Feedback seeking from peers: a positive strategy for insecurely attached team workers

Feedback seeking from peers: A positive strategy for insecurely attached team workers

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Abstract

Feedback inquiry is a proactive behavior that is instrumental for gaining information about job performance. However, feedback inquiry also has a social component, especially in the context of flexible teamwork environments. Feedback inquiry implies interacting with others, suggesting that relational considerations might affect whether individuals accept and apply feedback to improve their performance. Drawing on this relational perspective, we examined the role of attachment styles in employees' peer-focused feedback inquiry as well as the subsequent association of feedback inquiry with job performance. We proposed that individuals higher in attachment anxiety would be more inclined to engage in feedback inquiry from peers, while those higher in attachment avoidance would be less likely to do so. We also proposed that individuals higher in attachment anxiety would benefit more from feedback inquiry, such that the association between feedback inquiry and performance is stronger for these individuals. Results from multi-source data from 179 employees in a flexible teamwork environment and up to three of their peers generally supported these hypotheses. This study broadened our understanding of the dispositional antecedents of feedback inquiry, and suggests a boundary condition for when such behavior is associated with enhanced job performance.

Keywords

attachment styles, feedback seeking, team, proactivity, job performance

Feedback is critical for improving employee performance at work. Feedback provides cues to redirect behavior in the workplace, and it motivates people to do things more effectively (Payne and Hauty, 1955). Feedback also helps employees to ascertain whether they are on track, and it can thereby enhance internal motivation, job satisfaction, and performance (e.g., Ashford and Tsui, 1991; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Renn and Fedor, 2001). Importantly, evidence suggests that individuals do not only passively wait for feedback, but they also seek it proactively. Ashford and Cummings (1985) argued that because feedback is an important resource that helps individuals clarify their progress toward goals and predict future evaluations, individuals engage in feedback seeking, either by directly asking managers, colleagues, or others (feedback inquiry) or by monitoring their situations and others' behaviors (feedback monitoring) (Ashford et al., 2003). In the current study, we are concerned with feedback inquiry rather than monitoring, as the former is a more overt and hence observable behavior used by individuals to obtain information to improve their performance (Ashford, 1986).

Drawing on an individual differences perspective, previous studies have considered dispositions for feedback inquiry from a feedback-as-resource perspective (Anseel et al., in press). For example, individuals with higher proactive personality (Bateman and Crant, 1993) (or who want to act on their environments to bring about change) tend to seek feedback (Parker and Collins, 2010), as they require information to guide their actions and bring expected change (Frese and Fay, 2001). In terms of whether feedback inquiry leads to performance, a resource perspective again appears to play a role. It has been shown that people with higher self-efficacy (Brown et al., 2001) are more likely to benefit from feedback inquiry in terms of individual

performance, as they have the perceived ability to integrate and interpret information to achieve requested goals.

In the current article, we go beyond the existing research by focusing on the inherently social nature of the feedback-seeking process (Ashford and Tsui, 1991). We suggest that relational dispositions may be important in shaping who seeks feedback, as well as the extent to which feedback seeking enhances performance. Asking others for feedback involves social interactions, and the utilization of feedback is also influenced by social considerations (Ashford and Cummings, 1983; Whitaker and Levy, 2012). We suggest that individuals who are keen to interact with others are more inclined to ask for feedback on their performance, and will be more likely to accept feedback from others and apply it to improve their job performance.

We suggest that relational dispositions will be highly relevant in flexible teamwork environments (Tannenbaum et al., 2012). In such environments employees work on multiple temporary teams with varying compositions, often focused on a specific project, to achieve shared objectives. Such environments are typically found in project-based businesses with highly educated workforces, including consultancy services, engineering, marketing, and information technology. Employees in this environment will have intensive social interactions with their colleagues to shape their roles in specific projects, to familiarize themselves with others' work styles, and to exchange information to achieve shared team goals. Accordingly, peers are significant sources of information that are required to perform well. Moreover, the performance feedback provided by peers can also convey implicit relational information that can influence an individual's sense of belonging (Baumeister and Leary, 1995), such as information that an individual's performance is appreciated by other team members. In all, feedback inquiry from peers will be important and meaningful for flexible team

workers because individuals in these contexts have both instrumental and social reasons to seek feedback from their peers.

Based on this reasoning, we examine whether relational dispositions are associated with feedback inquiry from peers in a flexible teamwork environment, and whether relational dispositions influence the extent to which employees benefit from feedback inquiry in terms of higher performance. Our focus is on individual differences in attachment styles (Bowlby, 1969/1982) or, more specifically, its two main dimensions of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance (Brennan et al., 1998). Individuals high in attachment anxiety feel discomfort with the idea of being abandoned, they are preoccupied with relationships, and they tend to worry about others being available, responsive, and attentive. Accordingly, we expect them to engage in feedback inquiry more often. In contrast, attachment avoidance implies discomfort with closeness and dependency and difficulty trusting and relying on others. Attachment avoidance is thus likely to be negatively related to feedback inquiry from peers in a flexible teamwork environment. Third, we propose that feedback inquiry will be more strongly correlated with job performance for individuals high in attachment anxiety (relative to individuals low in attachment anxiety) because these individuals are concerned with their peers' opinions regarding their performance (Hazan and Shaver, 1990), and they are more inclined to accept and apply their suggestions. Overall, we propose the moderated-mediation model depicted in Figure 1.

Insert FIGURE 1 here

The contributions of this paper are as follows. First, we shed light on how attachment styles, reflecting individuals' relational dispositions, are associated with feedback inquiry behavior. In doing so, we broaden the scope of the antecedents of feedback inquiry to understand better how and when this behavior emerges. Second, we expand the understanding of feedback seeking by investigating who benefits most from peer-focused feedback inquiry. While past studies have tended to assume that the benefits of feedback seeking apply to everyone, we suggest that its relationship with job performance is moderated by attachment styles, especially attachment anxiety. This belief is consistent with VandeWalle (2003: , p. 594), who suggested that feedback utilization, or "the degree that feedback is used to make the changes suggested by the feedback," affects the relationship between feedback inquiry and job performance. We suggest that attachment style influences individuals' inclination to absorb suggestions, and represents a boundary condition on the benefits of peer-focused feedback inquiry. Finally, our data are collected in a distinct work context, which enables us to better comprehend the antecedents and consequences of feedback inquiry. Past studies mostly focused on traditional, hierarchical work environments in which supervisors assign tasks and control rewards. In these contexts, feedback seeking from supervisors is likely to be highly meaningful. Here, we focus on flexible teamwork environments (Tannenbaum et al., 2012), in which feedback inquiry from peers is arguably more meaningful. Understanding feedback seeking in this context will help to determine how individuals can obtain information to regulate their performance when they operate in a flexible work structure.

