motivation as follows: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. The relationships between these characteristics and work outcomes are moderated by the individual's growth needs strength. Job characteristics are seen as affecting, among other things, work motivation. Support has been found for these and other

characteristics of the job affecting motivation (e.g., Houkes et al, 2001). Job re-design or enrichment is believed to be an effective method to increase employee motivation.

Another aspect of the job that can affect employee motivation is the employee's perceptions regarding equity and fairness or organizational justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). The original theory was developed from Adam's (1965) equity theory which stated that employees base their fairness perceptions on their belief in the equity ratio of their effort to outcomes related to the same ratio of a comparison other. The theory emphasizes that employees are motivated to reduce inequity and that this might cause them to increase or decrease their effort, ask for different or increased outcomes, or seek out new employment where they might find a more fair scenario. Other research on organizational justice separates equity or distributive justice from procedural justice or the perceived fairness of the way in which the distribution decision is made (Colquitt et al., 2001). Levanthal (1980) identified six aspects of a fair procedure including consistency, lack of bias, accuracy, ability to correct mistakes, and the extent to which decisions are representative and ethical. In addition to the procedure, research has examined the interactional justice of how the information is delivered regarding both the information provided and the interpersonal manner in which the distribution is delivered (e.g., Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Many of the effects of experienced unfairness can motivate employees to act negatively against the organization (Greenberg, 1993).

Organizations should not underestimate the importance of employee justice perceptions on employee motivation.

Goals

Another important area of motivation research involves the examination of goals and goal theories (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Locke and Latham (1990) developed goal-setting theory which states that specific, difficult goals lead to higher performance. There has been overwhelming support for this theory in a variety of settings and circumstances (Locke & Latham, 2002). Goals are an important aspect of motivation because goals help to direct and focus behavior.

In addition to goals, feedback plays an important role in the relationship between motivation and performance. Feedback helps employees to examine progress towards a goal and change behaviors to ensure completion of a goal (Locke & Latham, 2002). Building on the importance of feedback on goal-setting, Locke & Latham (1991) have proposed a theory of self-regulation in which individuals continually regulate progress towards goals and adjust behaviors and effort accordingly. This self-regulation has been found to affect performance on both individual and team goals (e.g., DeShon et al., 2004). Goals and feedback are clearly involved in the relationship between motivation and performance.

Needs

The need theories of motivation emphasize the idea that people have relatively stable, underlying needs that they continually work to satisfy (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). In the context of work, individuals are motivated to complete their work when doing so satisfies one of many of their individual needs. There

have been many different theories attempting to categorize human needs. One very popular theory is Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs. Maslow (1943) proposed that all humans are motivated to satisfy five hierarchically arranged needs in ascending order. These needs are physiological, safety, affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow described that a person would not be worried about their self-esteem if they were unsafe. And likewise, someone who did not have food and water, would be more concerned with satisfying their need to eat than whether or not they have companionship. In a related theory, Alderfer (1969) described the three basic human needs as existence, relatedness, and growth and Herzberg and colleagues (1959) discussed the importance of extrinsic hygienes and intrinsic motivators. These theories make a lot of intuitive sense and have found support reinforcing the influence of needs on motivation.

Along with need theories, research has examined the effect of personality traits on individual motivation. The study of the effects of individual differences in the workplace is a fundamental aspect of research regarding psychology at work and individual differences have been shown to have a significant effect on motivation (Barrick et al., 2001). Many theories on the relationship between personality and motivation use aspects of earlier theories and personality. For instance, Tett and Burnett (2003) proposed a theory that employees seek out and are satisfied by tasks, people, and job characteristics that allow them to express their personality traits. Personality theories incorporate context, goals, and needs, but express the view that people may be motivated differently by any one of these aspects. Ultimately, there are many different theories of motivation and it is likely

that some aspects of all of them affect behavior. Research on personality and motivation is an effective manner in which to define and describe individual differences and their relationship to workplace attitudes and behaviors.

Personality

Personality has long been a subject of interest in the field of psychology (e.g., Hough & Furnham, 2003). In the workplace, some believe that personality is a key aspect of the relationship between ability, motivation, and performance (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Many research efforts have been dedicated to describing and explaining the relationship between personality and performance. One of the primary methods for examining individual differences has been to develop taxonomies describing possible facets of personality (Hough & Furnham, 2003). One of the most prominent and, arguably, the most complete, taxonomies of personality is the five-factor model (McCrae & Costa, 1997; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1997). The Big Five personality traits have been labeled Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience (Goldberg, 1990). These five personality traits have found wide support as stable and predictive of workplace behaviors (e.g., Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001).

Although there is a plethora of research examining the relationship between motivation and performance (see Latham & Pinder, 2005), there are still few theories examining the relationship between motivational personality and performance. Recent research has begun to include other aspects of personality in models of job performance. For example, Schmidt and Hunter (1992) described a model where general mental ability, job experience, and the personality trait of

conscientiousness predict job performance. In addition, a significant relationship between personality and motivation has been found in other studies (e.g., Barrick et al., 2001; Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). Yet, research describing achievement orientation and its effect on performance and other work outcomes has only begun in the last several decades (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). One of the personality variables that has received much attention in examining individual differences in motivation is goal orientation.

Goal Orientation

Goal orientation is an important dispositional characteristic relating to employee performance in organizations (e.g., Cellar et al., 2011; Payne et al., 2007). Goal orientation describes the disposition of an individual toward developing or demonstrating ability in achievement situations or individual differences in motivation to develop or demonstrate competence (Payne et al., 2007; VandeWalle, 1997). There are three dimensions of goal orientation commonly discussed in the literature. These three dimensions are learning, performance approach, and performance avoid goal orientation. Learning goal orientation is the dimension concerning the extent to which an individual seeks to develop and acquire new skills (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 2001; VandeWalle et al., 1999). Performance orientation is the extent to which an individual is motivated to prove competence by gaining favorable judgments and avoiding unfavorable judgments (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 2001; VandeWalle et al., 1999). The performance *approach* dimension is the extent to which an individual is seeking favorable judgments and the performance *avoid*

dimension is the extent to which an individual is seeking to avoid unfavorable judgments. Varying levels of each dimension determine the way an individual defines success, ability, and goals (Payne et al., 2007). These different dimensions of goal orientation also affect the meaning an individual attaches to effort and his or her desire for feedback. All three dimensions have been found to be important to the description of dispositions towards developing and demonstrating ability (Payne et al., 2007). Individuals who are high or low on these dimensions have been shown to respond differently in varying situations. Still, Payne and colleagues (2007) have identified that the goal orientation literature is lacking research and description of outcomes, frequencies, and reactions due to the specific profile combinations of goal orientation dimensions.

History of Goal Orientation

The study of goal orientation in work settings developed from research examining the achievement patterns and attributions of children in an educational context. Eison (1979) conducted research on learning and grade orientations and Nicholls (1975) examined achievement motivation. Independently, Diener and Dweck (1978) examined the connection between the concept of learned helplessness, or the perceived inability to surmount failure, and children's failure attributions. Originally, it was hypothesized that individuals could be classified into one achievement orientation or another. It was found that children have different attributional styles and this affects their future success after failure. Those deemed helpless children, tended to ruminate on failure and attribute it to uncontrollable factors. Alternatively, the mastery children focused on the solution

to a past failure and on future success. When successful there was no difference in performance or engagement between helpless or mastery children, but failure led helpless children to have negative self cognitions, attributions to the self, and negative affect. In addition, helpless children were more likely to respond to failure with verbalizations irrelevant to the task and subsequent decreases in performance.

It was proposed that helpless children may benefit from training that encourages different attributions and a focus on future success (Diener & Dweck, 1978). Later research addressed the possibility that helpless and mastery individuals were pursuing different types of goals. Elliott and Dweck (1988) examined the effects of inducing goal orientation through different goals. Learning goals encouraged seeking to increase ability and master new tasks and performance goals encouraged maintaining positive judgments and avoiding negative judgments to validate ability. The use of performance goals made individuals vulnerable to helpless response patterns and attributions. This information suggests that the varying outcomes for helpless and mastery individuals may be due to the fact that they are seeking to achieve different goals.

These ideas continued to develop as performance and learning goals and mastery and helpless individuals were related to implicit theories. Dweck and Leggett (1988) found continued support that performance goals lead to a helpless pattern and learning goals lead to a mastery pattern. In addition, the helpless and mastery responses were described in detail. Individuals have different implicit theories that can vary by context or be general to all individual characteristics

(Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). These implicit views of intelligence or ability are described in a theory of ability, or the implicit concepts that are held concerning the nature of ability (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). An incremental theory of ability is the belief that intelligence is changeable and can be increased through effort. An entity theory of ability is the belief that ability is fixed and, thus, high effort is indicative of low ability. The helpless response begins a maladaptive pattern that discourages an individual from confronting obstacles and challenges. These helpless individuals use an entity theory of ability that leads them to feel inadequate after failure and avoid such situations. The mastery individual uses an adaptive response pattern that seeks challenges and views failure as information that is useful for future success. Mastery-oriented individuals use an incremental theory of ability that leads them to conquer challenges through effort and to have optimism about future success. These implicit theories can lead individuals to have different views about goals, effort, and ability.

After many variations of measuring goal orientation had been developed, it became necessary for some standardization. Several authors have sought to resolve ongoing conceptual and methodological issues surrounding the study of goal orientation (e.g., Button et al., 1996; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005). Button and colleagues (1996) addressed many issues in goal orientation research and applied these concepts to an organizational setting. These authors defined the primary goal orientation issues and developed a stable two factor scale. Although goal orientation research proceeded, DeShon and Gillespie (2005) believed the state of the literature continued to be in conceptual and methodological disarray. These

authors sought to identify and define the issues and proposed a model for future goal orientation research. Both of these articles identify several central goal orientation issues including use as a trait or state measure, measurement practices, and dimensionality.

The use of goal orientation to describe a stable trait or a goal-driven state has been unclear from its first use in educational settings (e.g., Eison, 1979; Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Nicholls, 1975). There are many studies examining goal orientation as either a dispositional trait or as a state, but there is no consistent definition and the same term is used to describe many varying processes (DeShon & Gillespie, 2005). As stated previously, Elliott and Dweck (1988) sought to induce different types of goal orientations and Diener and Dweck (1978) suggested that helpless children be trained to have different attributions, both suggesting goal orientation is dependent on characteristics of the situation. DeShon and Gillespie (2005) identify most research as defining goal orientation as a goal; yet there is little difference between the number of studies using the goal or disposition definition. Studies describing goal orientation as a quasi-trait are not included in this comparison. The motivated action theory of goal orientation, proposed by DeShon and Gillespie (2005), defines goal orientation as a preferred set of achievement goals. That said, this theory also states that goal orientation may behave as a trait when a certain type of achievement goals are chronically pursued. It has been found, across several studies, that the three dimensions of personality are quite stable over a short period of time (e.g., Payne et al., 2007). Still, there are few studies examining the stability of goal orientation

over longer periods of time and these few have found that longer time periods weaken the coefficient of stability (Payne et al., 2007). Button and colleagues (1996) asserted that goal orientation can be considered a somewhat stable personality characteristic that might be influenced by situational differences. In a meta-analysis of the goal orientation literature, Payne and colleagues (2007) found that state measures had a stronger relationship with more distal consequences than trait measures. This study also found that trait measures of goal orientation predict job performance above and beyond cognitive ability and personality. Payne and colleagues (2007) propose areas of necessary future research examining both the state and trait measures of goal orientation. Further, DeShon and Gillespie (2005) state that the choice to measure goal orientation or manipulate achievement goals depends on the goals of the researcher. Thus, it may not be necessary to choose, but instead to consider the influences of both achievement goals and dispositional goal orientation in varying research endeavors.

Measurement of goal orientation has been done in many different ways and for different settings. Single item measurements of goal orientation have not been found to be reliable (Button et al., 1996). It is important to make sure that measures accurately determine the goal orientation of an individual. Several scales have been developed and validated for different uses. There are two that are most commonly used to assess dispositional goal orientation in organizational settings. The measurement tool developed by Button and colleagues (1996) is meant to describe general goal orientation and be applicable to many different

settings and has two dimensions. VandeWalle (1997) developed a goal orientation measure that is specific to the work domain and measures levels on three different dimensions. Hafsteinsson, Donovan, and Breland (2007) criticize the measurement precision of both of these measures. More specifically, all five scales between the Button et al. (1996) and the VandeWalle (1997) measures have low precision of measurement. The best of these was the Button et al. (1996) learning goal orientation scale, but even this had problems differentiating among respondents with high scores. The primary criticism of the VandeWalle (1997) measure is in regards to length. It is believed that adding several high-quality items to each VandeWalle (1997) scale would increase measurement precision in terms of validity (e.g., Hafsteinsson et al., 2007). Also, this research found VandeWalle's (1997) learning measure to outperform both performance measures in terms of validity. This difference might explain consistent findings of stronger relationships with the learning goal orientation scale. Future research might improve and validate these goal orientation measures.

Goal orientation has been conceptualized as having anywhere from one to six dimensions. The early work of Dweck assumes that goal orientation is a single continuum from helpless to mastery (e.g.; Diener & Dweck, 1978; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). In response to confusion over describing what a zero on this single continuum would indicate, it was later proposed that learning and performance might be separate dimensions (Dweck, 1989). Button et al. (1996) found evidence that learning and performance goal orientations are not mutually exclusive or contradictory. Later, VandeWalle (1997) provided evidence

of a separation of performance goal orientation into two further dimensions: performance approach and performance avoidance. Pintrich (2000) and Elliot and McGregor (2001) argue that a fourth dimension should be added to the achievement goal orientation literature that would include a learning avoidance dimension. While this model has received research attention, it is unclear how learning avoidance would differ from an individual high on both learning and performance avoid. Harackiewicz and colleagues (1997) have proposed the usefulness of a different fourth dimension in describing motivational personality that is titled work avoidance. Elliot and Thrash (2001) have even proposed a model with six dimensions of goal orientation, crossing approach and avoidance with three definitions of competence. It is clear that a single dimension does not provide enough information, but there is need for further support for any of the proposed models of dimensionality to be generally accepted in all research. In an effort to further examine one of these propositions of goal orientation dimensionality, this study examines four dimensions of goal orientation, including learning, performance approach, performance avoid, and work avoidance.

