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THE INFLUENCE OF GOAL ORIENTATION ON TRAINEE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND
OUTCOMES OF A WORK READINESS PROGRAM

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Psychology
in the College of Sciences
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

Fall Term
2007

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ABSTRACT

Goal orientation is a construct that has been used to explain individuals' focus in achievement situations. Three subcomponents of this construct have been linked to a number of training-related processes and outcomes. Those higher on avoid performance goal orientation withdraw from situations in which they may appear incompetent to others. Those higher on prove performance goal orientation approach situations in which they can demonstrate their competence to others. Finally, those high on learning goal orientation approach situations in which they can continually grow and master new skills. Prior research has consistently found that effective learning strategies and outcomes are positively associated with learning goal orientation and negatively associated with avoid goal orientation. However, the findings with respect to prove goal orientation have been mixed. One possible reason for this is that the effect of prove goal orientation may be dependent on one's concurrent level of learning goal orientation. The present study investigated this notion using participants from an understudied population: unemployed adults. Specifically, data were collected from 188 unemployed females who participated in a training program designed to enhance basic work competencies necessary for most entry-level jobs. Results indicated that those higher on avoid performance goal orientation put forth less effort in voluntary practice activities took longer to complete the training program and learned less than those lower on avoid performance goal orientation. Additionally, prove performance goal orientation interacted with learning goal orientation to predict the amount of time spent practicing and learning. Theoretical and practical implications for training needs analysis, development, and assessment will be discussed.

This dissertation is dedicated to everyone who believed in me.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A special thank you to Dr. Kimberly Jentsch,
my
Committee Chair, advisor mentor and friend

Thank you to my committee members

Dr. Florian Jentsch

Dr. Joan Morris

Dr. William Wooten

Special thanks to the members of the lab who helped me to collect and prepare my data.

Daniel Miller

Michael Flood

Kenysa Hudson

Thank you to my family for your support

Curtis Yarbrough

Charles and Crystal Singleton

Crystal Joy Fields

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INTRODUCTION

Approximately 37 million people in the United States live below the poverty line specified by the Department of Labor (Council of Economic Advisors, 2007). The gradually increasing unemployment rate is a major contributor to this problem. Many economists and government officials argue that increases in unemployment are, and will continue to be, more affected by the lack of skilled workers in the United States than by the lack of job availability (Goldstein, 1991; Social, Economic & Workforce Development Division, 2002). These analysts suggest that the nation's focus should be on encouraging and developing citizen skill development. Federal agencies are relying on state and local workforce development systems to establish new ways to promote gainful employment through the encouragement of citizen employability.

A primary strategy for improving the United States labor market has been through the development of high quality career training programs. Critics have argued that these programs have not been effective and that millions of dollars have been wasted over the years (Harrison & Weiss, 1998). The call for improved programs and use of government funds have led workforce agencies to focus on understanding the needs of both the employers and the unemployed applicants. Government agencies have initiated and engaged in widespread efforts to identify the needs of employers by developing survey and research teams that work directly with local employers. The findings of a recent survey of over 500 employers suggest they are concerned by the lack of basic, technical, and soft skills that are demonstrated by past applicants and current employees (Workforce Central Florida, 2006). These results indicate that there is a need for the development of training programs in the areas of basic, communication and interpersonal skills. Several workforce agencies across the country have decided to work together to establish a

national effort to develop Work Readiness training programs. These initiatives allow participants to be trained and tested on all of the basic work skills that have been identified by employers.

Work Readiness training programs are specifically designed to teach and assess basic skills that are critical to competent performance of entry-level work (Stein, 2000). In addition, these programs are geared toward individuals who have been classified as hardcore unemployed. This implies that these individuals were once in the labor force, but have not been in the labor force for more than six months (Cottle, 2001). Although the agencies' efforts to identify the needs of the employers seem to be effective, there has been less impetus placed on identifying the factors that promote training effectiveness for the hardcore unemployed.