Theory and hypotheses

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969/1982) focuses on the nature of children's ties to their primary caregivers and the impact of those bonds on subsequent adjustment and behavior throughout these children's lives. The theory emphasizes the critical role of early experiences in shaping individuals' expectations and beliefs concerning the responsiveness and trustworthiness of significant others. Children who are exposed to responsive and consistent caregiving develop the expectation that others will be available and supportive when needed. However, if children receive inconsistent or insufficient caregiving, they may hyper-activate and/or tend to deactivate their attempts to cope with their caregivers' insensitivity and unresponsiveness (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). These expectations can contribute to how these children will subsequently organize their attachment-related behavior, and they can have significant implications for how these children will engage in adult interpersonal relationships.

Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance (Brennan et al., 1998) are the two dimensions characterizing individuals' attachment styles. Attachment anxiety is associated with a negative model of the self (Griffin and Bartholomew, 1994) because if caregivers are sometimes attentive, responsive, and trustworthy but sometimes are not, children will tend to hyper-activate their attempts anxiously to obtain their caregivers' attention to receive the desired support. In doing so, those high in attachment anxiety tend to perceive themselves as unlovable and incapable (Brennan et al., 1998; Wei et al., 2003) and to intensify distress experiences (Dozier and Lee, 1995). The anxiety dimension is associated with jealousy, preoccupation with relationships, a high need for approval, and fear of rejection (Brennan et al., 1998). Attachment avoidance is associated with a negative model of others (Griffin and Bartholomew, 1994). If caregivers consistently fail to be attentive, responsive, and

reliable, then children will tend to avoid attracting their caregivers' attention to save themselves from mistreatment. Individuals high in avoidance attachment find it difficult to trust and rely on other people, and they often feel uncomfortable with intimate relationships (Brennan et al., 1998; Collins and Read, 1990). The avoidance dimension is marked by high self-reliance, discomfort with closeness, fearfulness, and defensiveness (Brennan et al., 1998; Collins and Read, 1990).

As attachment styles retain over time and continue to be influential throughout life (Fraley, 2002), attachment styles are also relevant to the work context (e.g., Harms, 2011; Richards and Schat, 2011). For example, with regard to social behaviors at work, individuals high in attachment anxiety like to work with others, but they often feel underappreciated. They tend to worry about their work performance, and they fear rejection because of poor performance (Hardy and Barkham, 1994; Hazan and Shaver, 1990). In contrast, people with higher attachment avoidance prefer to work solo, and they tend not be happy with their colleagues. They are also inclined to keep working to avoid social events, and they may even believe that close relationships interfere with their work (Hardy and Barkham, 1994; Hazan and Shaver, 1990). Due to the different characteristics represented by these two attachment dimensions, we propose that attachment styles will affect feedback inquiry from peers, especially in flexible teamwork environments in which employees join temporary teams for different projects and frequently change their teammates (Tannenbaum et al., 2012).

In flexible teamwork environments, peers have no formal responsibility to provide their colleagues with feedback; if individuals want feedback from their peers, they must seek it out proactively. We propose that individuals with higher attachment anxiety are more likely to engage in feedback inquiry for several reasons. First, these

individuals are eager to build and maintain relationships to secure others' attention and to alleviate their fear of not being liked (Bowlby, 1969/1982; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). In a related vein, employees with high attachment anxiety fear rejection due to poor job performance (Hardy and Barkham, 1994; Hazan and Shaver, 1990). Accordingly, they should be more inclined to try to secure others' attention and to want to learn how others feel about their behavior and performance. Second, people with higher attachment anxiety are highly attuned to potential threats, and they tend to hyper-activate their attachment system to seek proximity when facing threats (Ein-Dor et al., 2011; Ein-Dor et al., in press). In other words, to cope with threats, individuals high in anxiety attachment are more likely to ask people for help or guidance (Vogel and Wei, 2005), which may well be by means of feedback inquiry. Third, we argue that, especially in a flexible teamwork environment, feedback from peers provides employees high in attachment anxiety with a socially oriented basis for self-evaluation. People with higher attachment anxiety have been found to rely on others' approval to maintain their self-worth (Srivastava and Beer, 2005) and to engage in excessive reassurance seeking (Shaver et al., 2005). As such, they are more likely to seek feedback from others to ensure that they are on the right track according to the perspectives of others and thereby to maintain their self-worth. In addition, a flexible teamwork environment is a complex and continuously changing work context (Tannenbaum et al., 2012), so people with higher attachment anxiety are then more likely to feel uncertain about their work and motivated to seek feedback. In all, we hypothesize:

H1: Attachment anxiety is positively correlated with feedback inquiry from peers in flexible teamwork environments.

In a previous study, attachment theory was applied to explain individual differences in students' inclination to ask for feedback from their professors (Allen et al., 2010). In these specific mentoring relationships, Allen et al. (2010) found a negative empirical relationship between attachment anxiety and feedback seeking. They suggested that students with higher attachment anxiety refrain from asking for feedback from their supervisors due to its ego- and image-related costs, that is, their unwillingness to convey uncertainty or to be perceived as incapable (Ashford et al., 2003; Morrison and Bies, 1991). In the current study, however, the context is different. Previous studies already suggested that situational factors can shape individuals' beliefs and expectations associated with feedback-seeking behavior (Ashford et al., 2003; cf. Bamberger, 2009). We suggest that students with higher attachment anxiety may associate feedback inquiry from their professors as having higher psychological costs, as excessive reassurance seeking from the same person may have more perceived negative consequences (Shaver et al., 2005). Doctoral students must usually work intensively with their supervisors, and these supervisors have a high degree of power over the careers of doctoral students. In this context, students with higher attachment anxiety may be more hesitant to rely on their supervisors, thus reducing feedback inquiry from a proximity-seeking perspective.

In contrast, in flexible work teams, the psychological costs of asking for feedback are distributed across multiple colleagues. Requesting feedback from peers working on the same project is likely to be perceived as highly legitimate. Flexible teams are established for temporary purposes, and standard procedures for the provision of feedback are usually lacking, thus reducing the psychological costs of asking for feedback. Moreover, in this particular context, individuals are expected to work interdependently with their peers (Tannenbaum et al., 2012), which should also

facilitate individuals with higher attachment anxiety expressing their preference to get along with others and to determine how others perceive their behavior. In summary, we suggest that different contexts shape motivation patterns, thereby resulting in a hypothesized association between attachment anxiety and feedback inquiry that is distinct from the one proposed in the prior study examining this issue.