Despite several decades of research and debate, there are still many theoretical and practical inconsistencies that must be examined by future research. DeShon and Gillespie (2005) criticize goal orientation theory for lack of clarity in the definition, disagreement over dimensionality and the use of profiles, stability, and measurement. It seems there is much more evidence required to resolve some of these inconsistencies and provide clarity for the examination and use of goal orientation. Despite a lack of clarity, research continues to define and explore goal

orientation because of the usefulness in describing and predicting workplace attitudes and behaviors.

Learning Goal Orientation

Learning goal orientation is the dimension of motivational orientation describing the extent to which an individual seeks to develop their competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations (VandeWalle, 1997). An individual with a high learning goal orientation defines success as mastery and is continually working towards new, challenging goals. Those with a high learning goal orientation have been found to use an incremental theory of ability (VandeWalle, 1997). Incremental theory of ability is used when a person views ability as a changing attribute that can be developed through effort and experience (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). This view leads those high on learning goal orientation to work to increase their ability through practice and effort.

Many positive outcomes have been related to scoring high on learning goal orientation (e.g., Cellar et al., 2011). Learning goal orientation has been found to be related to sales performance through self-regulation tactics such as goal setting, effort, and planning (VandeWalle et al., 1999). Learning goal orientation has also been shown to be positively related to customer orientation of salespeople (Harris, Mowen, & Brown, 2005). Someone high on learning goal orientation benefits from the incremental theory of ability and places value in intentional effort to increase performance. It has also been found that learning goal orientation has a positive relationship with feedback through goal setting,

effort, and self-efficacy (VandeWalle et al., 2001). Again, the self-regulation efforts lead an individual high on learning goal orientation to benefit from feedback. Other findings show that these individuals actually seek more performance and self-improvement feedback rather than self-validation feedback than others (Janssen & Prins, 2007; Madzar, 2001). Research has also shown that a high learning goal orientation is related to positive training attitudes for men, but not for women (Narayan & Steele-Johnson, 2007). Learning goal orientation has also been found to be positively related to training self-efficacy (Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005). A meta-analysis of the goal orientation research found that learning goal orientation was positively related to self-efficacy, self-set goal level, learning strategies, feedback seeking, decreased state anxiety, learning and academic performance, and task and job performance (Payne et al., 2007). Further, this same meta-analysis found that learning goal orientation predicted job performance above and beyond cognitive ability and the Big Five personality traits. This provides evidence that motivational orientation provides additional description of individuals beyond basic personality and intelligence.

Elliott and McGregor (2001) have proposed a fourth dimension of goal orientation that would separate the learning goal orientation dimension into a learning approach and a learning avoidance dimension. Although adding to the symmetry of VandeWalle's (1997) three dimensional measure, there is not clear evidence that this fourth dimension contributes additional explanation. In addition, this paper examines goal orientation from the perspective that each person might vary on all dimensions. Thus, the learning avoidance dimension

seems to represent someone who is simply high on both learning and performance avoid goal orientation. The three factor measures have been more convincingly validated (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Elliot et al., 1999) and this fourth dimension is relatively newer with less support (Whingter, Cunningham, Wang, & Burnfield, 2008). Also, attempts to create an adequate measure of the learning avoidance dimension seem to be somewhat problematic (Baranik, Barron, & Finney, 2007). Recent comprehensive analyses of goal orientation literature have not examined the learning avoid dimension due to a lack of research and limited empirical data to support this distinction (e.g., Cellar et al., 2011; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Payne et al., 2007). Due to a lack of conceptual or actual substantiation, this dimension of goal orientation will not be examined in the present study.

Performance Goal Orientation

Performance goal orientation is described as the extent to which an individual seeks to demonstrate and validate the adequacy of their competence by seeking favorable judgments and avoiding negative judgments (VandeWalle, 1997). A person high on either performance goal orientation dimension defines success through outcomes and views level of effort as an indication of ability. High performance goal orientation is related to an entity theory of ability (VandeWalle, 1997). An entity theory of ability is when ability is seen as a fixed and unchanging personal attribute (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). Having an entity theory of ability leads individuals to fear failure because it is an

indicator of potential performance, feel threatened by feedback, and believe that less effort indicates a greater ability.

Performance approach goal orientation relates to the way a person seeks to demonstrate their competence by gaining favorable judgments (VandeWalle, 1997). A person high on this dimension places a lot of value in positive outcomes that come from little effort, indicating high natural ability. Individuals high on performance approach goal orientation purposefully focus on activities and tasks that are certain to lead to success. Feedback has little positive or negative effect on these individuals because they are only exhibiting ability in achievement situations in which they are sure to succeed (VandeWalle et al., 2001). Individuals high in performance approach goal orientation are less likely to seek self-improvement feedback than others (Janssen & Prins, 2007). This dimension accounts for the extent to which individuals choose tasks that are likely to provide success and positive evaluations. A meta-analytic review of goal orientation found that performance approach goal orientation is positively related to learning strategies and high levels of state anxiety (Payne et al., 2007). Although performance approach was largely found to be unrelated to outcomes examined in this study, finding of small positive relationships with both learning goal orientation and performance avoid goal orientation suggests a complex relationship among dimensions. Performance approach goal orientation may provide further understanding and relationship to outcomes in combination with other dimensions.

Performance avoid goal orientation is the extent that an individual seeks to show competence by avoiding unfavorable judgments (VandeWalle, 1997). Individuals high on the performance avoid dimension tend to view ability, effort, and success in the same way as those high on performance approach, but are especially motivated to avoid unsuccessful outcomes. The entity theory of ability and a high fear of failure leads these individuals to avoid negative outcomes, often through avoiding achievement situations altogether. Performance avoid goal orientation has a negative relationship with feedback (VandeWalle et al., 2001). Yet, Janssen and Prins (2007) found that being high in performance avoid goal orientation was positively related to seeking self-validation and self-improvement feedback. Previously, it was believed that individuals high on this dimension would be negatively affected by feedback (e.g., VandeWalle, 1997). Any feedback includes the possibility of containing the negative judgments that they strongly seek to avoid. But, recent research seems to indicate that we do not fully understand this relationship. Park, Schmidt, Scheu, and DeShon (2007) show evidence that it is both goal orientation and cost and value perceptions which affect feedback seeking. In their meta-analysis, Payne and colleagues (2007) found that performance avoid goal orientation is negatively related to self-efficacy, self-set goal level, feedback seeking, high state anxiety, learning, task performance and job performance. It is clear that high levels of performance avoid goal orientation alone do not lead to successful individual or organizational outcomes.

Work Avoidance

As mentioned previously, Harackewicz and colleagues (1997) proposed a fourth dimension to describe motivational personality that differs from the learning avoid dimension. As mentioned previously, the learning avoid dimension describes someone who has a high need to be successful and avoids failure, such as a perfectionist (Elliott & McGregor, 2001). Again, it is unclear how the learning avoid dimension differs theoretically from the learning and performance avoid dimensions. In contrast, work avoidance is the theoretical opposite of high achievement motivation (Harackewicz et al., 1997). Someone high in work avoidance is motivated to invest as little work as possible in a task. This individual is not concerned with enhancing competence or demonstrating high or low ability, but simply avoiding as much work as possible. The term work avoidance suggests active avoidance, but individuals high in work avoidance act very passively and do not demonstrate worry or fear. There has been evidence to support the use of this work avoidance dimension along with the learning, performance approach, and performance avoid dimensions to provide a complete picture of stable motivational tendencies (e.g., Bipp, Steinmayr, & Spinath, 2008; Butler, 2007; Kolic-Vehovec, Roncevic, & Bajanski, 2008). Bipp and colleagues (2008) found that work avoidance was negatively related to conscientiousness, learning goal orientation, and positively related to the performance avoid goal orientation dimension. It has been found that the addition of the work avoidance dimensions helped to create clearer profiles of goal orientation patterns (e.g., Butler, 2007; Kolic-Vehovec et al., 2008). This recent research provides evidence

that the addition of the work avoidance dimension may help in explaining individual differences in motivation and performance. In the present study, it is believed that the addition of a work avoidance score will increase prediction of individual work outcomes.

All of these dimensions of goal orientation affect the way individuals set goals and respond to achievement situations, which makes them extremely relevant to individuals in an organizational context. Differences in this disposition have been shown to affect employee motivation and performance (e.g., Payne et al., 2007). Goal orientation is important to organizations and individuals may use many different combinations of levels on each dimension to determine levels of effort and evaluations of their work environment. Thus, it is important to understand the meaning of these relationships between goal orientation dimensions and how they affect performance and attitudes as represented in a complete person.

Person-Centered Research

In the analysis of personality and individual outcomes, the traditional method has been to use a variable-centered approach. In this approach, the variables are the main level of analysis. Thus, studies indicate relationships between discrete dimensions or variables and various outcomes. The study of goal orientation has typically been examined using this same method (Tanaka, 2007). Each dimension of goal orientation is examined separately for relationships with outcomes. In the past few decades, the inclination and ability to examine research questions using a person-centered approach has increased dramatically (Bergman,

1988; Bergman, 2000; Bergman, Cairns, Nilsson, & Nystedt, 2000; Bergman & Magnusson, 1997; Cronbach & Gleser, 1953; Magnusson, 1988; Magnusson, 1998). The person-centered or holistic approach to research looks at the person as a functioning whole (Magnusson, 2000). As opposed to examining personality characteristics separately, the person-centered method seeks to examine the effects of different aspects of personality at the same time. In goal orientation research, for example, this would mean considering an individual's level on different dimensions and how combinations of these dimensions affect outcomes.

This approach has been considered throughout the past century, but has seen its fullest growth in the areas of developmental psychology and analysis of the Big Five personality characteristics (De Fruyt, 2002). Still, recent research conducted by Tanaka (2007) specifically examined goal orientation using both a variable-centered and a person-centered approach. Bergman, Cairns, Nilsson, and Nystedt (2000) state a number of reasons why the person-centered approach may be more relevant. While maintaining that there is undeniable value in variable-centered research, there are potential problems with ignoring important interactions within an individual. In addition, if recognized, there are extreme complications of accounting for all possible interactions using a variable-centered approach. These problems can now be examined using the person-centered framework which has developed a strong theoretical foundation and powerful research methods for analyzing individuals as a whole. There may also be more practical value of person-centered research in understanding individual differences and behavior at work.

For example, VanYperen and Janssen (2002) examined the effects of goal orientation on fatigue and satisfaction with high work demands. These authors grouped individuals into four groups of those high or low on learning or performance goal orientation. For example, two groups would be high on learning and low on performance or high on learning and performance. Individuals were considered high on a trait if they were more than one standard deviation above the mean for that dimension. This method accounts for individual's whole personality in terms of both goal orientation dimension and these authors found that only those in the low learning and high performance group had a decrease in job satisfaction with higher perceived job demands. The grouping of individuals into profile types provided more explanation for which individuals would experience decreased satisfaction with increased job demands.

Research at the level of the variable only provides a piece of the picture of what affects individual behavior. It has been acknowledged that person-centered research may be more useful to organizations because most make decisions at the level of the individual and would benefit from information on the operation of personality in a real life setting (De Fruyt, 2002; McCrae & John, 1992). It seems that it might be more useful to know how different combinations of goal orientation dimension levels affect performance and other outcomes. This method may be more functional than to simply know that one dimension is related to a certain outcome disregarding the other two dimensions. Personality variables are inevitably influenced by other characteristics of an individual and are only found to be important in the context of such relationships (Magnusson, 1998). Thus, it

seems that recognizing these relationships without examining the person as a whole denies the importance of the practical outcomes of being a full person with a variety of traits.

The Big Five model is one of the most well-known descriptors of individual personality. These five factors, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Extroversion, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience, are said to be the fundamentals of all personality (e.g., John, 1990). The person-centered method has been used to determine the most common profiles, or combinations of these five variables, and found three resulting profile types: resilient, overcontrolled, and undercontrolled (e.g., Block & Block, 1980). These three types were first identified using Q-factor analysis, but have been shown to be identifiable through cluster analysis (Asendorpf & Van Aken, 1999; Asendorpf, Borkeanu, Ostendorf, & Van Aken, 2001; Mervielde & Asendorpf, 2000). Ekehammar and Akrami (2003) examined the relationship between the Big Five personality dimensions and prejudice. These authors found these same three cluster types through cluster analysis of the Big Five, but failed to find that the types predicted prejudice better than the Big Five factors. Still, there is evidence that specific trait measures of goal orientation are better predictors than more general measures of goal orientation (e.g., VandeWalle, 1997). It seems that outcomes related to a specific measure of goal orientation might be predicted better by the goal orientation profile type. The combination of different aspects of goal orientation may account for some ambiguous relationships between outcome variables. And consideration of work avoidance will likely increase these relationships. For example, a person

high on avoid goal orientation may be a high performer, but this may be due to also being high on learning goal orientation. In addition, conflicting evidence regarding the relationship between performance avoid and feedback-seeking might be due to other scores on other dimensions of goal orientation (Janssen & Prins, 2007; VandeWalle, 1997). Again, work avoidance might be a confounding variable in the relationship between performance avoid and feedback-seeking. Knowing the profile type might be more explanatory of the relationship between dimensions and variables within a person and provide more practically applicable information to the world of work.

Research has shown that a person-centered approach is a useful method for examining goal orientation. Many researchers have discussed the benefits of having performance goals along with mastery goals, or multiple goals (eg., Barron & Harackiewicz, 2001; Meece & Holt, 1993; Pintrich, 2000). Tanaka (2007) found three clusters or profiles of goal orientation that were high on both learning and performance, high learning and low performance, and then low on both learning and performance. This study found that the profiles were significant predictors of self-efficacy, perceived success, and task performance. In addition, Kolic-Vehovec and colleagues (2008) found evidence of four clusters when including the fourth dimension of work avoidance. Their research showed evidence of profiles as follows: high learning, high learning and performance, high performance and work avoidance, and high work avoidance.