There are a few key components that need to be considered when evaluating the effectiveness of any given training program (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Colquitt, LePine & Noe, 2000; Rowold, 2007). In their attempts to create effective training programs, program developers focus primarily on the training design (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). For example, they focus on decisions about how the training will be administered. The self-paced, web-based designs are becoming a popular mode of training (Simon & Werner, 1996). This method of training delivery is cost effective. In addition, it has been found to be an efficient method for training behavioral skills (Bretz & Thompsett, 1992). Although the delivery mode is important, researchers suggest that it is imperative that developers consider the other factors that contribute to the effectiveness of training (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

An important factor that has been identified and studied by training researchers is trainee characteristics (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Ford, Weissbein, Smith, Gully & Salas, 1998).

Researchers often look at individual differences across trainees related to ability level (Obrian & O'hare, 2007), motivation (Colquitt et al., 2000), demographic differences (Singleton, Smith-

Jentsch, & Sanchez, 2005) and personality variables (Marcus, Johnston, Norman, & Rothstein, 2007). Colquitt et al. (2000) found that trainee characteristics were significant predictors of training motivation. These researchers defined training motivation as the direction, intensity, and persistence of learning directed behavior in the training context. Goal orientation is an extremely important individual difference that is often researched because of its influence on training motivation (Bell & Ford, 2007; Ford et al., 1998). The concept of goal orientation addresses variability in personal goal preferences in achievement situations (Cron, Slocum, VandeWalle & Fu, 2005). Researchers have found that goal orientation is related to important outcomes, such as job performance, academic performance, feedback seeking, and self-efficacy (Payne, Youngcourt & Beaubian, 2007).

The goal orientation literature is currently in an active state of transition because of the recent developments related to the underlying dimensions. Initially, Dweck (1986) argued that there were two primary types of goal orientation: learning and performance. She theorized that those with a learning goal orientation sought to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations, whereas those with a performance goal orientation were primarily motivated to gain favorable evaluations or avoid negative evaluations from others. Empirical research on goal orientation later indicated that learning and performance goal orientations do not reflect opposite ends of a single continuum, but instead represent two relatively independent dimensions (Brophy, 2005; Midgley, Kaplan & Middleton, 1998). Furthermore, it has become recognized that performance goal orientation consists of two subcomponents that represent independent dimensions: avoid performance goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation. Avoid performance goal orientation describes the motivation to withdraw from situations in which one's lack of competence might be exposed to others, whereas prove

performance goal orientation describes the motivation to approach situations in which one's competence can be demonstrated (VandeWalle, 1997).

Researchers admit that goal orientation will have the strongest influence on training processes and program outcomes when students are confronted with challenging or difficult tasks (Dweck, 1986; Dupeyrat & Marine, 2005). Unemployed trainees in this study faced many challenges associated with being enrolled in the Work Readiness training program. During their tenure the trainees found themselves having to combat the psychological trauma and societal pressures related to being unemployed as well as negative stigmas related to collecting government assistance. In addition, a large contingency of the trainees also dealt with the demands related to being single parents. Finally, many experienced anxiety associated with returning to an academic environment. In general, the participants reported that these feelings were based on their histories of struggling academically and/or the idea of having to perform in an academic environment after being away from it for many years.

A major goal of the present study was to determine how the goal orientation dimensions of the Work Readiness trainees influenced their learning strategies and training outcomes. This study extended the previous research in several ways. First, the three factor model of goal orientation was applied as opposed to the traditional two factor model (where prove and avoid performance goal orientations were collapsed). Second, this study furthered the research of those who have investigated multiple goal orientation dimensions by examining the interactive influences of learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation. Third, engagement in learning strategies was measured using coded behavioral indicators instead of using self report measures. Finally, previous research on goal orientation has been conducted on students who were enrolled in some type of formal education. This study focused on adult

learners who were not full time students and who were also influenced by the socio-psychological impact of being unemployed welfare recipients.