Next, we predict a negative relationship between attachment avoidance and feedback inquiry from peers. Individuals higher in attachment avoidance tend to keep themselves apart from others to avoid potential harm in social interactions (Bowlby, 1969/1982). In addition, these individuals tend to regard themselves as more capable and less distressed than others as an excuse not to have to rely on others (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Vogel and Wei, 2005). At work, they prefer to operate on their own (Hazan and Shaver, 1990) and to resist interacting with others. Moreover, the potential downsides of asking for feedback (ego- and image-related) can be more pronounced for people with an avoiding attachment style, because they tend to suppress thoughts that are related to their self-negativity (e.g., Dykas and Cassidy, 2011; Mikulincer et al., 2004).

An alternative reason is that people with high attachment avoidance will request more feedback to increase their job performance, as good performance increases their opportunities to operate more autonomously and also to control their relationships with others, thus preventing these relationships from become deeper than they feel comfortable with. However, if this desire to perform well operates as a motive, then avoidant individuals will be more inclined to seek feedback from non-social sources or via methods in which social involvement is minimal (Hepper and Carnelley, 2010). In our context of flexible work teams, however, these alternatives are less applicable, as the work organization requires collaborative efforts, team work is emphasized, and

peers working on the same projects are the main sources of feedback. We hypothesize:

H2: Attachment avoidance is negatively correlated with feedback inquiry from peers in flexible teamwork environments.

Moderating effect of attachment anxiety on the association between feedback inquiry and job performance

Individual differences in attachment style may not only shape feedback inquiry from peers, but also the extent to which feedback inquiry is associated with individuals' job performance in flexible teamwork environments. VandeWalle (2003) suggested that the more feedback is utilized, the more feedback inquiry contributes to job performance. Based on this idea, we suggest that employees with higher attachment anxiety are more willing to accept feedback requested from peers, and they are more inclined to apply it to improve their performance, especially in the context of flexible teamwork.

First, individuals with higher attachment anxiety are more likely to accept feedback, as they are generally more vulnerable and uncertain about themselves (e.g., Griffin and Bartholomew, 1994; Wu, 2009) and thus are more inclined to modify their behavior based on others' opinions and requests (Brockner, 1988). Supporting this view, individuals high in attachment anxiety are more responsive to feedback provided by their partners in close relationships (Brennan and Bosson, 1998). We suggest that this tendency will occur in our research context, as the vulnerable self-concept of individuals high in attachment anxiety will render them uncertain about their performance at work, thus enhancing their willingness to accept others' suggestions for improvement.

Second, feedback on performance can also convey direct or indirect relational information, such as whether the individual is accepted and appreciated by his/her peers. Individuals with higher attachment anxiety will also be more eager to modify their behavior based on the received feedback so that they can maintain better relationships with their colleagues. This concept is in line with the finding that individuals with higher attachment anxiety fear being rejected due to suboptimal performance (Hardy and Barkham, 1994; Hazan and Shaver, 1990). This consideration will be more prominent in the context of flexible teamwork because employees usually meet other peers only when specific projects are assigned. The temporary nature of teams indicates that individual relationships with peers are likely to be shaped by their effective contributions to achieving project-related goals.

In contradiction, individuals with higher attachment anxiety may receive lower quality feedback if their peers feel over-asked. By this reasoning, seeking more feedback would not contribute to higher job performance. However, we suggest that this possibility is less likely to occur in a flexible teamwork environment. First, over-dependence on a given peer can be avoided as an employee joins different projects with multiple and various colleagues and thus have different peers to whom they can ask for feedback. Second, even if the same peer joined the same projects and was asked for feedback on multiple occasions over time, the peer would not necessarily feel their feedback was redundant because different projects bring different contents and tasks, providing new situations to seek feedback about. In all, we hypothesize:

H3: Attachment anxiety will moderate the relationship between feedback inquiry from peers and job performance, such that when employees have higher attachment

anxiety, the relationship between their feedback inquiry and job performance will be stronger relative to when employees are low in attachment anxiety.

Taking H1 and H3 together, we suggest that individuals with higher attachment anxiety are more likely to seek feedback from peers about their performance, and they are also more likely to rely on such feedback to enhance their job performance, compared to individuals with lower attachment anxiety. This mechanism is in fact a moderated-mediation model (Preacher et al., 2007: Model I) such that the mediating role of feedback inquiry in the association between attachment anxiety and job performance will be stronger for employees with higher levels of attachment anxiety. To formally test this overarching pattern, we hypothesize the following:

H4: Relative to employees low in attachment anxiety, when individuals are high in attachment anxiety, there will be a stronger indirect relationship between attachment anxiety and job performance via peer-focused feedback inquiry.

Method

Participants and procedures

Data were collected at a Dutch research and consultancy organization with 271 employees. The organizational structure had only two managerial layers (i.e., board of directors, middle-managers, and shop-floor employees). Work was acquired from governments, large businesses, and industry associations and organized in project teams of two to 15 workers. Employees usually worked on multiple projects in parallel, typically with a "hard core" of people with whom they regularly collaborated, but also with variation in team composition depending on the particular project at hand. The participants voluntarily engaged in a large-scale survey, which focused on employees' entrepreneurial behaviors and determinants.

The data collection process included three sources. First, we sent a pen-and-paper survey to all of the workers, which included measurements of attachment styles and other dispositional constructs, including proactive personality, which refers to an individual's tendency to take action to influence his/her environment and bring about change (Bateman and Crant, 1993). As proactive personality is an alternative disposition that has been previously linked with feedback inquiry (Kim and Wang, in press; Parker and Collins, 2010), we included it as a control variable (see below). On this survey, the workers also identified their three most important internal collaborators (colleagues with whom they had worked the most often over the past three years). Ultimately, 189 employees completed this pen-and-paper survey.

The second source was a internet survey sent to the 216 individuals (peers) identified as "close collaborators" in the first step. For every individual who had mentioned their name, they reported on that focal individual's feedback inquiry and job performance. The respondents were asked to rate both feedback inquiry and job performance because employees in our research context join different projects with different team members over time. Compared with supervisors, peers had a much better view of shared project goals and of the performance the particular employees, and they had been able to directly observe their behaviors (which was not true for supervisors). In this flexible teamwork environment, feedback inquiry and job performance were tied to the projects and teams to which the employees contributed. That is, asking for feedback from a peer in a specific project at a given time may not necessary contribute to individual performance in another project involving different activities. Accordingly, it was desirable to have peers who had been involved in the same projects to rate both feedback inquiry and job performance. Sixty-seven percent

of the invited peers completed this second survey, providing 419 out of 567 (74%) requested peer ratings. The number of peers who rated each focal individual varied from one to nine, with an average of 2.63. After matching both data sets, we obtained at least one peer rating for 179 employees, constituting 66% of all staff members. Twenty-eight employees were rated once, 62 were rated twice, and 89 obtained ratings from all three of their identified peers. Whenever employees had multiple ratings, we averaged their scores on the Web survey items, as the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) and rWG values indicated moderate to high consistency and agreement (see below).[1]

The third source consisted of administrative data provided by the organization: sex (dummy for females), age (in years), education (dummy for those with a Master's degree), job level (dummy for managers), and tenure (in years). The respondents in the final matched data set were 22 to 64 years old (M = 42.59, SD = 11.54) and had organizational tenure ranging from 0.2 to 40.9 years, with a mean of 10.60 years (SD = 10.25). Thirty-five percent of the sample was female, 13% were managers, and 66% had Master's degrees.