Relationships with Outcome and Affective Variables

The following provides evidence of the relationship between the three dimensions of goal orientation and work avoidance with the four dependant variables examined in this study: performance, satisfaction, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. This information is provided to support the use of these variables in this study and to provide a foundation for possible relationships with goal orientation type. In addition, conflicting findings about the different relationships of goal orientation dimensions with some of these variables provides further identification of the need to determine what other relationships exist with goal orientation in a full person. It is noted that work avoidance is scarcely included in these relationships due to a lack of available research. This study will provide evidence of relationships between work avoidance and these outcome variables, in addition to the relationships between the identified profiles and outcomes.

Performance

A large amount of goal orientation research has focused on the relationship between goal orientation dimensions and performance in academic and work settings. Learning orientation has been found to be positively related to academic and work measures of performance (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Button et al., 1996; Cellar et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2000; Day et al., 2003; Payne et al., 2007; Phillips & Gully, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 1999; VandeWalle et al., 2001). It is not surprising that individuals who have a learning goal orientation would also perform highly since they are drawn to do their best and see feedback

as a means for growth and development. This relationship persists throughout the following examples. Several meta-analyses have shown the positive relationship between learning goal orientation and performance (Cellar et al., 2011; Day et al., 2003; Payne et al., 2007). Payne and colleagues (2007) found that learning goal orientation had a small positive correlation with learning, academic performance, task and job performance. Cellar and colleagues (2011) found that there is a consistent relationship with performance, but that goal orientation might relate more strongly to other self-regulatory behaviors. These meta-analytic results provide evidence that this relationship endures through a variety of settings and situations and in a various populations. More specifically, Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996) examined the correlations between goal orientation and college GPA. These authors found that there was a consistent positive relationship between college GPA and learning goal orientation. Similarly, Phillips and Gully (1997) found that SAT and ACT scores were related to being higher on learning orientation. This research provides evidence that these relationships occur in a school setting in addition to the workplace. As mentioned earlier, learning goal orientation has also been found to be positively related to sales and other work performance (VandeWalle et al., 1999; VandeWalle et al., 2001). Chen and colleagues (2000) found a positive relationship between learning goal orientation and SAT scores and learning performance. Lastly, it has been found that learning orientation has a positive relationship with performance on a tactical navy decision-making task (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). It is clear from all this research

that learning goal orientation is consistently, positively related to high performance in academic and work settings.

Performance has had less clear relationships with both performance avoid goal orientation and performance approach goal orientation. Performance orientation has been found to have no relationship with college GPA, training performance, and sales performance (e.g., Button et al., 1996; Cellar et al., 2011; Day et al., 2003; Kozlowski, et al., 2001; Payne et al., 2007; VandeWalle et al., 1999). Although this lack of relationship is consistent, this is found where performance goal orientation is seen as one dimension as opposed to two. A recent meta-analysis found consistent evidence of a small negative relationship between performance avoid goal orientation and learning (Payne et al., 2007). So, it is likely that the separation into two performance dimensions provides additional explanation. Also, the meta-analytic results provide reason to believe that someone who is high on performance avoid goal orientation is more likely to be a low performer. It was also found, in the Payne et al. (2007) meta-analysis, that a high level of approach performance goal orientation was related to task and job performance and that avoid performance goal orientation is related to lower task and job performance. Other researchers have found performance orientation to have a negative relationship with task performance (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). It has been found that performance approach goal orientation has no relationship with performance and performance avoid has a negative relationship with performance (VandeWalle et al., 2001). It is possible that the lack of separation of these dimensions is the reason for the reduced clarity in this relationship. The two

separate dimensions may have more stable relationships with performance as seen through meta-analytic research. In addition, it is likely that the trait of work avoidance will be negatively related to performance since the individual high on work avoidance actively avoids any excess work activity and, thus, is unlikely to go above and beyond to perform highly. Evidence of any relationship between work avoidance and performance will provide further explanation of the role of motivational orientation in performance.

Job Satisfaction

Another important variable of great interest to organizations is employee job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been found to have important relationships with a variety of relevant organizational outcomes such as performance, turnover, and absenteeism (e.g., Carsten & Spector, 1987; Johns, 1997; Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001). There has not been a large amount of research examining job satisfaction and goal orientation. Research has examined and found relationships between job satisfaction and other dispositional variables (e.g., Brief, 1998; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). A relationship between goal orientation and job satisfaction would be expected because goal orientation describes an individual's preferred way to deal with achievement situations and varying definitions of success (VandeWalle, 1997). The opportunity to work in an environment that suits individual preference may affect other important work outcomes. In addition, as mentioned previously, VanYperen and Janssen (1992) examined goal orientation and job satisfaction in the context of high work demands. These authors actually found that job satisfaction was diminished by

high work demands only when an individual's performance orientation was higher than their learning orientation. Thus, individuals higher on learning orientation have less of a decrease in job satisfaction in response to high work demands than those higher on performance orientation. This finding provides evidence that there is a relationship between goal orientation and job satisfaction. And work avoidance is likely to affect relationships with job satisfaction such that individuals who seek to avoid work are likely to be unsatisfied with high work demands. Thus, the relationship between goal orientation and work avoidance with job satisfaction requires more explanation and investigation.

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is an individual's belief in their ability to accomplish a specific task (Wood & Bandura, 1989). The self-efficacy of an individual has been found to be related to many positive outcomes, including a strong relationship with performance (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Gist, 1997; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Self-efficacy has been found to have a positive correlation with learning goal orientation (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Cellar et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2000; Kozlowski et al., 2001; Payne et al., 2007; Phillips & Gully, 1997). The meta-analysis by Payne and colleagues (2007) found that those with high self-efficacy were more likely to have a strong learning goal orientation and a weak performance avoid goal orientation. Cellar and colleagues (2011) found similar results in their meta-analysis focusing on self-regulatory behaviors. Those high on learning goal orientation are not intimidated by feedback regarding their success, and thus, have a healthy positive belief in their ability to be successful. Those who

are high on performance avoid goal orientation are actively avoiding failure which implies belief that failure is likely. Phillips and Gully (1997) found that learning goal orientation had a positive effect on self-efficacy, whereas performance goal orientation had a negative effect on self-efficacy. Thus, individuals who are higher on learning orientation have a stronger belief in their ability to complete a task. Learning goal orientation has also been found to be related to feedback-seeking (VandeWalle et al., 2001). It is likely that this finding is due to the belief of those high on learning goal orientation can succeed and that feedback will aid in the mastery of tasks. It is believed that self-efficacy and feedback-seeking may be related to learning goal orientation because a desire for feedback implicitly indicates a belief that an individual can improve and, ultimately, succeed at a task. In addition, VandeWalle et al. (2001) found that the relationship between learning goal orientation and performance is mediated by self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is clearly an important correlate of learning goal orientation.

Payne et al. (2007) state that the distinction between approach and avoid performance goal orientation is extremely important in terms of the relationship with self-efficacy. Only avoid performance goal orientation has been found to consistently have a negative effect on self-efficacy. Cellar et al. (2011) also found no relationship between performance goal orientation and self-efficacy in their meta-analytic review. Possibly due to the importance of separating out the performance dimension, past research that only looks at performance goal orientation as one dimension has found some conflicting evidence. Bell and

Kozlowski (2002) found that there is no relationship between performance orientation and self-efficacy in task performance. In addition, performance goal orientation was found to have no relationship with self-efficacy on a learning task (Chen et al., 2000). Yet, a negative relationship has been found between performance orientation and self-efficacy in several other studies (e.g., Ford, Smith, Weissbein, Gully, & Salas, 1998; Phillips & Gully, 1997). In addition, as one global performance goal orientation measure may not provide a complete explanation, examination of the separate dimensions without considering the effects of all dimensions may lead to such contradictory findings. Contrarily, in previously mentioned findings, Greene and Miller (1996) actually found that there was a positive relationship between performance goal orientation and perceived ability. It has also been found that self-efficacy is positively related to performance goal orientation in a training situation (Kozlowski et al., 2001). These findings might be confounded by individuals who are high on performance approach and are seeking to prove their competence. These individuals might have a higher believe in their ability to be successful at a task. These findings are especially likely where the task is training where it is acceptable performance at a lower level.

All of these findings lead to confusion over the true relationship between performance goal orientation and self-efficacy. Still, the most recent and conclusive meta-analysis finds a clear negative relationship between performance avoid goal orientation and self-efficacy (Cellar et al., 2011). Again, this confirms belief that those high on performance avoid have a high fear of failure and prefer

to avoid achievement situations due to their concern that they will not be successful. It is believed that work avoidance will have no relationship to self-efficacy because the desire to avoid work has little to do with the individual's belief in their ability to do the work.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment describes the degree to which a member feels a psychological connection or sense of identification with an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Organizational commitment has been found to be related to many important organizational outcomes. Organizational commitment has a strong relationship with employee turnover intentions and actual turnover (e.g., Cohen, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). In addition, a moderately large positive relationship has been found between organizational commitment and job performance in new employees (Wright & Bonett, 2002). Although these authors found that this relationship decreases with employee tenure, this finding is especially important to organizations when hiring new employees. In a meta-analysis by Brown (1996), organizational commitment was found to be strongly related to job satisfaction, job involvement and less strongly, but still significantly related to job performance and turnover. This study also found a correlation between an individual difference variable of work ethic and organizational commitment.

Allen and Meyer (1996) distinguish between three different dimensions of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is individual identification with, involvement in, and

emotional attachment to an organization. Continuance commitment is the extent an individual is committed based on the perceived costs of leaving the organization. Lastly, normative commitment is the extent of an individual's feeling of obligation to remain with an organization.

Although there are no direct findings of a relationship between organizational commitment and goal orientation, the variable is included in this study because of its importance to other organizational variables. In addition, a meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggested that the construct of organizational commitment would benefit from further investigation of its relationship with individual difference variables. Lastly, the majority of the goal orientation research has been conducted in an education setting where this variable may not make much theoretical sense. Since the present study examines a work population, it may provide evidence of a relationship that only exists in the workplace because of the way people emotionally connect with their organization and not with their school.

Rationale

This study is proposed to examine the nature and predictive efficacy of goal orientation profile types and provide explanation through a model of goal orientation. Goal orientation is a relevant individual difference variable to organizations and has been found to be correlated with many important organizational outcomes (e.g., Cellar et al., 2011; Payne et al., 2007). First, a model of goal orientation relationships is proposed and will be examined. Drawing from the meta-analysis by Payne and colleagues (2007) the following

model is proposed. The dimensions of motivational personality and work avoidance will be related to each other and to various proximal consequences. Lastly, these proximal consequences will be related to more distal consequences. Evidence to support these relationships will help confirm the proposed nomological network of goal orientation.

There is little description of what the combination of goal orientation dimensions means for a real person working within an organization. McCrae and John (1992) point out that using a person-centered approach may be more useful to organizations because most organizational decisions are made at the level of the individual and not at the level of the variable. In addition, there are many important interactions within an individual that are ignored when conducting variable centered research (Bergman et al., 2000). Previous research by Arnold (2006) identified four common profiles of goal orientation in a student sample. These clusters were high on both performance approach and avoid, those low on all three dimensions, high learning, and then high learning and performance approach. These were found to be significant predictors of performance, satisfaction, and self-efficacy. It is possible that the addition of the work avoidance dimension may help to explain these profiles as proposed by Kolic-Vehovec and colleagues (2008). Work avoidance has been found to add to the description of motivational personality (e.g., Bipp et al., 2008; Butler, 2007; Kolic-Vehovec et al., 2008). Thus, the present study proposes to examine four dimensions of goal orientation using nonhierarchical cluster analysis to determine

the number of cluster types and the nature of goal orientation described within these types using a work sample.

Once goal orientation types have been identified, it is necessary to show that there are significant relationships between the types and relevant dependent variables. Performance, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment have been chosen for the present study because of past findings of a relationship with goal orientation or identification as an important organizational variable (e.g., Button et al., 1996; Carsten & Spector, 1987; Phillips & Gully, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 1999; VanYperen & Janssen, 1992; Wright & Bonett, 2002). Specific predictions of the nature of these relationships cannot be made until the cluster types have been identified. Still, due to past findings of relationships and a strong theoretical basis, it is likely that the profile types will be significantly related to these four variables: performance, job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment. Although in previous research there was not a relationship between organizational commitment and the cluster types (Arnold, 2006), it is believed that commitment will be more meaningful in a work sample.

As has been done in previous research, it is important to examine the predictive efficacy of identified profile types by comparing them to another predictor. Goal orientation has been found to have some consistent relationships, particularly involving learning orientation (e.g., VandeWalle et al., 2001). Still, there is also much confusion over the relationship between performance orientation and several relevant outcome and attitudinal variables (e.g., Bell &

Kozlowski, 2002; Button et al., 1996; Ford et al., 1998; Greene & Miller, 1996; Janssen & Prins, 2007; VandeWalle et al., 1999). It is possible that this confusion is due to a lack of the distinction between performance approach and avoid dimensions of goal orientation as has been shown to be important in goal orientation research (VandeWalle, 1997). Alternatively, there may be a dominant dimension of goal orientation which has more strength in affecting relationships with other variables. It is possible that the level of the each dimension does not provide enough information to adequately predict certain outcome and attitudinal variables. Lastly, the addition of the work avoidance dimension might provide additional explanation (Kolic-Vehovec et al., 2008). Goal orientation must be analyzed at the level of the individual, considering all dimensions, to further investigate these unclear relationships, describe the meaning of goal orientation on a person-centered basis, and to test whether this level predicts other variables better than the goal orientation dimensions.