The framework for this study was based on past literature that suggests that dispositional variables have both direct and indirect effects on outcomes. In the present study, the focus was on the individual difference variable of goal orientation and its effect on three outcomes: program completion, time in training, and learning. Two of the outcome measures in this study align with two levels of Kirkpatrick's (1959) model of training evaluation (i.e., learning and results; as explained in Goldstein, 1991). The learning outcome measure applied pre-post difference scores on several basic skills that were taught during training. Program completion aligns with Kirkpatrick's fourth level of criteria. Kirkpatrick defined results as the achievements of organizational objectives. In this case, the objective of the program was to have as many trainees as possible certify as work ready. The third outcome, time in training, represented the amount of time that it took students to complete the Work Readiness program. Although I believe that goal orientation is related to training outcomes, I also believe that is important to identify the mechanisms that help to account for the relationship.

Goldstein (1991) points out that a strict reliance on outcome measures often makes it difficult to determine why the criteria were achieved. In the current study, I investigated "why the criteria were achieved" by examining effort put forth in two learning strategies: practice and self-reflection. Overall, I focused on the main and interactive effects of goal orientation on the two learning strategies of practice and self-reflection and three training outcomes, program completion, time in training and learning. The interactive effect of interest in this study was the moderating effect of prove performance goal orientation on the relationships between learning

goal orientation and learning strategies and, subsequently, learning goal orientation and program outcomes (refer to Figure 1).

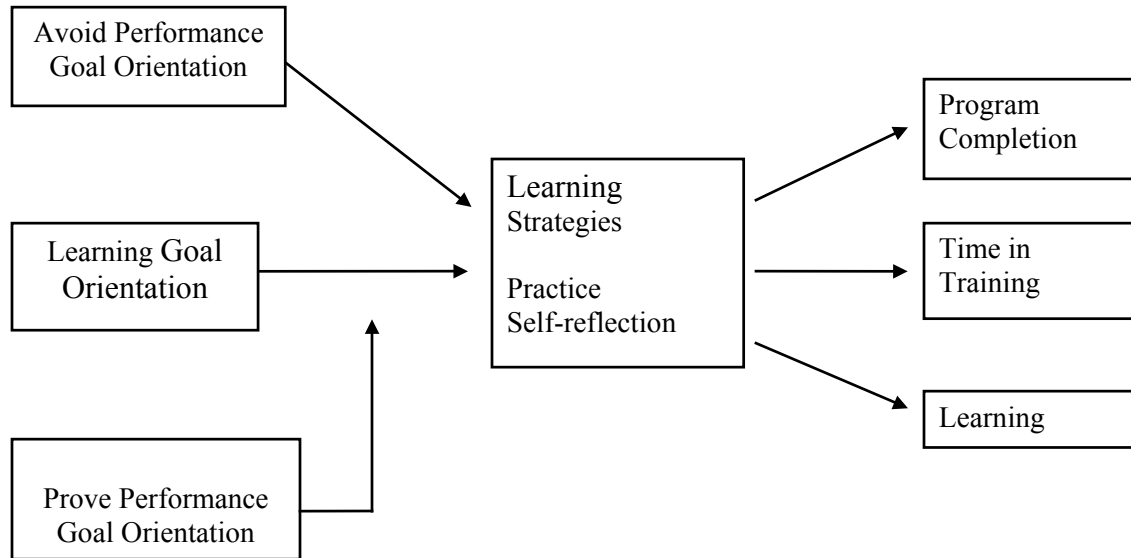


Figure 1. General Model of Hypothesized Relationships

CHAPTER 1: TRAINING BACKGROUND

The skills that are taught in Work Readiness training programs are core skills that are required for success in most entry-level positions. As a result, the transfer of skills from the training environment to the workplace is of primary concern. A complete evaluation of the full transfer of skills was out of the scope of the present study. However, learning is a necessary precondition of transfer and, as such, is an important immediate training outcome. Baldwin and Ford (1988) propose that three input factors--training design, work environment, and trainee characteristics--influence learning and retention, which influences generalization and maintenance of behaviors on the job. The hypotheses in this study pertained to the role of trainee goal orientation in facilitating learning. However, in order to specify the exact nature of this relationship, one must explicitly consider the training design and extra-training environment that surrounds this relationship.