Measurements

All of the measurements were presented in Dutch. The items were ensured to be consistent with their original versions in advance by means of a back-translation procedure.

[1] In line with our hypotheses, our main concern was to test the empirical relationships among attachment styles, feedback inquiry, and job performance at the individual employee level, not the peer/rater level. Nevertheless, an alternative method would be to estimate our proposed relationships at the level of peer-raters (e.g., whether an employee rated as having higher feedback inquiry behavior by a given peer will also have a higher performance rating by this peer). This would require the estimation of a cross-classified multilevel model, which is reported below.

Attachment styles. Due to space restrictions, we selected four items from the Adult Attachment Scale (AAS, Collins and Read, 1990) based on the factor loadings reported by Collins and Read (1990) and by Wu (2005). Rather than focusing on close relationships, we revised the selected items to measure participants' attachment styles in a general context. Two items were included for attachment anxiety (i.e., "I often worry that others do not really love me" and "I often worry that others will not want to stay with me"), while the other items reflected the avoidance dimension (i.e., "I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others" and "I get nervous when anyone gets too close"). The response scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha values were .70 for anxiety and .81 for attachment avoidance. To examine the validity of the used two-item measures, we compared their correlations with more elaborative versions of the AAS collected in two (unpublished) student samples from Taiwan. In the first sample, a 10-item version of the AAS (Wu, 2005; Wu, 2009; Wu and Parker, 2012) was administered to 210 undergraduate students. The two-item measurement of attachment anxiety was strongly correlated with its longer version (r = .90), and the same relationship was true for attachment avoidance (r = .86). In the second sample, the 36-item attachment scale (see Brennan et al., 1998) was administered to another independent sample of 76 Taiwanese undergraduates. Again, the two-item measurement of attachment anxiety was strongly correlated with its full counterpart (r = .71), and the same was true for attachment avoidance (r = .77).

Feedback inquiry. Feedback inquiry behavior was rated by up to three peers, each of whom reported on three items developed by Ashford (1986) and previously used by Parker and Collins (2010). In line with our hypothesis, the items referred to the employee's work performance, including "How frequently does s/he seek

feedback from you about his/her work performance?", "How frequently does s/he seek feedback from you about potential for advancement within your company?", and "How frequently does s/he seek information from other co-workers about his/her work performance?". The response categories ranged from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very often). In case respondents had been rated by two or three peers, we computed the mean score for each item. This within-person aggregation was appropriate, as the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs), using a two-way random model with consistency agreement (McGraw and Wong, 1996), were significant, ranging from .10 ($p < .05$) to .18 ($p < .01$). Moreover, the mean of rWG was .62, indicating moderate agreement (LeBreton and Senter, 2008). We believe that this value is appropriate for feedback-seeking research, as an employee can differ from the person from whom s/he is seeking feedback, and such behavior can be unobservable for a third person. Moreover, due to the flexible teamwork structure, the nominated peers in our data did not necessarily work on the same projects as the other raters, making different perceived levels of feedback inquiry more likely. The Cronbach's alpha of the aggregated items was .88.

Job performance. Job performance was also rated by up to three peers. We included three items selected from Ashford and Black (1996), including "How would you rate this person on overall performance?", "How would you rate this person on quality (not quantity) of work performance?", and "How would you rate this person on achievement of work goals?". The response scale ranged from 1 (10%, indicating that an individual was considered to perform better than only 10% of his/her colleagues) to 9 (90%, indicating that he/she was performing better than 90% of his/her colleagues). These data were again aggregated as the ICC coefficients were significant, ranging from .27 to .35 ($P < .01$). The mean rWG was .57, indicating

moderate agreement (LeBreton and Senter, 2008). Again, we argue this value is acceptable, as the nominated peers had usually been involved in different projects with the focal employees, so some diversity in their performance ratings could be expected. The Cronbach's alpha of the aggregated items was .93.

Control variables

We controlled for respondents' ages, education, job levels, tenure, sex, and proactive personality. We controlled for *age* because we anticipated that older workers may be less inclined to ask for feedback. It has been shown that as people age, their openness to new experiences and change decreases (Terracciano et al., 2005). Moreover, age generally indicates increased capabilities, including accumulated knowledge and skills (Becker, 1964). In effect, younger people are still more eager to learn and have more opportunities left to improve themselves. We controlled for *education* (dummy indicating if the respondent had a Master's degree or higher at the time of the survey) because education might be associated with both feedback inquiry and job performance. Individuals with higher education are more likely to acquire and absorb new information due to their enhanced cognitive abilities or training background, and they also tend to perform better in their jobs (Ng and Feldman, 2009). As such, people with higher education may be less likely to seek feedback to improve their job performance. Next, we controlled for respondents' *job level* (dummy for being a manager or not). Feedback inquiry may differ for managers due to their roles, perceived responsibilities, and positions in organizations (Ashford and Tsui, 1991). As providing feedback is part of their jobs, they may be more inclined to ask for it themselves. In addition, being a manager may also indicate enhanced motivation to develop a career, and accordingly more feedback inquiry may be present. Next, we included *tenure* (number of years the respondent already worked

for the company), which previously was negatively correlated with feedback seeking (Ashford, 1986), likely because employees with long tenures have already accomplished a better person-job fit. Moreover, we controlled for *sex* in case there were sex differences in the respondents' inclinations to seek feedback and/or perform differentially. Finally, *proactive personality* was measured in the pen-and-paper survey with Bateman and Crant's (1993) four highest-loading items (e.g., Parker and Collins, 2010). A sample item is "No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen." Response categories ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha was .79.