The current study proposes to examine the relationship among goal orientation dimensions in more detail and use identified profiles to predict proximal and distal outcomes. Evidence of the predictive ability of goal orientation profile types would not only further description and explanation of this individual difference variable, but also provide more practical relevance of using goal orientation in organizations to predict candidate success, create developmental objectives, and lead to business outcomes.

Statement of Hypotheses

The current study seeks to examine the value of examining goal orientation at the level of the individual as opposed to the level of the dimension. Although goal orientation dimensions have been found to predict significant outcomes (e.g., Payne et al., 2007), there is theoretical backing for a stronger prediction by examining the combination of dimension scores in a person (e.g., Button et al., 1996 ; VanYperen & Janssen, 2002). The following hypotheses are proposed based on the previously described research findings. Based on previous evidence (e.g., Bipp et al, 2008; DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Payne et al., 2007), it is proposed that the following goal orientation dimensions and work avoidance will have relationships with some or all of the dependent variables of self-efficacy, satisfaction, and commitment.

Hypothesis Ia. Learning goal orientation will be positively related to self-efficacy.

Hypothesis Ib. Learning goal orientation will be positively related to satisfaction.

Hypothesis Ic. Learning goal orientation will be positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis IIa. Performance approach will be positively related to satisfaction.

Hypothesis IIb. Performance approach will be positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis IIIa. Performance avoidance will be positively related to self-efficacy.

Hypothesis IIIb. Performance avoidance will be negatively related to satisfaction.

Hypothesis IIIc. Performance avoidance will be negatively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis IVa. Work avoidance will be negatively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis IVb. Work avoidance will be negatively related to self-efficacy.

In the proposed model of goal orientation relationships, the previously stated proximal consequences (self-efficacy, satisfaction, and organizational commitment) are proposed to be related to additional distal consequences of performance. Self-efficacy, satisfaction and organizational commitment have all been found to relate to increased performance (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Judge et al., 2001; Wright & Bonett, 2002). The three performance variables examined in this study are performance ratings, production, and tenure.

Hypothesis V. Self-efficacy will be positively related to production.

Hypothesis VI. Satisfaction will be positively related to tenure.

Hypothesis VII. Organizational commitment will be positively related to tenure.

In order to verify the previously identified cluster types (Arnold, 2006) and determine the effects of work avoidance, cluster analysis will be used to examine common goal orientation patterns in the participants of this study. It is believed that the same four types will be present as identified by Arnold (2006), which included high on both performance approach and avoid, those low on all three dimensions, high learning, and then high learning and performance approach. In addition there will be two more cluster types identified: high performance and work avoidance, and high work avoidance.

Hypothesis VIIIa. Cluster analysis will lead to the identification of six unique cluster types of goal orientation.

Hypothesis VIIIb. The six cluster types will be as follows: high on both performance approach and avoid, low on all three dimensions, high learning, high learning and performance approach, high performance and work avoidance, and high work avoidance.

Although the previously mentioned clusters are expected, it is possible that the prominent clusters will have a different composition than proposed. Either way, once cluster types have been identified, analyses will be conducted to determine whether or not these types predict significant outcomes. Due to significant relationships between the dimensions and outcomes (e.g., DeShon & Gillespie, 2005; Payne et al., 2007), it is believed that there will be stronger relationships between profile types and outcomes. In addition, significant relationships were found by Arnold (2006) in a student sample.

Hypothesis IXa. Goal orientation cluster type will predict satisfaction.

Hypothesis IXb. Goal orientation cluster type will predict self-efficacy.

Hypothesis IXc. Goal orientation cluster type will predict commitment.

Hypothesis IXd. Goal orientation cluster type will predict production.

Hypothesis IXe. Goal orientation cluster type will predict tenure.

Finally, analyses will be conducted to determine whether cluster types are a better predictor than the individual goal orientation dimensions. Typically, research has focused on outcomes related to being high or low on a certain dimension of goal orientation. This linear relationship is believed by the current project to be a weaker predictor of business outcomes than the cluster type. Arnold (2006) found that these relationships did not differ in magnitude. That

said, research at the student level may not embody the full impact of goal orientation and business outcomes in a work situation. Thus, the present study on veterinarians in practice is hypothesized to find a stronger relationship between profile types and business outcomes than the individual dimensions of goal orientation.

Hypothesis Xa. Goal orientation type will be a better predictor of satisfaction than the goal orientation dimensions.

Hypothesis Xb. Goal orientation type will be a better predictor of self-efficacy than the goal orientation dimensions.

Hypothesis Xc. Goal orientation type will be a better predictor of commitment than the goal orientation dimensions.

Hypothesis Xd. Goal orientation type will be a better predictor of production than the goal orientation dimensions.

Hypothesis Xe. Goal orientation type will be a better predictor of tenure than the goal orientation dimensions.

CHAPTER II METHOD

Research Participants

Data for the present study were collected at two conferences held by a large corporation of small animal veterinary hospitals in the United States for organizational purposes in 2009. Subsequently, archival organizational data was pulled relating to performance and tenure. Data were gathered from 295 veterinarians. According to power analysis, this sample size, with an r-squared of .2 and an alpha of .05, will provide power = .9. Two hundred and ninety-five participants provide appropriate power to detect significant findings through the proposed analyses, including multiple regression and structural equation modeling. Also, this is a significant number of participants to determine dimensionality using factor analysis.

Participants were 295 veterinarians and there were 52 males and 242 females. The sample includes 132 veterinarians 30 years and under, 107 between the ages of 31 and 40, 41 between the ages of 41 and 50, 12 between the ages of 51 and 60 and 3 veterinarians 61 years old or older. Three participants identified themselves as American Indian or Alaskan Natives, 20 as Asian, 18 are Black or African American (not of Hispanic Origin), 5 as Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, 237 White or Caucasian, and 10 as Hispanic. One-hundred and twenty-three participants had worked as a veterinarian for fewer than 2 years, 80 for three to five years, 41 for six to 10 years, 30 for 11 to 20 years, and 21 for more than 21 years. See Table 1 for frequencies and percentages related to age, race, and years working as a veterinarian.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages of Participant Demographics

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	52	17.69
Female	242	82.31
Total	294	100.00
Age		
0-30	132	45.21
31-40	107	36.64
41-50	41	14.04
51-60	12	4.11
60+	3	1.03
Total	292	100.00
Race		
American Indian or Alaskan Native	3	1.02
Asian	20	6.83
Black or African American (not of Hispanic origin)	18	6.14
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	5	1.71
White or Caucasian	237	80.89
Hispanic	10	3.41
Total	293	100.00
Years as Vet		
0-2	123	41.69
3-5	80	27.12
6-10	41	13.90
11-20	30	10.17
21+	21	7.12
Total	295	100.00

Measures

Goal orientation. Vandewalle's (1997) Work Domain Goal Orientation Scale was used to assess goal orientation in the work setting of a corporate veterinary practice. This scale consists of 13 items: five items measure learning goal orientation, four items measure performance avoid goal orientation, and four items measure performance approach goal orientation (see Appendix A). These items were presented using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree). All three measures (learning, performance avoid, and performance approach) were treated as continuous variables and participants received a score on each dimension of goal orientation.

Work Avoidance. Items were developed from those used by Meece, Blumenfield, and Hoyle (1988) and Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, and Elliot (1997). This scale consists of 5 items (see Appendix B) presented using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree). These scale items were delivered in combination with the goal orientation items for continuity and to avoid transparency.

Satisfaction. Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction was measured using a 20-item modified version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Items were modified to relate to the veterinarian work context. Examples include "At work, I feel the chance to be a leader" and, "At work, I feel the level of community/camaraderie" (see Appendix C). Participants responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). Possible scores of general satisfaction range between 20 and

100 (between 12 and 60 for intrinsic satisfaction, and 6 and 30 for extrinsic satisfaction).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was measured using a version of Maurer and Andrews (2000) measure of self-efficacy. Average patient charge (APC) is a common performance indicator in veterinary medicine. APC is an average of the total charge for each patient seen. The relationship between APC and performance is not meant to link speed or sales of veterinary service to performance, but it is believed that a higher average patient charge is related to more thorough and comprehensive treatment plans. These high quality treatment plans would include more diagnostic tests to determine the cause of symptoms and utilize the best medicine in treating the diagnosed illness. In addition, a higher APC implies the ability, not only to conduct a thorough physical exam and create a high quality treatment plan, but also to gain commitment from the owner.

Participants were asked about their belief in their ability to obtain a high APC and perform their job at a high standard (see Appendix D). Responses were collected using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly agree, 5 = strongly disagree). After correcting for reverse coded items and reversing the entire scale, the self-efficacy score was calculated as the average of responses on the six items and scores ranged from 1 to 5, with higher scores indicating higher levels of self-efficacy.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured using Allen and Meyer's (1990) scale of three components: affective, normative, and continuance commitment. All responses were made using a 7-point Likert-

type scale (1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree). The affective commitment scale measured how the participant felt about remaining with the organization. Affective commitment was assessed by eight items such as, “I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” and, “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization”. The normative commitment scale assesses an individual’s intention to stay with the organization because it is the right thing to do. Normative commitment was measured by eight items such as, “It would be hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to” and, “Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire”. The continuance commitment scale measures the costs and availability of alternatives that are associated with leaving the organization. Continuance commitment was measured by eight items such as, “I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization” and, “Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers” (see Appendix E).

Performance. Performance data were gathered from the human resources department of the organization surveyed. Veterinarian production as an average dollar amount of work completed per patient (average patient charge or APC; see Self-efficacy for more detail on APC) was gathered as an average for the survey year of 2009. Similar to human medicine, a higher average charge per patient is representative of higher quality of medicine practiced. The goal of increasing APC is not simply to improve the amount charged to the owner, but to ensure that the owner is offered the highest quality care for their pet and understands the

value of the treatment plan well enough to invest in this level of care for their pet. A veterinarian with a consistently low APC is likely using fewer diagnostics and less pain management, which can lead to a lower quality of care. According to the American Animal Hospital Association (AAHA), the average patient charge across practices in 2009 was \$109.20 (Albers & Cavanaugh, 2010).

Tenure. Data on length of tenure with the organization were also pulled by the human resources department along with performance data and will be entered as the number of years with this corporate veterinary practice. This data was pulled in March of 2011 and counts the number of years with the organization up until March of 2011 or until the date that their employment was terminated.

Procedure

Participation in this study occurred during free time at one of two company sponsored educational conferences in January and March of 2009. Participants were given a packet at registration to be returned by the end of the four day conference. Participation was exclusively available to veterinarians and was completely voluntary. The questionnaire included the measures previously described related to goal orientation, work avoidance, satisfaction, self-efficacy, and organizational commitment. Participants who completed the questionnaire also provided the following information: demographic information including gender, age, ethnicity, and years working as a veterinarian; release form signed to indicate that the human resources department is authorized to connect the data collected with performance and tenure data, and their scores on previously obtained measures including the Goal Orientation Scale, the Work Avoidance

Scale, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, the commitment scales and the self-efficacy measure. Once completed, participants returned their completed packets into the conference office. In anticipation that this data might be useful for future research by the current author, the release form was written to IRB standards and participants were informed that the data might be used for future academic research, but that their information would be anonymous and confidential for these purposes. Since this data was gathered, the organization has used the information to gain a stronger understanding of veterinarians, in general, and specifically veterinarians working for this practice.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Analysis of results was conducted to examine the proposed model of goal orientation. Relationships were examined between goal orientation dimensions and proximal outcomes of satisfaction, self-efficacy, and commitment. Then, analyses were conducted to show a relationship between these proximal outcomes and more distal outcomes including production and tenure. Analyses were also conducted to examine the number and nature of goal orientation cluster types. Goal orientation profile types were examined for their ability to effectively predict the dependent variables listed previously. Lastly, goal orientation type and goal orientation dimension were compared to see which method of analyzing this individual difference variable predicts best for the outcome variables of satisfaction, self-efficacy, commitment, production, and tenure.

Variable-Centered Approach

The goal orientation dimensions were examined using the variable-centered approach. In this sample of 295 veterinarians, it was found that the means (and standard deviations) for learning, approach, avoid goal orientation and work avoidance were 1.98 ($SD = 0.69$), 3.58 ($SD = 0.91$), 4.41 ($SD = 0.97$), and 4.51 ($SD = 0.91$), respectively (see Table 2). Intercorrelations between the three dimensions of goal orientation and the dependent variables are also shown in Table 2. As has been found in previous research (e.g., Payne et al. (2007), there is a significant negative correlation between learning and performance avoid goal orientation ($r = -0.46, p < .01$) and a significant positive relationship between

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations of Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Learning GO	1.98	.69	(.84)											
2. Approach GO	3.58	.91	.09	(.70)										
3. Avoid GO	4.41	.97	-.46**	.30**	(.82)									
4. Work Avoidance	4.51	.91	-.40**	.15*	.48**	(.80)								
5. Intrinsic Satisfaction	3.80	.53	-.15*	.00	.13*	.20**	(.84)							
6. Extrinsic Satisfaction	3.27	.70	-.11	-.07	.08	.14*	.61**	(.81)						
7. Self-efficacy	2.21	.74	.14*	.07	-.11	-.16**	-.33**	-.27**	(.85)					
8. Normative Commitment	4.02	.97	.01	.10	.01	-.06	-.34**	-.22**	-.02	(.68)				
9. Affective Commitment	3.65	1.13	.17**	.07	-.12*	-.23**	-.55**	-.54**	.22**	.53**	(.87)			
10. Continuance Commitment	3.75	1.20	-.12*	.08	.15*	.20**	.14*	.11	-.12*	.02	-.03	(.76)		
11. Production (APC)	99.52	13.36	-.12	-.02	.07	.01	.11	.11	-.37**	.11	-.09	-.01	-	
12. Tenure (yrs)	3.39	1.99	.06	-.04	.03	-.06	.29**	.22**	-.30**	-.04	-.18**	-.06	.22**	-

Note. N = 295. *p ≤ .05, two-tailed. **p ≤ .01, two-tailed. GO = goal orientation. APC = average patient charge in dollars. Yrs = years with organization. GO and Work Avoidance (6-point; 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Satisfaction (5-point; 1 = very dissatisfied; 5 = very satisfied). Self-efficacy (5-point; 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Commitment (7-point; 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

approach and avoid performance goal orientations ($r = 0.30, p < .01$). In addition, work avoidance was significantly correlated with learning, approach, and avoid goal orientation ($r = -0.40, p < .01$; $r = 0.15, p < .05$; $r = 0.48, p < .01$; respectively).

In examination of hypotheses I-VII, the following analyses were conducted and are listed in Table 2. Hypothesis Ia was supported by a significant relationship between learning goal orientation and self-efficacy ($r = 0.14, p < 0.05$). Hypothesis Ib was not supported in that a negative, rather than positive, relationship was found between intrinsic satisfaction and learning goal orientation ($r = -0.15, p < 0.05$) and there was not a significant relationship between learning goal orientation and extrinsic satisfaction ($r = -0.11, p = 0.06$). Hypothesis Ic was partially supported by the positive relationship between learning goal orientation and affective commitment ($r = 0.17, p < 0.01$). At the same time, no significant relationship was found between learning goal orientation and normative commitment ($r = -0.01, p = 0.85$) and there was actually a significant negative relationship between learning goal orientation and continuance commitment ($r = -0.12, p < 0.05$).

In terms of hypothesis IIa, performance approach goal orientation was not significantly related to either intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction ($r = 0.00, p = 0.98$; $r = -0.07, p = 0.21$; respectively). Performance approach was also found to be unrelated to normative, affective and continuance commitment ($r = 0.07, p = 0.23$; $r = 0.07, p = 0.22$; $r = 0.08, p = 0.04$; respectively), contradicting hypothesis IIb as well.

Hypothesis IIIa was also not supported with no significant relationship found between performance avoid goal orientation and self-efficacy ($r = -0.11, p = 0.07$). Yet, hypotheses IIIb and IIIc were both partially supported through the significant negative relationship between performance avoid and affective commitment ($r = -0.12, p < .05$), but significant positive relationships were also found of performance avoid goal orientation with intrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment ($r = 0.13, p < .05$; $r = 0.15, p < .05$).

Hypothesis IVa was partially supported by the significant negative relationship between work avoidance and affective commitment ($r = -0.23, p < .01$) and a positive relationship with continuance commitment ($r = 0.20, p < .01$). Hypothesis IVb was supported. Work avoidance was found to have significant negative relationship with self-efficacy ($r = -0.16, p < .01$).

In terms of intercorrelations between variables, there were several significant relationships. But, hypothesis V was unsupported by the significant negative relationship between self-efficacy and production ($r = -0.37, p < .01$). Hypothesis VI was supported with a significant positive relationship between both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and tenure ($r = 0.29, p < .01$; $r = 0.22, p < .01$). As for commitment and tenure described by hypothesis VII, it was found that there was a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and tenure ($r = -0.18, p < .01$) as opposed to the proposed positive relationship. Additional significant relationships were found between intrinsic satisfaction and extrinsic satisfaction ($r = 0.61, p < .01$), work avoidance ($r = 0.20, p < .01$), self-efficacy ($r = -0.33, p < .01$), normative commitment ($r = -0.21, p < .01$), affective

commitment ($r = -0.55, p < .01$) and continuance commitment ($r = 0.14, p < .05$). Extrinsic satisfaction was found to have significant relationships with work avoidance, self-efficacy, normative commitment and affective commitment ($r = 0.14, p < .05$; $r = -0.27, p < .01$; $r = -0.22, p < .01$; $r = -0.54, p < .01$; respectively). Self-efficacy also had significant relationships with affective commitment ($r = 0.22, p < .01$), continuance commitment ($r = -0.12, p < .05$) and tenure ($r = -0.30, p < .01$). Tenure was found to have a significant positive relationship with production ($r = -0.22, p < .01$) and affective commitment was found to have significant positive relationship with normative commitment ($r = 0.53, p < .01$).

Multiple regression equations were used to predict the outcome and attitudinal variables from the three goal orientation dimensions (see Table 3). The predictive power (R) was examined and it was found that intrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, affective commitment and continuance commitment were all significantly predicted by the four personality dimensions ($R = 0.21, p < .01$; $R = 0.20, p < .05$; $R = 0.25, p > .01$; $R = 0.22, p < .01$).

Person-Centered Approach

In examination of Hypothesis VIIIa, regarding the number of goal orientation profile types, hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted using the three goal orientation dimensions and work avoidance to describe each emerging cluster. An alternative method for creating profile type groups as described previously would be to create groups using high and low determinations that are one standard deviation above or below the mean for that dimension (VanYperen

Table 3

Regression of Goal Orientation Dimensions onto Relevant Dependent Variables

Variable	β	R	R ²
Production		.13	.02
Learning GO	-.12		
Approach GO	-.02		
Avoid GO	.05		
Work Avoidance	-.06		
Intrinsic Satisfaction		.21**	.05
Learning GO	-.06		
Approach GO	-.02		
Avoid GO	.02		
Work Avoidance	.17**		
Extrinsic Satisfaction		.17	.03
Learning GO	-.03		
Approach GO	-.10		
Avoid GO	.03		
Work Avoidance	.12		
Self-efficacy		.20*	.04
Learning GO	.05		
Approach GO	.10		
Avoid GO	-.05		
Work Avoidance	-.13		
Normative Commitment		.15	.02
Learning GO	-.10		
Approach GO	.11		
Avoid GO	-.04		
Work Avoidance	-.13		
Affective Commitment		.25**	.06
Learning GO	.07		
Approach GO	.09		
Avoid GO	-.01		
Work Avoidance	-.20**		

Table 3 (continued)

Variable	β	R	R ²
Continuance Commitment		.22**	.05
Learning GO	-.04		
Approach GO	.04		
Avoid GO	.03		
Work Avoidance	.17**		
Tenure		.12	.01
Learning GO	.09		
Approach GO	-.09		
Avoid GO	.11		
Work Avoidance	-.06		

Note. N = 295. * $p \leq .05$, two-tailed. ** $p \leq .01$, two-tailed. GO = goal orientation.

& Janssen, 2002). While this method is theoretically sound and acceptable, cluster analysis was used to seek further analytical support for this method. Theoretically, if three dimensions typically affect outcomes when they are high and low, there will be six emerging groups of combinations of high and low levels of the three goal orientation dimensions and work avoidance. The cluster analysis procedure used was based on suggestions in previous empirical research (e.g., Asendorpf et al., 2001; Ekehammar & Akrami, 2003). Ward's hierarchical clustering procedure was used on the individual goal orientation and work avoidance dimension scores on the basis of the Squared Euclidean Distances (SEDs) between profiles. A variety of numbers of cluster solutions emerged. Based on the dendrogram and the SEDs produced, the best solutions appeared to be two, four, or six clusters. These three possible cluster solutions were used as initial values in a non-hierarchical K-means cluster analysis. The number of iterations to a cluster solution and the previous SEDs were used to determine the best cluster solution. Contrary to hypothesis IIIa, the four cluster solution was found to be the most satisfactory, finding stability after seven iterations. The four cluster solution was used for further analyses.

Regarding the nature of the four goal orientation profile types and hypothesis VIIIb, the means were examined to identify the goal orientation profile represented by each cluster type (see Table 4). The cluster means for each dimension of goal orientation and work avoidance are displayed in Figure 1. Clusters were determined to be high or low on each dimension relative to the overall mean on that dimension for all participants. For example, several clusters

Table 4

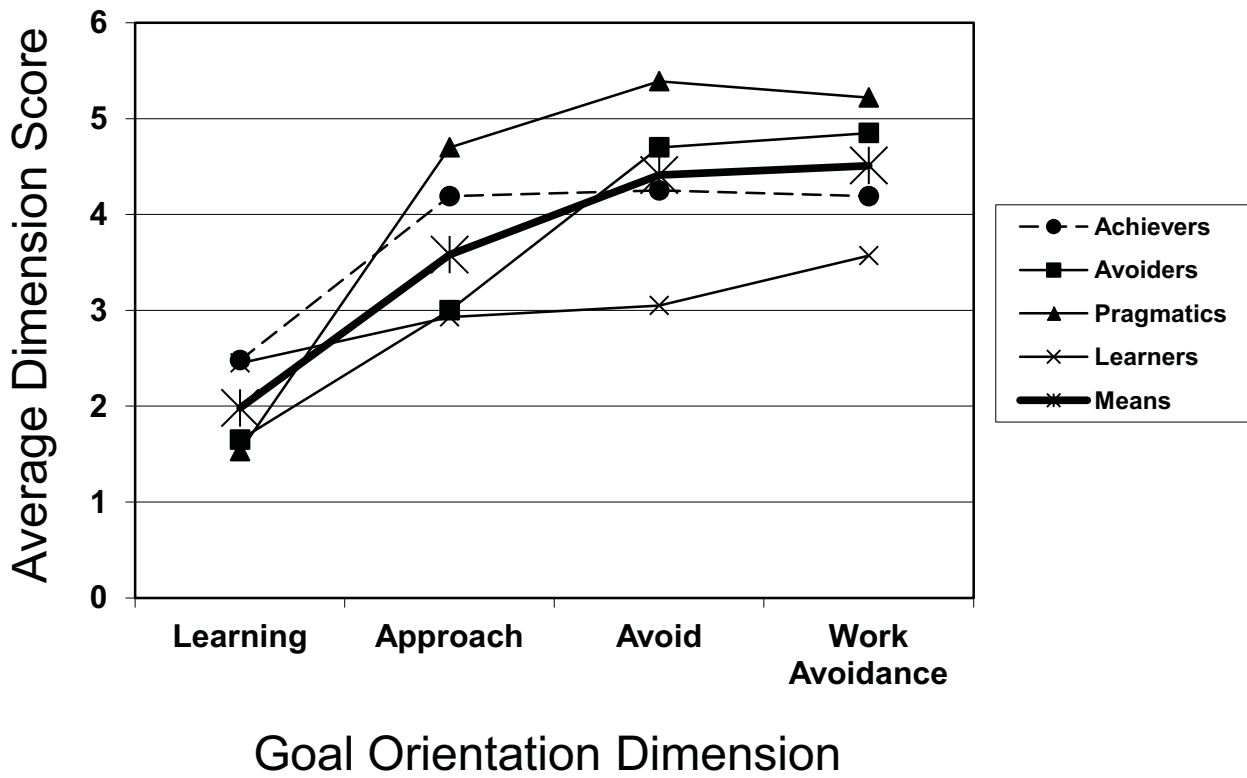
Mean Goal Orientation Dimension Scores for Groups Identified through K-means Cluster Analysis

Cluster	N	Learning GO	Approach GO	Avoid GO	Work Avoidance
1. Achievers	61	2.48(H)	4.19(H)	4.25(L)	4.19(L)
2. Avoiders	96	1.65(L)	3.00(L)	4.70(H)	4.85(H)
3. Pragmatics	64	1.53(L)	4.70(H)	5.39(H)	5.22(H)
4. Learners	68	2.45(H)	2.93(L)	3.05(L)	3.57(L)
Dimension Means		1.98	3.58	4.41	4.51

Note. H = High. L= Low.

Figure 1

Cluster Means for Goal Orientation Dimensions Compared



are categorized by participants who are high on learning goal orientation, but this is high relative to the mean and might actually be lower than their scores on the other dimensions. Cluster one is made up of participants who are high on learning and performance approach goal orientation and will be referred to as the Achievers. The second cluster has participants high on performance avoid goal orientation and work avoidance who will be called the Avoiders. Cluster three has participants high on performance approach, performance avoid and work avoidance and they will be called the Pragmatics. Cluster four has participants high on only learning goal orientation, so they will be referred to as the Learners. Descriptive statistics and differences between the individuals of each goal orientation type are described in Table 5.

Hypothesis IXa-e states that goal orientation type will be a significant predictor of the five dependent variables. Multiple regression was used to assess how well goal orientation type predicts satisfaction, self-efficacy, commitment, production, and tenure in parallel with the procedure used in the variable-centered approach. Multiple regression equations predicting the five dependent variables from the goal orientation personality types were computed. A new variable was created based on the placement of each participant into one of the four clusters identified previously. This variable was used in the regression as the predictor of the intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, affective, normative and continuance commitment, production and tenure. In support of hypothesis IXc, affective and continuance commitment were both found to predict differences in goal orientation cluster type ($R = 0.20, p < .05$; $R = 0.20, p < .05$; respectively).

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Differences between Clusters on Outcome Variables

Outcome	Cluster	M	SD	F	Sig.	eta ²
Production				.85	.47	.01
	Achievers	98.72	12.81			
	Avoiders	98.85	12.13			
	Pragmatics	102.55	13.54			
	Learners	99.62	17.09			
	Total	99.62	13.59			
Intrinsic Satisfaction				2.56	.06	.03
	Achievers	3.69	.06			
	Avoiders	3.87	.05			
	Pragmatics	3.80	.09			
	Learners	3.65	.08			
	Total	3.78	.03			
Extrinsic Satisfaction				1.49	.22	.02
	Achievers	3.18	.09			
	Avoiders	3.36	.07			
	Pragmatics	3.25	.11			
	Learners	3.14	.10			
	Total	3.26	.04			
Self-efficacy				2.02	.11	.02
	Achievers	2.22	.75			
	Avoiders	2.09	.72			
	Pragmatics	2.24	.78			
	Learners	2.40	.78			
	Total	2.21	.75			
Normative Commitment				.31	.82	.00
	Achievers	4.12	.98			
	Avoiders	4.00	1.04			
	Pragmatics	3.97	.93			
	Learners	3.98	.94			
	Total	4.02	.99			

Table 5 (continued)

Outcome	Cluster	M	SD	F	Sig.	eta ²
Affective Commitment				3.02	.03	.03
	Achievers	3.92 _a	1.05			
	Avoiders	3.45 _a	1.14			
	Pragmatics	3.60	1.12			
	Learners	3.87	1.15			
	Total	3.66	1.13			
Continuance Commitment				2.49	.06	.03
	Achievers	3.65	1.22			
	Avoiders	3.82	1.22			
	Pragmatics	3.98	1.13			
	Learners	3.37	1.16			
	Total	3.72	1.21			
Tenure				.52	.67	.01
	Achievers	3.52	1.65			
	Avoiders	3.44	1.98			
	Pragmatics	3.20	1.93			
	Learners	3.14	1.93			
	Total	3.36	1.89			

Note. N = 295. Subscript letters indicate significant difference between clusters.