Results

Before examining our hypotheses, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses to ensure that our measurements were distinct and internally consistent. In the first model, attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were each indicated by two items, proactive personality was indicated by four items, and feedback inquiry and job performance were each indicated by three items. Drawing on a maximum likelihood estimation with Satorra and Bentler's (SB) scaling correction, the model fit was good (SB-χ^2 = 95.97, *df* = 68; CFI = 0.98; TLI = 0.97; RMSEA = 0.048; SRMR = 0.051). All factor loadings were greater than .50.[2]

To examine discriminant validity, the second model contained a single factor for all self-reported items (attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and proactive personality), while the peer-rated items for feedback inquiry and job performance were specified as in the first model. This model did not fit well (SB-χ^2 = 289.12, *df* = 74; CFI = 0.81; TLI = 0.76; RMSEA = 0.127; SRMR = 0.110), suggesting the three

[2] When estimating the CFA model, we fixed the error variance of one of the attachment avoidance items as 0 to obtain successful estimates. As another sensitivity check, the five-factor structure was reproduced in an exploratory factor analysis, using principal axis factoring with promax rotation. All of the output is available on request.

self-report measurements were distinct. Next, the third model contained a single factor for all items reported by peers (feedback inquiry and job performance) and separate factors for both attachment styles and proactive personality. The model fit again deteriorated (SB -χ^2 = 503.08, *df* = 73; CFI = 0.62; TLI = 0.52; RMSEA = 0.181; SRMR = 0. 133), suggesting that the two peer-reported measurements were distinct[3]. Finally, in the fourth model we specified a single attachment factor with four items, and separate factors for proactive personality, feedback inquiry and job performance. The model fit was inferior compared to the first model (SB-χ^2 = 173.49, *df* = 72; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.89; RMSEA = 0.089; SRMR = 0.087), suggesting discriminant validity of both attachment dimensions[3].

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics for each of the research variables. The correlations indicated little likelihood of multicollinearity, which usually becomes problematic only when the correlations exceed absolute values of .80 (Berry and Feldman, 1985). Indeed, the variance inflation factors (VIFs) for the hierarchical regression models presented hereafter were small (< 2.5) (cf. O'Brien, 2007).

Insert TABLE 1 here

We performed hierarchical regression analyses to test our hypotheses. Table 2 presents the results. We first estimated a model with feedback inquiry as the dependent variable and the control variables as independent variables. In the second step, we entered attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance to test H1 and H2. Adding these variables had additional and significant predictive effects (ΔR^2 = .037, F [2, 170] = 4.24, p < .05). Specifically, we found that age had a significantly negative

[3] We fixed the error variance of two items (one for attachment avoidance and the other for attachment anxiety) at 0 to obtain successful estimations.

parameter (b = -.02, β = -.36, t [170] = -4.09, p < .01), indicating that older respondents were less inclined to seek feedback. Proactive personality had a positive parameter, but not significant (b = .10, β = .12, t [170] = 1.86, p = .07). Attachment anxiety was positively correlated with feedback inquiry from peers (b = .12, β = .19, t [170] = 2.76, p < .01), supporting H1. Attachment avoidance had its expected negative sign, but it was not significant (b = -.05, β = -.09, t [170] = -1.28, p > .05), failing to support H2.

We also explored whether attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance interact to predict feedback inquiry behavior better, because it will tell us whether people in a certain attachment category (or a specific combination of levels of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance) will engage in more or less feedback inquiry behavior compared to other attachment categories. The interaction was not significant (Step 3 in Table 2 in predicting feedback inquiry behavior), suggesting that different combinations of different levels of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance did not shape feedback inquiry behavior.

Insert TABLE 2 here

Next, we estimated a range of models predicting job performance to examine the proposed moderation effect (Table 2). We mean-centered attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and feedback inquiry to facilitate interpreting the interaction term. In the first step, we entered the control variables and both attachment dimensions. Education and job level were positively correlated with job performance, while age was negatively related. In the second step, we included feedback inquiry and found an incremental predictive effect on job performance (ΔR^2 = .042, F [1, 169]

= 8.56, $p < .01$). Feedback inquiry ($b = .36$, $\beta = .24$, t [169] = 2.93, $p < .01$) was positively correlated with job performance. In Step 3a, we included the interaction term for attachment anxiety and feedback inquiry, which explained further variance in job performance ($\Delta R^2 = .036$, F [1, 168] = 7.42, $p < .01$). To depict this interaction, Figure 2 displays the simple regression equations of job performance on feedback inquiry at high and low levels of attachment anxiety ($M + 1 \times SD$, $M - 1 \times SD$). At high levels, the relationship was positive and significant ($b = .59$, $\beta = .40$, t [168] = 4.01, $p < .01$). At low attachment anxiety, the relationship between feedback inquiry and job performance is non-significant ($b = .03$, $\beta = .02$, t [168] = 0.18, $p > .05$). These findings support H3[4].

Insert FIGURE 2 here

Although we did not hypothesize an interaction between attachment avoidance and feedback inquiry from peers, we examined if this moderating effect is significant or not. Step 3b in Table 2 shows that this interaction term does not help to explain additional variance in job performance. Similarly, Step 3c shows that proactive

[4] By aggregating peer-rated items of feedback inquiry and job performance, we effectively ignored that some employees in our data were rated by multiple peers. Although this aggregation was appropriate, because our main interest was to analyze the relationships at the levels of individual employees and not of nominated peers, we conducted cross-classified multilevel analyses Hox JJ. (2002) *Multilevel analysis: Techniques and applications*, Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. as a sensitivity check. Specifically, our behavior and performance-rating scores can be classified at the level of employees who are rated or at the levels of peers who provide the ratings. These two structures are independent and jointly create a cross-classified multilevel structure. In the analysis, we modeled the feedback inquiry and job performance at the lower, within-individual level, whereas the predictors were at the higher, between-individual level. We found that employees reporting higher attachment anxiety at the higher, between-individual level were perceived by their peers as engaging in more feedback inquiry at the lower, within-individual level. We also found that employees with higher self-reported attachment anxiety at the higher, between-individual level had stronger associations between feedback inquiry and job performance at the lower, within-individual level. These findings were in line with the hierarchical regression analyses and suggesting that similar mechanisms are occurred at different levels (Note that a moderation-mediation test has not yet been established for cross-classified multilevel analyses, so H4 could not be reproduced here.)

personality also does not moderate the relationship between feedback inquiry and job performance.

Finally, we tested H4, regarding the overall moderated-mediation effect. Drawing on Preacher et al.'s method (2007: Model I), we found that feedback inquiry significantly mediated between attachment anxiety and job performance only at high levels of attachment anxiety. Specifically, at high levels of attachment anxiety (M + 1×SD), the indirect effect was positive and significant (b_1b_2 = .07, Z = 2.16, p < .05). At low levels of attachment anxiety (M – 1×SD), the indirect effect was non-significant and near zero (b_1b_2 = .00, Z = -.05, p = .95). This pattern is in line with H4. Overall, employees high in attachment anxiety appear to engage more in feedback inquiry, which then has a stronger, more positive impact on their job performance.

Discussion

Our findings contribute to the feedback-seeking literature by highlighting the social nature of the feedback-seeking process, as well as by demonstrating the role of relational dispositions in shaping feedback inquiry behavior. One implication to explore further is concerned with the motives underpinning feedback seeking behavior. Ashford et al. (2003) identified three motives to engage in feedback inquiry: an instrumental motive concerned with performance improvement; an ego-based motive concerned with enhancing and protecting one's self-image; and an image-based motive to leave others with a positive impression. Although ego-based and image-based motives are relational in that they are concerned with how others perceive an individual, they do not explicitly capture the central motive of belongingness or the motivation to form and maintain interpersonal bonds (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Our study suggests that a belongingness motive might also be influential. Employees with higher attachment anxiety have a stronger need to

be accepted by their colleagues (Hazan and Shaver, 1990) or to belong; thus, they tend to seek feedback from their peers to learn how to adapt themselves to fit in with the environment (Parker and Collins, 2010). Obviously, we did not assess motives in the current study, but we recommend that future studies do so. If it is the case that a belongingness motive explains why individuals with higher attachment anxiety seek more feedback from peers, then this would also suggest the need to expand theoretical models of feedback seeking.

Our findings extend the discussion on who is more likely to benefit from feedback inquiry to improve his/her job performance. Although some studies have shown positive associations between feedback inquiry and performance (Ashford and Tsui, 1991; Morrison, 1993; Renn and Fedor, 2001), others found no relationship (e.g., Ashford and Black, 1996), suggesting the presence of moderating variables. In response to this possibility, Brown et al. (2001) indicated that the association between feedback inquiry and job performance depends on self-efficacy, such that individuals with higher self-efficacy are more capable of absorbing information and effectively adjusting their behavior when receiving feedback. Simultaneously, however, the positive effects of feedback inquiry will also depend on whether an individual is motivated to utilize feedback (VandeWalle, 2003). In line with this motivation perspective, we hypothesized that individuals with higher attachment anxiety are more inclined to accept and apply peer feedback.. Our significant empirical finding is in line with this, indicating a boundary condition on the benefits of feedback inquiry in performance improvement, beyond those identified in previous studies. Moreover, the moderated-mediation effect associated with attachment anxiety is in line with the feedback-as-resource perspective (Ashford and Cummings, 1985) by suggesting that

feedback inquiry is a positive strategy for individuals higher in attachment anxiety to achieve better performance.

A motivation perspective is also helpful to explain why, as expected, we did not find significant moderation effects for attachment avoidance and proactive personality (Steps 3b and 3c in Table 2). Employees with high attachment avoidance would not be strongly motivated to accept and apply their peers' feedback, as they have a negative view of others (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991; Collins and Read, 1990; Griffin and Bartholomew, 1994), which renders them reluctant to accept their suggestions fully. Likewise, employees with a proactive personality, although they tend to request feedback from peers more often, may not necessarily apply it to improve work performance as judged by their peers (raters). For example, they may instead use feedback primarily to pursue their self-interests and not necessarily to improve the project (e.g., Belschak and Den Hartog, 2010), or they might introduce new or alternative ways to do their work, which may not be welcomed by their peers (e.g., Parker et al., 2010). In all, an implication suggested by our empirical findings is that employee performance does not necessarily improve, even when employees seek feedback from their peers. Enhancing motivation to absorb feedback and improve job performance might be crucial for enhancing the value of inquiry behavior.

Finally, following Tannenbaum et al.'s (2012) recent plea to study dynamic team compositions marked by higher membership fluidity, we focused on employees in a flexible teamwork environment. In this context, peers are significant sources of information needed to perform well, and when providing feedback, they may also implicitly convey relational information to employees. This work context may explain why our findings deviate from those of Allen et al.'s (2010) study, which showed that individuals with higher attachment anxiety seek less feedback. As noted earlier,

feedback inquiry from doctoral supervisors in strongly hierarchical relationships is likely to be different, involving significantly greater psychological risks. It might be that in the doctoral-supervisor context, as a result of the power of the supervisor and the supervisor's influence on the doctoral student's career, image and ego motives dominate feedback seeking. In contrast, on highly interdependent teams when working with colleagues of similar status, belongingness motives for feedback seeking might be more strongly activated. Such a process would explain the different findings as a result of context, although further research is needed to validate our speculations. More generally, researchers must pay attention to the context when feedback inquiry is examined. Also, our current findings cannot be directly generalized to other work contexts, so further research into the role of peer-focused feedback inquiry in dynamic environments is warranted.

In contradiction to our hypothesis, we found that attachment avoidance was not associated with feedback inquiry from peers. This unexpected finding might be due to our research context, which involved employees working in highly interactive and interdependent project teams. In such a work context, any tendency of avoidant employees not to engage in feedback seeking might be overcome by the situation, which is one in which at least some feedback inquiry might be required to achieve work-related objectives. Moreover, beyond direct inquiry, employees may seek feedback via monitoring, i.e., "observing the situation and the behaviors of other actors for cues useful as feedback" (Ashford and Cummings, 1983: 382), but in a flexible teamwork environment (marked by diverse and temporary projects with changing colleagues), it is not clear to what extent feedback monitoring is a suitable alternative. As such, if monitoring is not a way to obtain useful feedback, employees with higher attachment avoidance may reduce employees' resistance to feedback

inquiry. Although these speculations may explain our insignificant findings, this should be further examined by collecting data from work contexts marked by low job interdependence and by including monitoring as an alternative feedback seeking behavior. Nevertheless, our findings do suggest that relationship anxiety is more central than closeness avoidance to the shaping of feedback inquiry behavior.

Limitations and suggestions

Beyond the aforementioned issues, this study has a few more potential caveats, and some of them directly suggest opportunities for new research. First, our method was cross-sectional. Although reverse causality is not a likely explanation for the empirical patterns that we observed between attachment and feedback inquiry (inquiry behavior is unlikely to "cause" a relational disposition such as attachment), the relationship between feedback inquiry and job performance could be reversed (e.g., high-performing individuals might be more confident in seeking out feedback, especially as it is more likely to be positive) (e.g., Ashford and Northcraft, 1992). Longitudinal methods would be helpful in providing clearer evidence for this suggested relationship.