Table 6

Regression of Goal Orientation Cluster Type Dummy Codes onto Relevant Dependent Variables

Variable	β	R	R ²
Production		.11	.01
Achievers	-.15		
Avoiders	-.16		
Pragmatics	-.03		
Learners	-.13		
Intrinsic Satisfaction		.18	.03
Achievers	-.34*		
Avoiders	-.25		
Pragmatics	-.24		
Learners	-.34*		
Extrinsic Satisfaction		.16	.03
Achievers	-.33*		
Avoiders	-.24		
Pragmatics	-.26		
Learners	-.31*		
Self-efficacy		.17	.03
Achievers	.14		
Avoiders	.09		
Pragmatics	.17		
Learners	.24		
Normative Commitment		.05	.00
Achievers	.11		
Avoiders	.08		
Pragmatics	.06		
Learners	.07		
Affective Commitment		.20*	.04
Achievers	.28		
Avoiders	.12		
Pragmatics	.14		
Learners	.25		
Continuance Commitment		.20*	.04
Achievers	-.28		
Avoiders	-.26		
Pragmatics	-.15		
Learners	-.37*		

Table 6 (continued)

Variable	β	R	R ²
Tenure		.16	.03
Achievers	-.36*		
Avoiders	-.40*		
Pragmatics	-.37**		
Learners	-.37**		

Note. N = 295. * $p \leq .05$, two-tailed. ** $p \leq .01$, two-tailed.

None of the other dependent variables were found to be significantly predicted by goal orientation profile type (see Table 6). Goal orientation profile type was not found to be a significant predictor of production, intrinsic or extrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, normative commitment or tenure ($R = 0.11$; $R = 0.18$; $R = 0.16$; $R = 0.17$; $R = 0.05$; $R = 0.16$; respectively).

Person-Centered Versus Variable-Centered Approach

Hypothesis X proposes that the person-centered goal orientation profile type will predict the dependent variables better than the variable-centered goal orientation dimensions. To examine these hypotheses the resulting multiple correlation coefficients for goal orientation dimensions and goal orientation profile types were compared. Hypothesis X was not supported for the dependent variables of performance, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, normative, affective, and continuance commitment (see Table 7). Profile types did have a higher multiple correlation coefficient than goal orientation dimensions on the variable of tenure ($R = .16$, $R = .12$, respectively).

The second method for comparing the predictive power of goal orientation dimensions and profile types involved further hierarchical regression analyses on the total sample according to two different models. The first model entered the four goal orientation dimensions. The second model entered the four goal orientation dimensions and then the dummy coded profile types. The amount of explained variance was examined in both models. Hypothesis X was supported by this second method of analyses in that goal orientation profile type added explained variance in addition to the explained variance accounted for by the goal

Table 7

Comparison of Goal Orientation Dimension and Cluster Multiple Correlation Coefficients

Variable	Dimension R	Profile R
Performance	.13	.11
Intrinsic Satisfaction	.21**	.18
Extrinsic Satisfaction	.17	.16
Self-efficacy	.20*	.17
Normative Commitment	.15	.05
Affective Commitment	.25**	.20*
Continuance Commitment	.22**	.20*
Tenure	.12	.16

Note. N = 295. * $p \leq .05$, two-tailed. ** $p \leq .01$, two-tailed.

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression of Goal Orientation Dimension and Cluster Type onto Relevant Dependent Variables

Variable	β	R	R ²	ΔR^2
Production				
Model 1		.13	.02	
Learning GO	-.12			
Approach GO	-.02			
Avoid GO	.05			
Work Avoidance	-.06			
Model 2		.19	.04	.02
Learning GO	-.11			
Approach GO	-.18			
Avoid GO	.04			
Work Avoidance	-.06			
Achievers	.10			
Avoiders	-.05			
Pragmatics	.18			
Intrinsic Satisfaction				
Model 1		.21**	.05	
Learning GO	-.06			
Approach GO	-.02			
Avoid GO	.02			
Work Avoidance	.17**			
Model 2		.24*	.06	.01
Learning GO	-.09			
Approach GO	.12			
Avoid GO	.09			
Work Avoidance	.20**			
Achievers	-.15			
Avoiders	-.09			
Pragmatics	-.26			
Extrinsic Satisfaction				
Model 1		.17	.03	
Learning GO	-.03			
Approach GO	-.10			
Avoid GO	.03			
Work Avoidance	.12			
Model 2		.18	.03	.00
Learning GO	-.05			
Approach GO	-.05			
Avoid GO	.05			
Work Avoidance	.14			
Achievers	-.03			
Avoiders	-.02			
Pragmatics	-.09			

Table 8 (continued)

Variable	β	R	R ²	ΔR^2
Self-efficacy				
Model 1		.20*	.04	
Learning GO	.05			
Approach GO	.10			
Avoid GO	-.05			
Work Avoidance	-.13			
Model 2		.23*	.06	.02
Learning GO	.11			
Approach GO	.10			
Avoid GO	-.07			
Work Avoidance	-.15*			
Achievers	-.10			
Avoiders	.01			
Pragmatics	.08			
Normative Commitment				
Model 1		.15	.02	
Learning GO	-.10			
Approach GO	.11			
Avoid GO	-.04			
Work Avoidance	-.13			
Model 2		.17	.03	.01
Learning GO	-.10			
Approach GO	.17			
Avoid GO	-.05			
Work Avoidance	-.14			
Achievers	.00			
Avoiders	.06			
Pragmatics	-.05			
Affective Commitment				
Model 1		.25**	.06	
Learning GO	.07			
Approach GO	.09			
Avoid GO	-.01			
Work Avoidance	-.20**			
Model 2		.25**	.06	.00
Learning GO	.07			
Approach GO	.05			
Avoid GO	-.02			
Work Avoidance	-.20**			
Achievers	.05			
Avoiders	.00			
Pragmatics	.06			

Table 8 (continued)

Variable	β	R	R ²	ΔR^2
Continuance Commitment				
Model 1		.22**	.05	
Learning GO	-.04			
Approach GO	.04			
Avoid GO	.03			
Work Avoidance	.17**			
Model 2		.22**	.05	.00
Learning GO	-.04			
Approach GO	.04			
Avoid GO	.01			
Work Avoidance	.16*			
Achievers	.05			
Avoiders	.06			
Pragmatics	.05			
Tenure				
Model 1		.12	.01	
Learning GO	.09			
Approach GO	-.09			
Avoid GO	.11			
Work Avoidance	-.06			
Model 2		.14	.02	.01
Learning GO	.11			
Approach GO	-.11			
Avoid GO	.04			
Work Avoidance	-.10			
Achievers	.12			
Avoiders	.16			
Pragmatics	.15			

Note. N = 295. * $p \leq .05$, two-tailed. ** $p \leq .01$, two-tailed. GO = goal orientation.

orientation dimensions for each of the dependent variables (see Table 8). The change in R^2 for the dependent variables of production, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, normative, affective and continuance commitment and tenure were as follows: .02, .01, .00, .02, .01, .00, .00 and .01, respectively. This data shows that goal orientation profile type provides incremental information over that which is provided by the goal orientation dimensions alone for production, intrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, normative commitment and tenure.

It has been found that there are four emergent clusters as follows:

Achievers, Avoiders, Pragmatics and Learners. Some of these types were found to have significant relationships with satisfaction and tenure, but largely, the relationships were not significant with the other dependent variables of performance, self-efficacy and commitment. Still, these analyses provide interesting evidence in further examination of the goal orientation construct and in illuminating the goal orientation of veterinarians.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

As stated previously, this study has provided evidence of several common types of goal orientation profiles. These groups only sporadically predicted important dependent variables (see Table 9 for a summary of findings). Furthermore, there is only partial evidence that these profile types predict additional information to that found through the goal orientation dimensions. Still, this data does provide additional illumination of the goal orientation profiles and, in particular, goal orientation in veterinarians. Also, the work avoidance personality measure seems to have some strong relationships with important outcome variables. This research provides additional information in the struggle to define and utilize the goal orientation measure in organizations.

Variable-Centered Approach

The more traditional analysis of goal orientation dimensions led to findings similar to those from previous research (e.g., Cellar et al., 2011). Performance avoid goal orientation was found to have a negative relationship with learning goal orientation and a positive relationship with performance approach goal orientation. In addition, it was found the added measure of work avoidance was significantly positively related to approach and avoid goal orientation and negatively related to learning goal orientation. It makes sense that the instinct to do your best for the sake of learning would be in contradiction with the drive to avoid any extra work. At the same time, the performance dimensions positive relationship with work avoidance is a consistent part of the motivation to

Table 9

Summary of Results of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Results
HIa LGO positively related to SE	Supported
HIb LGO positively related to Satisfaction	Not supported
HIc LGO positively related to Commitment	Partially supported
IIIIa PAPGO positively related to Satisfaction	Not supported
IIIIb PAPGO positively related to Commitment	Not supported
IIIIa PAVGO positively related to SE	Not supported
IIIIb PAVGO negatively related to Satisfaction	Partially supported
IIIIc PAVGO negatively related to Commitment	Partially supported
HIVa WA negatively related to Commitment	Partially supported
HIVb WA negatively related to SE	Supported
HV SE positively related to Production	Not supported
HVI Satisfaction positively related to Tenure	Supported
HVII Commitment positively related to Tenure	Not supported
HVIIIa 6 unique clusters will be identified	Not supported
HVIIIb Clusters: High PAPGO and PAVGO, Low all, High LGO, High LGO and PAPGO, High LGO and WA and High WA	Not supported
HIXa Cluster predicts Satisfaction	Not supported
HIXb Cluster predicts SE	Not supported
HIXc Cluster predicts Commitment	Partially Supported
HIXd Cluster predicts Production	Not supported
HIXe Cluster predicts Tenure	Not supported
HXa Cluster predicts Satisfaction better than dimensions	Not supported
HXb Cluster predicts SE better than dimensions	Not supported
HXc Cluster predicts Commitment better than dimensions	Not supported
HXd Cluster predicts Production better than dimensions	Not supported
HXe Cluster predicts Tenure better than dimensions	Supported

Note. LGO = learning goal orientation. SE = self-efficacy. PAPGO = performance approach goal orientation. PAVGO = performance avoid goal orientation. WA = work avoidance.

simply show your competence or avoid failure, but with the least amount of effort expended. Although related to all three dimensions, work avoidance seems to add an additional element to the description of motivational orientation in the workplace.

Learning goal orientation was found to have a positive relationship with self-efficacy, as was hypothesized. This relationship is in line with previous research (e.g., Payne et al., 2007). Individuals who seek to do their best and master new skills are more likely to have more confidence in their ability to be successful at a given task. At the same time, the proposed positive relationship between learning goal orientation and satisfaction was not supported. Actually, intrinsic satisfaction was found to have a negative relationship with learning goal orientation. It is unexpected that learning goal orientation would be negatively related to satisfaction. Perhaps, employees who were motivated to do their best seem to have belief in their ability to be successful, but are not satisfied with what they are getting out of their work.

An item level analysis of satisfaction provides a little more information in that the lowest intrinsic satisfaction items are related to being able to work alone and being able to use my own methods of doing things. There is a belief that the majority of veterinarians are introverts and it is possible that working in a team environment is even more frustrating to those who are really trying to focus on providing the best care to the pets. In addition, these veterinarians are working in a corporate environment with protocols and policies that encourage them from

exploring their own methods. This might also decrease the satisfaction of veterinarians high on learning goal orientation.

It was also found that learning goal orientation is positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to continuance commitment. It is possible that the corporate veterinary practice is responsible for both of these relationships. Those who are seeking to practice the very best medicine might feel stronger commitments to the community of veterinarians in the practice, working together to improve the quality of medicine. At the same time, some of the issues mentioned previously regarding intrinsic satisfaction might lead those high on learning goal orientation to feel less loyal in terms of pure tenure if they are not able to practice medicine in the way they prefer.

While there were no significant relationships between performance approach goal orientation and outcome variables, there were several interesting relationships with performance avoid goal orientation. Avoid goal orientation was found to have a negative relationship with affective commitment. So, those individuals who feel a strong emotional commitment to the organization were less likely to be motivated by avoiding situations that might show their lack of confidence. Interestingly, performance avoid was found to have positive relationships with both intrinsic satisfaction and continuance commitment. This actually makes sense for this population. These veterinarians use a medical record keeping software that walks them through protocols and algorithms that help to make sure they do not forget anything important. For those who are especially concerned with avoiding failure, they might be happier with this work

environment. Also, any job change would have a learning curve and the possibility of mistakes, so it is safer to remain with the same organization for as long as possible.

Work avoidance was actually the highest mean score of all the individual difference measures ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 0.91$). Harackiewicz and colleagues (1997) found slightly lower work avoidance means for a student sample ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.16$). But, what is more remarkable is the significantly lower means found in this study for learning ($M = 1.98$, $SD = 0.69$) and approach ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 0.91$) goal orientation. Avoid goal orientation had a mean closer to what was found for work avoidance ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 0.97$). The high score for performance avoid is logical given the nature of the work performed by a veterinarian. Any mistakes or even negative judgments by owner can lead to poor outcomes for an animal. In terms of work avoidance, it is possible that the time demands of the medical profession lead to increased pressure to complete tasks as efficiently as possible. It would be interesting to see if these findings would be replicated in the field of human medicine. It might be useful for future research to use a qualitative approach to find out more about the meaning behind these numbers.