Second, due to space restrictions, we could only include four items to measure attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. Although this number was not optimal, past studies on adult attachment have indicated that worries about being abandoned and discomfort with closeness/intimacy are their main features (Collins and Read, 1990; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007), so the core features of the concept were included. Our attachment measurements were based on the factor loadings used in previous studies (Collins and Read, 1990; Game, 2008; Wu, 2005), which were strongly correlated with more elaborate measurements in two independent samples and which are also clearly better than the single-item response formats that were applied in the

early days of attachment research (Brennan et al., 1998). Nevertheless, replicating our findings with more extensive measurements is recommended.

Third, although collecting data on both feedback inquiry and job performance from the same peers was appropriate in our research context, given the nature of teamwork, it may have introduced common methodological bias. To mitigate this concern, we applied Podsakoff et al.'s (2003) recommendations in the data collection process, including emphasizing confidentiality and stressing that there were no right or wrong answers to the survey questions. Also, suggesting common method variance was not a major issue; the results of a CFA showed that all of the constructs were distinct from each other, and the results of a sensitivity check, drawing on EFA, confirmed this finding. In other words, feedback inquiry and job performance were empirically shown to be different constructs. Moreover, we obtained a significant moderation effect of attachment anxiety on the relationship between feedback inquiry and job performance, and it is difficult to find such an interaction effect if feedback inquiry and job performance vary too greatly from each other (Siemsen et al., 2010). In all, common methodological bias is a possible, but rather unlikely, explanation of our empirical findings.

Another potential caveat is the multilevel issue resulting from the particular team structure which is characteristic for flexible teamwork environments. Unlike the usual nested team structure in which employees participate in a single team and have peers who do not change frequently, the team structure in our data is more fuzzy and complex. In such an environment, employees have multiple memberships in different teams at a given time and moreover, team memberships frequently change over time whenever they join new projects. The best way to consider the impact of flexible team structures in shaping individual behavior would be to analyse this dynamic team

composition process over time. However, this concern cannot yet be addressed. First, respondents nominated their peers based on past work experiences, so their team history and dynamics are unknown. In addition, employees who were rated by peers were frequently also nominated by others to provide peer-ratings. This structure makes it difficult to capture the impact of team structure on individual feedback inquiry behavior. Moreover, even if we had documented team structure dynamics over time, a well-established method to analyze such dynamic, complex team processes in a multilevel context is still lacking. Thus, the multilevel issue resulting from dynamic nested team structure is a challenging topic in research on flexible teamwork environments.

Drawing on previous theories and empirical studies, we made a number of assumptions to develop our hypotheses. Each of these assumptions would be eligible for empirical follow-up to obtain more fine-grained evidence regarding our supposed relationships. For example, we did not empirically examine the proposed mechanisms for why employees higher in attachment anxiety are more likely to engage in feedback inquiry behavior or why feedback inquiry will be more beneficial to these individuals for performance improvement. These constructs could be explicitly measured, enabling more detailed tests of the proposed theoretical mechanisms.

Finally, our focus on feedback inquiry, regardless of the type of feedback sought, may have masked potentially differential associations between attachment styles and feedback inquiry for positive or negative feedback, for example. We nevertheless maintain that our focus on feedback inquiry is important. First, although attachment theory makes theoretical predictions about the relationship between attachment styles and feedback inquiry in our focused work context, such an association has not been empirically investigated. Therefore, examining whether these two constructs are

empirically associated with each other should be the first step toward a preliminary understanding of their relationship (Bordens and Abbott, 2011; Chatman and Flynn, 2005). Second, feedback inquiry is a behavior that feedback providers can easily observe and report. It is relative difficulty for feedback providers to know which type of feedback a feedback seeker would like to receive if such an intention was not expressed. Therefore, our focus on feedback inquiry is a reasonable approach to establishing associations between attachment styles and feedback inquiry in a flexible teamwork environment.

However, we recommend that future studies delve further into the nature of obtained feedback, particularly the distinction between positive and negative feedback. Hepper and Carnelley (2010) explored whether attachment styles are related to individual preferences for positive or negative feedback. They found that people with higher attachment anxiety are more inclined to prefer to learn about their weaknesses, and they prefer not to know about their merits, suggesting that people with high attachment anxiety are more likely to seek negative feedback. As negative feedback conveys more information to an individual to improve their performance (Ashford and Tsui, 1991; Chen et al., 2007), it may be that people with high attachment anxiety primarily seek negative feedback, which is subsequently more informative, at work to improve their performance. Studies are required to examine this speculation because Hepper and Carnelley's (2010) finding was based on experimental methods in which participants rated their preferences for feedback-related cues. Feedback inquiry is a more active behavior, which is quite different from asking participants to indicate their feedback preferences. Nevertheless, we recommend differentiating inquiries for positive and negative feedback in the future.

Another potential extension is to differentiate purposes in seeking feedback. Drawing on goal orientation research in feedback-seeking behavior (VandeWalle, 2003), an individual can seek feedback to correct and prevent mistakes with an avoidance motivation and/or seek feedback to advance and promote achievement with an approach motivation. When these two types of feedback were differentiated, we expected that people with different attachment styles would demonstrate differential behavior patterns. Elliot and Reis (2003) reported that people higher in attachment anxiety (or those who are in ambivalent/anxious attachment style in categorical measurements) have stronger avoidance motivation, which may lead them to seek more correctional feedback to prevent potential negative consequences. In contrast, they found that people lower in attachment avoidance (or those who are in secure attachment style in categorical measure) have stronger approach motivation, which may lead them to seek more developmental feedback to promote potential positive consequences. These speculations should be further examined. Overall, we suggest that differentiating different types of feedback inquiry behavior will advance our understanding of the role of attachment styles in shaping feedback-seeking behavior.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics (n=179)

	M	*SD*	Correlations								
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender (dummy female)	.35	.48									
2. Age (years)	42.59	11.54	-.25**								
3. Education (dummy master degree)	.66	.47	-.08	-.21**							
4. Job level (dummy manager)	.13	.34	-.14	.27**	.06						
5. Tenure (years)	10.60	10.25	-.26**	.69**	-.17*	.23**					
6. Proactive personality	4.63	.99	-.06	-.01	.10	.11	-.07				
7. Attachment anxiety	4.08	1.24	.13†	-.24**	.22**	-.17*	-.18*	.01			
8. Attachment avoidance	3.11	1.39	-.01	.04	-.05	-.21**	.05	-.05	.13†		
9. Feedback inquiry	2.88	.76	.20**	-.44**	.08	-.14	-.34**	.12†	.28**	-.08	
10. Job performance	6.79	1.12	-.12†	-.11	.19*	.17*	.02	.07	-.05	-.06	.20**

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 2. Hierarchical regression analyses of feedback inquiry and job performance (n=179)

Dependent variable	Feedback inquiry						Job performance									
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 1		Step 2		Step 3a		Step 3b		Step 3c	
Independent variables:	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*	*b (β)*	*SE*
Intercept	3.50 (--)**	.35	3.14 (--)**	.40	3.15(--)	.40	7.28 (--)**	.56	7.07 (--)**	.56	7.08 (--)**	.55	7.08 (--)**	.56	7.15 (--)**	.44
Gender (female)	.16 (.10)	.11	.13(.08)	.11	.13(.08)	.11	-.23 (-.10)	.18	-.27(-.12)	.18	-.31(-.13)	.17	-.27(-.12)	.18	-.29(-.12)	.18
Age (years)	-.03 (-.39)**	.01	-.02 (-.36)**	.01	-.02(-.36)**	.01	-.03 (-.28)**	.01	-.02 (-.20)†	.01	-.02 (-.20)*	.01	-.02 (-.20)†	.01	-.02 (-.18)†	.01
Education (master degree)	-.01 (-.01)	.11	-.08 (-.05)	.11	-.08(-.05)	.11	.37 (.16)*	.18	.40 (.17)*	.18	.39 (.16)*	.18	.40 (.17)*	.18	.38 (.16)*	.18
Job level (manager)	-.07 (-.03)	.16	-.06 (-.03)	.16	-.06(-.02)	.16	.54 (.16)*	.26	.56 (.17)*	.26	.54 (.16)*	.25	.56 (.17)*	.26	.57 (.17)*	.26
Tenure (years)	-.00 (-.03)	.01	.00 (-.02)	.01	.00(-.02)	.01	.02 (.17)†	.01	.02 (.18)†	.01	.02 (.16)	.01	.02 (.18)†	.01	.02 (.16)	.01
Proactive personality (PP)	.10 (.13)†	.05	.10 (.12)†	.05	.09(.12)	.05	.05 (.05)	.08	.02 (.02)	.08	.02 (.02)	.08	.02 (.02)	.08	.01 (.01)	.08
Attachment anxiety (ANX)			.12 (.19)**	.04	.11(.19)**	.04	-.07 (-.08)	.07	-.11 (-.12)	.07	-.13 (-.14)†	.07	-.11 (-.12)	.07	.01 (.02)	.07
Attachment avoidance (AVD)			-.05 (-.09)	.04	-.04(-.08)	.04	.00 (.00)	.06	.01 (.02)	.06	.03 (.04)	.06	.01 (.02)	.06	-.11 (-.12)	.06
ANX × AVD					-.02(-.04)	.03										
Feedback inquiry (FI)									.36 (.24)**	.12	.31 (.21)*	.12	.36 (.24)**	.12	.38 (.26)**	.12
ANX × FI											.23(.20)**	.08				
AVD × FI													.01 (.01)	.08		
PP × FI															-.15 (-.10)	.11
F		8.22**		7.46**		6.64**		2.64**		3.40**		3.92**		3.05**		3.25**
R^2		.223		.260		.261		.111		.153		.189		.153		.162
ΔR^2				.037*		.002				.042**		.036**		.000		.009

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Standardized parameters are in parentheses.

Figure 1. Conceptual model

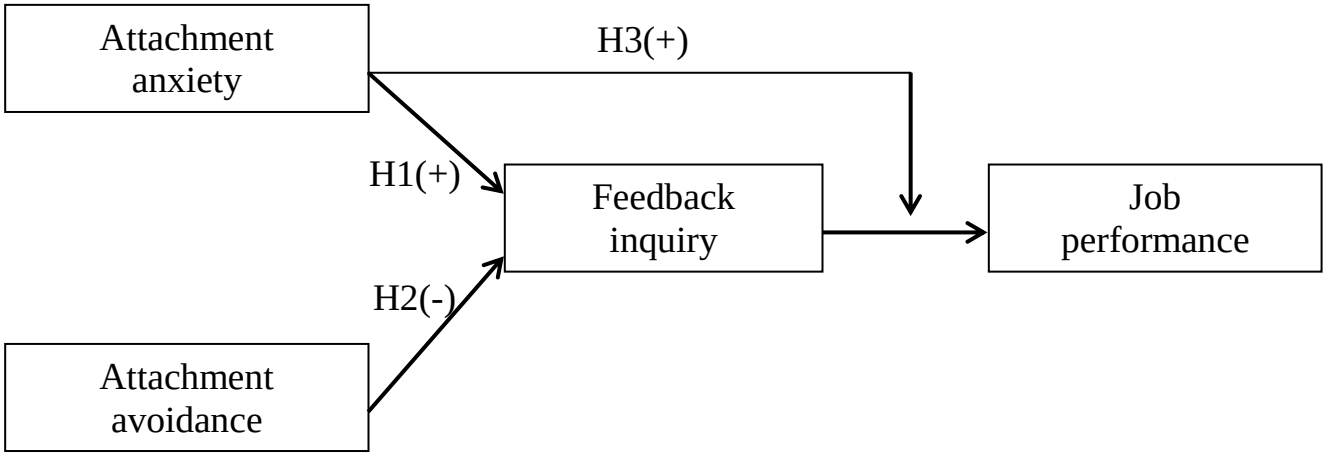
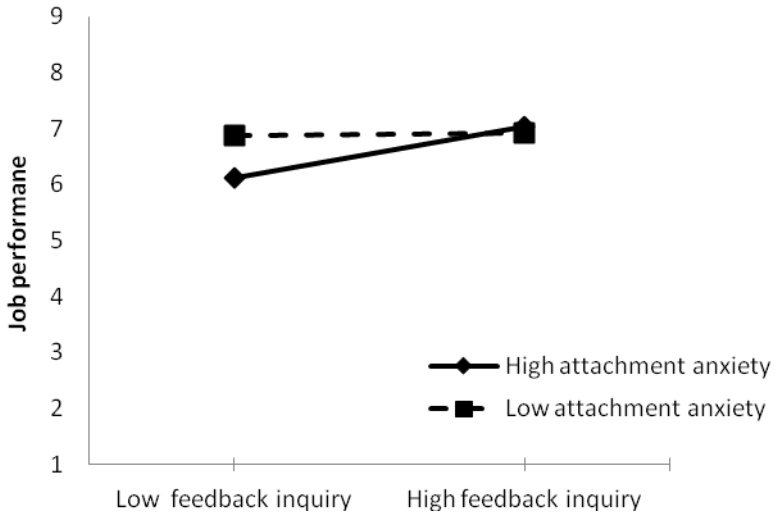


Figure 2. Simple regression of job performance on feedback inquiry



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