Work avoidance was positively related to both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Again, this makes sense for veterinarians who are working in a corporate environment. Most veterinarians are faced with running a small business in addition to practicing medicine. Those who are not interested in this extra work are likely to be happier in a situation where they can focus on the aspects of veterinary medicine that they enjoy most. Work avoidance was also

found to be negatively related to self-efficacy. This is a logical finding in that participants who are motivated to do as little work as possible are likely to have less confidence in their ability to be successful. They seem to have a different set of priorities. So, those employees who do as little work as possible are not as confident in their ability, but seem to be fairly happy with the outcome. This goes back to the age old description that people can be satisfied at work for the wrong reasons, such as being able to avoid work. In addition, work avoidance was found to have a negative relationship with affective commitment and a positive relationship with continuance commitment. Those who are motivated to do as little work as possible are likely less emotionally attached to their organization, but at the same time realize that it is less work to stay with the same organization than to move from job to job.

There were also many interesting intercorrelations between the various outcome and attitudinal variables. In this sample, there were many unusual relationships between self-efficacy and other variables. Self-efficacy was found to have a negative relationship with the following variables: intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment, production, and tenure. Although unexpected, there are some possible explanations for how belief in one's ability to be successful might be negatively related to these outcomes. Almost half of the participants in this study are thirty years or younger and in the first two years of practicing as a veterinarian. These participants may have a hard time realistically estimating their ability and thus might be overestimating their likelihood of success compared to reality. In addition, the mismatch between their

perception of ability and their actual outcomes might lead to decreased satisfaction and commitment. There is a positive relationship between tenure and production, so these veterinarians do seem to improve over time, but their self-efficacy estimates might trend downward to a more realistic level.

Both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction were related to a longer tenure with the organization, as would be expected. At the same time, both aspects of satisfaction were related to reduced normative and affective commitment. Only continuance commitment was positively related to intrinsic satisfaction. So, those who feel that you should stay with an organization because of the barriers to leaving are high were satisfied. Those who were feel that you should stay with an organization and are emotionally attached felt less satisfied. It is possible that those who are committed because they feel like it is the right thing to do and they are emotionally attached have more invested to want things to improve than those who are simply loyal because they do not like the other alternatives.

Providing additional evidence for the usefulness of goal orientation in organizational research, it was found that these dimensions were predictors of intrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy, affective and continuance commitment. At the same time, work avoidance emerged as the strongest predictor of the four dimensions of goal orientation. An individual's motivation to avoid work was the strongest predictor of their satisfaction, self-efficacy and commitment. This provides strong evidence for the usefulness of this dimension in describing workplace motivation and key outcomes.

Person-Centered Approach

The goal orientation dimensions and work avoidance were examined at the level of the individual. It was found that there were four emergent clusters of participants with similar patterns of responding on each dimension. The means of the clusters were used to describe each cluster (see Figure 1). The first cluster is characterized by individuals who are high on learning and performance approach goal orientation and low on performance avoid goal orientation and work avoidance. Participants from this cluster were named the Achievers because of their desire to do their best and prove their competence to others. The second cluster is the largest group and made up of those who are high on performance avoidance goal orientation and work avoidance. These participants are called the Avoiders because of their motivation to avoid failure and work. The third group was found to be high on both performance dimensions and work avoidance and low on learning goal orientation. These individuals were named the Pragmatics due to their practical approach to work by seeking to prove their competence, avoid failure, while doing the least amount of work possible. The last cluster is made up of participants who are high on learning goal orientation and low on the three other measures, so they were simply named the Learners. While these groups are similar to those found by Arnold (2006), the addition of work avoidance and the veterinarian sample led to a slightly different profile for each group.

While these emerging clusters were not found to be significantly related to the dependent variables, the identification of these commonly motivated groups

using the addition of work avoidance adds interesting information to the study of goal orientation. Also, profile types were found to predict certain outcomes. Both the Achievers and the Learners were significant predictors of both types of satisfaction. Interestingly, these groups tend to have lower satisfaction. It is possible that the desire to achieve causes them to never be completely satisfied with the way things are because they always want to make them better.

Profile type was a significant predictor of both affective and normative commitment. All groups were predictors of tenure, with the Avoiders having the strongest negative relationship. It is not surprising that those who want to avoid work and failure would have lower tenure with an organization. The Avoiders would likely transition to another organization to avoid risking demonstrating a lack of confidence or if they believed that they were asked to do too much work. Most significantly, tenure was not a significant predictor of any of the goal orientation dimensions or work avoidance alone. This provides evidence that there is value in analyzing goal orientation in terms of profile groups.

Comparing Person-Centered and Variable-Centered Approaches

Further analyses were conducted to examine whether these identified profile types predict outcomes better than the separate dimensions. Several methods for comparison were used as recommended by previous research (Ekehammer & Akrami, 2003). First, the multiple correlation coefficients were compared and provided evidence that the dimensions predict outcomes better than profile types for performance, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, self-efficacy and normative, affective and continuance commitment. That said, profiles were found

to be better predictors of tenure than the goal orientation dimensions and work avoidance. Due to the significant costs of turnover for organizations, being able to predict which types of employees are more likely to turnover is significant.

The second method of comparing dimensions and profiles involved using regression to determine whether clusters add incremental variance to the prediction any outcome variables. This method did show that there was incremental variance accounted for by adding the profile types into the regression equation after the dimensions. The most additional explanation was provided by profiles for the performance measure and self-efficacy. It is important to note that the incremental variance accounted for was small. Although minor, it is a valuable finding that both dimensions and profiles provide different information regarding motivation in the workplace.

Implications

The examination of goal orientation and work avoidance profile types leads to several important implications. First, evidence is found to support emergent clusters of goal orientation. This finding should lead to further research examining the characteristics, predictors, and outcomes related to each profile type. Second, the relationship between these groups and different outcome variables may affect the way that goal orientation is used in the workplace. The Pragmatics were found to have the highest performance. So, those who are seeking to look good, avoid looking bad, and do as little work as possible actually were found to be the most successful. Proving competence and avoiding failures might lead to positive patient outcomes. A possibility is that being high on work

avoidance leads to efficiency. This might explain why these veterinarians have the highest performance. And the lowest performers were the Achievers, who are motivated to do their best and prove their competence. This is extremely interesting for organizations in selection and development. And, the ideal profile described by VandeWalle (1997) of someone who is high on learning, average on approach, and low on avoid may not be the best for predicting performance in all work scenarios. Anecdotally, it appears that some new veterinarians might be stalled from high performance by concern for doing the best they can with each patient. Third, the addition of work avoidance appears to add to the discussion of motivational personality at work. Work avoidance was the strongest predictor of outcomes, compared to the other goal orientation dimensions, providing strong evidence that the motivation to do as little work as possible should be considered an important aspect of workplace motivation. Lastly, there is evidence that cluster types provide some additional explanation beyond the dimensions. Thus, it will be important to examine both goal orientation dimensions and profiles to gather a complete view of the effects of these personality characteristics on behaviors in the workplace.

Limitations

There are several limitations that should be kept in mind while interpreting these findings. First, this research is based on self-report data, so it is based on individual's perceptions of themselves and what they feel comfortable sharing. So, conclusions from this data can only be generalized to employee's perceptions of themselves. Also, this data was collected in the context of a work event and,

while all efforts were made to communicate responses were anonymous and not being collected for a work purpose, this may have affected participant responses. In addition, this research was collected from a sample of veterinarians. This research does provide evidence of goal orientation profiles in a real work sample, but it may not be able to be generalized beyond veterinarians. Also, the number of cluster groups was chosen through subjective analysis of a dendrogram. It is possible that further analysis, with different samples, may create different number of groups that is more interpretable. Lastly, the goal orientation scores were used to create the cluster types. It is possible that this procedure affects the accuracy of further analyses comparing their findings. The range of scores used in the clusters was affected by the range restriction created by the means of goal orientation dimensions.

Conclusions

The findings in the study provide further evidence for the usefulness of goal orientation profiles in describing behaviors in the workplace. Most importantly, the relationship between profile type and tenure and performance is extremely important for work processes such as selection, training and development. Still, there is need for further research to continue to illuminate the construct of goal orientation in profiles of employees. It is important to see if these profile types can be found in various work environments and to examine additional relationships with outcomes. Although the profiles are not predicting significantly stronger than dimensions, most of the previous research points to

findings related to a singular dimension and not the relationship with all dimensions and outcomes.

This research included the dimension of work avoidance, as has been done in recent research (Harackewicz et al., 1997). Work avoidance was found to provide additional information to goal orientation profiles and significant relationships with outcomes. Future research should continue to include this dimension as a critical part of motivation in achievement situations.

It would be interesting to see additional research looking at profiles as opposed to the variable level of analysis. All organizational decisions ultimately come down to the level of the individual (John, 1992). One of the challenges is that employees have various aspects to their personality that surface in behaviors that are both positive and negative. In understanding more about the overall personality and motivation of employees, organizations can make better decisions about who to hire, which behaviors to manage, how to develop employees and more. This is evidenced by the high performance of the Pragmatics. These individuals could be portrayed negatively because of their desire to gain approval, avoid negative perceptions, and avoid work. Yet, they are the strongest performers, so there may be value in their perspective. The Pragmatics may benefit from a different approach to development might be successful compared to what is used for the Achievers and Learners. For the benefit of organizations, future research should continue to illuminate the relationships between goal orientation profile types and workplace outcomes.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

Goal orientation is a variable examining the motivational personality of individuals in achievement situations. This variable has been typically examined using three dimensions: learning, performance approach, and performance avoid. More recently, research has examined the relationship between these dimensions and an additional dimension of work avoidance, or the motivation to do as little work as possible. Although this research has been examined in many settings and with varying participants, there has been little research on the common profiles of individuals on all of these dimensions. The purpose of the present study is to verify these common profile types of goal orientation profile types in a workplace setting, and determine whether these types predict level of performance, satisfaction, self-efficacy, commitment and tenure in a workplace setting.

Goal orientation and work avoidance dimensions and profiles were studied in relationship to performance, satisfaction, self-efficacy, commitment and tenure. It was found that dimensions were the only significant predictors of satisfaction and self-efficacy. Still, there was evidence that the profiles were related to outcomes and, specifically, profiles were a stronger predictor of tenure. In addition, the dimension of work avoidance appears to provide additional information to the emerging profile types.

These results provide important evidence of the emerging common goal orientation profile types. These groups were found to have different outcomes,

most notably in performance and tenure. This research provides evidence that there is value in examining goal orientation dimensions, adding in the work avoidance construct, and predicting various outcomes.

REFERENCES

- Adam, J.S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 62, 335-343.
- Albers, J.W., & Cavanaugh, M.T. (2010). 2010 AAHA state of the industry report. *Trends Online*. Retrieved on April 10, 2012.
- Alderfer, C.P. (1969). An empirical test of a new theory of human needs. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4, 142-175.
- Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
- Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 252-276.
- Arnold, K. (2006). Person-centered versus variable-centered approach to goal orientation research (Master's thesis). DePaul University, Chicago, IL.
- Asendorpf, J.B. (2003). Head-to-head comparison of the predictive validity of personality types and personality dimensions. *European Journal of Personality*, 17, 327-346.
- Asendorpf, J.B., Borkenau, P., Ostendorf, F., & Van Aken, M.A.G. (2001). Carving personality description at its joints: Confirmation of three replicable personality prototypes for both children and adults. *European Journal of Personality*, 15, 169-198.
- Asendorpf, J.B., & Van Aken, M.A.G. (1999). Resilient, overcontrolled, and undercontrolled personality prototypes in childhood: Replicability,

predictive power, and the trait-type issue. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 815-832.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

Baranik, L.E., Barron, K.E., & Finney, S.J. (2007). Measuring goal orientation in a work domain: Construct validity evidence for the 2x2 framework. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 67, 697-718.

Barrick, M.R., Mount, M.K., & Judge, T.A. (2001). Personality and performance at the beginning of the new millennium: What do we know and where do we go next? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9, 9-30.

Barron, K.E., & Harackiewicz, J.M. (2001). Achievement goals and optimal motivation: Testing multiple goal models. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41, 586-598.

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.

Bergman, L.R. (1988). You can't classify all of the people all of the time. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 23, 425-441.

Bergman, L.R. (2000). The application of a person-centered approach: Types and clusters. In L.R. Bergman, R. Cairns, L.-G. Nilsson, & L. Nystedt (Eds.), *Developmental science and the holistic approach* (pp. 137-154). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bergman, L.R., Cairns, R.B., Nilsson, L.-G., & Nystedt, L. (2000). Introduction. In L.R. Bergman, R. Cairns, L.-G. Nilsson, & L. Nystedt (Eds.),

Developmental science and the holistic approach (pp. 3-9). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bergman, L.R., & Magnusson, D. (1997). A person-oriented approach in research on developmental psychopathology. *Development and Psychopathology*, 9, 291-319.

Bipp, J., Steinmayr, R., & Spinath, B. (2008). Personality and achievement motivation: Relationship among big five domain and facet scales, achievement goals, and intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 44, 1454-1464.

Block, J.H., & Block, J. (1980). The role of ego-control and ego-resiliency in the organization of behavior. In W.A. Collins (Ed.), *Minnesota symposium on child psychology* (Vol. 13, pp. 39-101). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Brief, A.P. (1998). *Attitudes in and around organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Brown, S.P. (1996). A meta-analysis and review of organizational research in job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120, 235-255.

Butler, R. (2007). Teachers' achievement orientations and associations with teachers' help seeking: Examination of a novel approach to teacher motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99, 241-252.

Button, S., Mathieu, J., & Zajac, D. (1996). Goal orientation in organizational behavior research: A conceptual and empirical foundation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67, 26-48.

- Campbell, D., & Pritchard, R. (1976). Motivation theory in industrial and organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 63-130. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Carsten, J.M., & Spector, P.E. (1987). Unemployment, job satisfaction, and employee turnover: A meta-analytic test of the Muchinsky model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72, 374-381.
- Cellar, D.F., Stuhlmacher, A.F., Young, S.K., Fisher, D.M., Twichell, E.A., Haynes, S.M., Adair, C.K., Arnold, K.M., Palmer, K., Denning, B.L., & Riester, D. (2011). Trait goal orientation, self-regulation, and performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 26, 467-483.
- Cellar, D.F., Yorke, C.M., Sorenson, A., & Masden, L. (2004). The predictive efficacy of goal orientation compared to five factor traits.
- Chen, G., Gully, S.M., Whiteman, 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.
- Chiaburu, D.S., & Marinova, S.V. (2005). What predicts skill transfer? An exploratory study of goal orientation, training self-efficacy and organizational supports. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 9, 110-123.

- Cohen, A. (1994). Organizational commitment and turnover: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 1140-1157.
- Colquitt, J.A., Conlon, D.E., Wesson, M.J., Porter, C.O.L.H., & Ng, K.Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 425-445.
- Cropanzano, R., & Greenberg, J. (1997). Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling through the maze. In C.L. Cooper & I.T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 317-372). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cronbach, L.J., & Gleser, G.C. (1953). Assessing similarity between profiles. *Psychological Bulletin*, 50, 456-473.
- Day, E., Radosevich, D.J., & Chasteen, C.S. (2003). Construct- and criterion-related validity of four commonly used goal orientation instruments. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 28, 434-464.
- Day, E., Yeo, S., & Radosevich, D.J. (2003, April). *Comparing two- and three-factor models of goal orientation: A meta-analysis*. Paper presented at the 18th Annual Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology Convention, Orlando, FL.
- De Fruyt, F. (2002). A person-centered approach to p-e fit questions using a multiple-trait model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 60, 73-90.
- Deiner, C.I., & Dweck, C.S. (1978). An analysis of learned helplessness: Continuous changes in performance, strategy, and achievement cognitions

following failure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36, 451-462.

DeShon, R.P., Kozlowski, S.W.J., Schmidt, A.M., Milner, K.R., & Wiechmann, D. (2004). A multiple-goal, multilevel model of feedback effects on the regulation of individual and team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 1035-1056.

DeShon, R.P., & Gillespie, J.Z. (2005). A motivated action theory account of goal orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 1096-1127.

Dina, F. & Efklides, A. (2009). Student profiles of achievement goals, goal instructions and external feedback: Their effect on mathematical task performance and affect. *European Journal of Education and Psychology*, 2, 235-262.

Dweck, C.S. (1989). Motivation. In A. Lesgold & R. Glaser (Eds.), *Foundations for a psychology of education* (pp. 87-136). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Dweck, C.S., Chiu, C., & Hong, Y. (1995). Implicit theories and their role in judgments and reactions: A world from two perspectives. *Psychological Inquiry*, 6, 267-285.

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

Eison, J. (1979). *The development and validation of a scale to assess different student orientations towards grades and learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

- Ekehammar, B., & Akrami, N. (2003). The relation between personality and prejudice: A variable- and a person-centred approach. *European Journal of Personality, 17*, 449-464.
- Elliott, E.S., & Dweck, C.S. (1988). Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 5-12.
- Elliot, A.J., & Harackiewicz, M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*, 628-644.
- Elliot, A.J., & McGregor, H.A. (2001). A 2x2 achievement goal framework. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*, 501-519.
- Elliot, A.J., McGregor, H.A., Holly, A., & Gable, S. (1999). Achievement goals, study strategies, and exam performance: A mediational analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 549-563.
- Ford, K.J., Smith, E.M., Weissbein, 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.
- Gist, M.D. (1997). Training design and pedagogy: Implications for skill acquisition, maintenance, and generalization. In M.A. Quinones, & A. Ehrenstein (Eds.), *Training for a rapidly changing workplace: Applications of psychological research* (pp. 201-222). Seattle, WA: University of Washington.

- Goldberg, L.R. (1990). An alternative “description of personality”: The big-five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 91*, 1216-1229.
- Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79-103).
- Greene, B.A., & Miller, R.B. (1996). Influences on achievement: Goals, perceived ability, and cognitive engagement. *Contemporary Educational Measurement, 21*, 181-192.
- Hackman, J.R. & Oldham, G.R. (1975). Development of the Job Diagnostic Survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 60*, 159-170.
- Hafsteinsson, L.G., Donovan, J.J., & Breland, B.T. (2007). An item response theory examination of two popular goal orientation measures. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 67*, 719-739.
- Harackiewicz, J.M., Barron, K.E., Carter, S.M., Lehto, A.T., & Elliot, A.J. (1997). Predictors and consequences of achievement goals in the college classroom: Maintaining interest and making the grade. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73*, 1284-1295.
- Harris, E.G., Mowen, J.C., & Brown, T.J. (2005). Re-examining salesperson goal orientations: Personality influencers, customer orientation, and work satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Science, 33*, 19-35.

- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B.B. (1959). *The Motivation to Work* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hough, L.M., & Furnham, A. (2003). Use of personality variables in work settings. In W.C. Borman, D.R. Ilgen, & R.J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Comprehensive handbook of psychology: Vol. 12. Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 131-169). New York: Wiley.
- Janssen, O., & Prins, J. (2007). Goal orientations and the seeking of different types of feedback information. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80, 235-249.
- John, O.P. (1990). The “Big Five” factor taxonomy: Dimensions of personality in the natural language and in questionnaires. In L.A. Pervin (Ed.) *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 66-100). New York: Guilford Press.
- Johns, G. (1997). Contemporary research on absence from work: Correlates, causes, and consequences. In C.L. Cooper & I.T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 115-173). Chichester: Wiley.
- Judge, T.A., Thoreson, C.J., Bono, J.E., & Patton, G.K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 376-407.
- Judge, T.A., Heller, D., & Mount, M.K. (2002). Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 530-541.

- Kolic-Vehovec, S., Roncevic, B., & Bajanski, I. (2008). Motivational components of self-regulated learning and reading strategy use in university students: The role of goal orientation patterns. *Learning and Individual Differences, 18*, 108-113.
- Kozlowski, S.W., Gully, S.M., Brown, K.G., Salas, E., Smith, E.A., & Nason, E.R. (2001). Effects of training goals and goal orientation traits on multi-dimensional training outcomes and performance adaptability. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 85*, 1-31.
- Latham, G.P., & Pinder, C.C. (2005). Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual Review of Psychology, 56*, 485-516.
- Leventhal, H. (1980). Toward a comprehensive theory of emotion. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 13*, 139-207.
- Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Locke, E., & Latham, G.P. (2002). Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation: A 35-year odyssey. *American Psychologist, 57*, 705-717.
- Madzar, S. (2001). Subordinates' information inquiry: Exploring the effect of perceived leadership style and individual differences. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology, 74*, 221-232.
- Magnusson, D. (1988). *Individual development from an interactional perspective*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Magnusson, D. (1998). The logic and implications of a person approach. In R.B. Cairns, L.R. Bergman, & J. Kagan (Eds.), *Methods and models for studying the individual* (pp. 33-63). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Magnusson, D. (2000). The individual as the organizing principle in psychological inquiry: A holistic approach. In .R. Bergman, R. Cairns, L.-G. Nilsson, & L. Nystedt (Eds.), *Developmental science and the holistic approach* (pp. 33-47). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Maslow, A. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, *50*, 370-396.
- Mathieu, J.E., & Zajac, D.M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, *108*, 171-194.
- Maurer, T.J & Andrews, K.D (2000). Traditional, Likert and simplified measures of self-efficacy. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *60*, 965-973.
- McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1997). Personality trait structures as a human universal. *American Psychologist*, *52*, 509-516.
- McCrae, R.R., & John, O.P. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, *60*, 175-215.
- Meece, J.L., & Holt, K. (1993). A pattern analysis of students' achievement goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *85*, 582-590.

- Meece, J.L., Blumenfeld, P.C., & Hoyle, R.H. (1988). Students' goal orientations and cognitive engagement in classroom activities. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 80*, 514-523.
- Mervielde, I., & Asendorpf, J.B. (2000). Variable-centered and person-centered approaches to childhood personality. In S.E. Hampson (Ed.), *Advances in personality psychology* (Vol. 1, pp 37-76). Hove: Psychology.
- Mitchell, T.R., & Daniels, D. (2003). Observations and commentary on recent research in work motivation. In Porter, L., Bigley, G., and Steers, R. (Eds.) *Motivation and Work Behavior, 7th Edition*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Narayan, A., & Steele-Johnson, D. (2007). Relationships between prior experience of training, gender, goal orientations and training attitudes. *International Journal of Training and Development, 11*, 166-180.
- Nicholls, J.G. (1975). Causal attributions and other achievement-related cognitions: Effects of task outcome, attainment value, and sex. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31*, 379-389.
- Park, G., Schmidt, A.M., Scheu, C., & DeShon, R.P. (2007). A process model of goal orientation and feedback seeking. *Human Performance, 20*, 119-145.
- Payne, S.C., Youngcourt, S.S., & Beaubien, J.M. (2007). A meta-analytic examination of the goal orientation nomological net. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 128-150.
- Pedhazur, E.J. (1982). *Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research: Explanation and Prediction* (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

- 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.
- Pinder, C. (1998). *Work motivation in organizational behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Pintrich, P.R. (2000). Multiple goals, multiple pathways: The role of goal orientation in learning and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*, 544-555.
- Salancik, G.R., & Pfeffer, J. (1977). An examination of need satisfaction models of job attitudes. *Administrative Sciences Quarterly, 22*, 427-456.
- Schmidt, F.L., & Hunter, J.E. (1992). Development of causal models of processes determining job performance. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 1*, 89-92.
- Schmidt, F.L., & Hunter, J.E. (1998). The validity and utility of selection methods in personnel psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings.
- Schmidt, F.L., & Hunter, J.E. (2004). General mental ability in the world of work: Occupational attainment and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 162-173.
- Sinclair, R.R., Tucker, J.S., Cullen, J.C., & Wright, C. (2005). Performance differences among four organizational commitment profiles. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 1280-1287.

- Stajkovic, A.D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *124*, 240-261.
- Tanaka, K. (2007). Relations between general goal orientations and task-specific self-appraisals. *Japanese Psychological Research*, *49*, 235-247.
- Tett, R.P., & Burnett, D.D. (2003). A personality trait-based interactionist model of job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 500-517.
- Tuominen-Soini, H., Salmela-Aro, K., & Niemivirta, M. (2011). Stability and change in achievement goal orientations: A person-centered approach. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *36*, 82-100.
- VandeWalle, D. (1997). Development and validation of a work domain goal orientation instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *57*, 995-1015.
- VandeWalle, D., Brown, S.P., Cron, W.L., & Slocum, J.W., Jr. (1999). The influences of goal orientation and self-regulation tactics on sales performance: A longitudinal field test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*, 249-259.
- VandeWalle, D., Cron, W.L., & Slocum, J.W., Jr. (2001). The role of goal orientation following performance feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 629-640.
- VanYperen, N.W., & Janssen, O. (1992). Fatigued and dissatisfied or fatigued but satisfied? Goal orientations and responses to high job demands. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*, 1161-1171.

- VanYperen, N.W., & Janssen, O. (2002). Fatigued and dissatisfied or fatigued but satisfied? Goal orientations and responses to high job demands. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*, 1161-1171.
- Wang, M., Takeuchi, R. (2007). The role of goal orientation during expatriation: A cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 1437-1445.
- Weiss, D.J., Dawis, R.V., England, G.W., & Lofquist, L.H. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. Minneapolis: Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota.
- Whingter, L.J., Cunningham, C.J.L., Wang, M., & Burnfeld, J.L. (2008). The moderating role of goal orientation in the workload-frustration relationship.
- Wiggins, J.S., & Trapnell, P.D. (1997). Personality structure: The return of the Big Five. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 737-765). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Wood, R.S., & Bandura, A. (1989). Impact of conceptions of ability on self-regulatory mechanisms and complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*, 407-415.
- Wood, R.S., & Locke, E.A. (1987). The relation of self-efficacy and grade goals to academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *47*, 1013-1024.

Wright, T.A., & Bonett, D.G. (2002). The moderating effects of employee tenure on the relation between organizational commitment and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 1183-1190.

Appendix A

Goal Orientation Scale Items

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'm concerned with showing that I can perform better than my coworkers.
7. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.
8. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.
9. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.
10. I would avoid taking on a new task if there was a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.
11. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.
12. I'm concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would reveal that I had low ability.
13. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.

Appendix B

Work Avoidance Scale Items

1. I want to do as little work as possible.
2. I like my work best when it is easy.
3. I feel satisfied when I don't have to work hard at my job.
4. At work, I just want to do what I am supposed to do and get it done.
5. I want to do things as easily as possible so I won't have to work very hard.

Appendix C

Satisfaction Scale Items

1. Being able to have a challenging workload at work
2. The chance to work alone (instead of in a group) at work
3. The chance to gain a variety of experiences at work
4. The chance to be “somebody” in the practice community
5. The way my supervisors interact with associates
6. The competence of my supervisors in developing associates
7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience
8. The way my work provides me with knowledge that prepares me for life
9. The chance to be of service in the practice community
10. The chance to be a leader in the hospital
11. The chance to work in a discipline that utilizes my talents and abilities
12. The way company policies are put into practice
13. My performance reviews and the amount of work I do
14. The opportunities for achievement recognition at work
15. The freedom to use my own judgment
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing things
17. The facilities and resources available
18. The level of community/camaraderie within the practice
19. The encouragement/praise I get from others for doing good work
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the work I do

Appendix D

Self-Efficacy Scale Items

1. I am usually able to obtain a high APC.
2. I can perform my job at a high standard most of the time.
3. I am able to get a high APC most of the time.
4. I cannot perform my job at a high standard most of the time.
5. I am unable to obtain a high APC most of the time.
6. I am usually able to perform my job at a high standard.

Appendix E

Organizational Commitment Scale Items

Normative Commitment

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.
8. I do not think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company woman” is sensible anymore.

Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.

4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
5. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organization.
6. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Continuance Commitment

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now.
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.