Training Design

Baldwin and Ford (1988) describe training design as encompassing factors such as job relevance of training content, incorporation of learning principles, and sequencing of learning material. Although these authors focused on the applicability of the trained skills to a specific job, the Work Readiness training programs focused on general job skills that could be applied to any entry level position. Traditionally, most Work Readiness training programs were offered in an instructor led classroom. However, in recent years many organizations are relying on web-based training programs. Kahn (1997) defined web-based training programs as “hypermedia based instructional programs that utilize the attributes and resources of the World Wide Web to create a meaningful learning environment where learning is fostered and supported” (p. 6). Some of the features associated with this mode of training include instant updating, distribution, and

sharing of information (Sitzman, Kraiger, Stewart & Wisner, 2006) as well as a self-paced curriculum. The self-paced component of this mode of training offered participants in this study the flexibility needed to start and finish the program at varying times. Cost effectiveness is another beneficial outcome of the web-based training program. The administrators who funded the Work Readiness program appreciated the reduction in instructor related costs. In fact, the pilot for the Work Readiness program consisted of five training facilitators, but the web-based training design that was eventually implemented only required two facilitators. Although there are many advantages associated with a web-based training program, there are also many disadvantages.

Welsh, Wanberg, Brown and Simmering (2003) identified several disadvantages associated with web-based training programs. These weaknesses include possibilities of a lack of interaction among peers both during and following the training program, non-interactive information processing, and intimidation related to the trainees' lack of technical skills needed for accessing instructional content. For example, a trainee that is uncomfortable with computers may not attempt to use advanced features of computer based training programs (i.e., the calculator function). A disproportionate number of studies have assessed training effectiveness of web-based training using well educated populations (Anger, Stupfel, Ammerman, Tamulinas, Bodner, & Rohlman, 2006). Overall, previous research seems to report that web-based training programs are more effective when the learner is self motivated (Liaw, 2002) and comfortable with the computer with technology (Anger et al., 2006). Chou and Hsiao (2007) found that the level of education influenced computer based training reactions. He reported that learners with more education held more positive expectations toward computer learning while the learners with less education focused more on their insecurities related to using the computer. These

researchers also found that the younger age group showed lower anxiety and held more positive attitudes toward computer learning than the older age group.

The trainees in the current study tended to be middle-aged, high school graduates. As a result, they may have been somewhat distracted by negative perceptions of self-efficacy related to operating the computer during the training process. In addition, the other disadvantages related to web-based training may have also had a negative influence on the trainees in this study. These students were under a lot of stress and could have benefited from the support of the other students in the class. Unfortunately, the independent learning environment did not foster camaraderie among the students. Another weakness of the current training design was that these students may have also had a hard time focusing on learning, in general, because they may have been distracted by their external circumstances. In addition, they may have been easily diverted because it utilized non-interactive information processing (Welsh et al., 2003).

At face value, the web-based training program may have seemed efficient for the administrators of the workforce development system. However, it may not have been the most effective method for the Work Readiness trainees because it presented additional challenges for them to overcome. Ultimately, the effectiveness of the training design was difficult to assess in the current study because the flexibility of the self-paced training process created an environment where trainee characteristics, such as goal orientation, may have had a strong and confounding influence on training effectiveness. Based on the previous, this study focused on the trainee characteristics as an important factor in the effectiveness of the current Work Readiness training program.

Extra-training Environment

Baldwin and Ford (1988) describe work environment input factors as including influences outside of training such as supervisory encouragement, peer support, constraints against performing and opportunities that facilitate performance of behaviors that are learned in training. Although their model focused on supplemental job training for a current job, the idea that environmental factors influence outcomes and training processes applied to the trainees in this study. I referred to these environmental factors as extra-training environmental factors, as opposed to work environment factors, as labeled in the Baldwin and Ford (1988) model.

All of the trainees in this study were considered hardcore unemployed. This term suggests that they were once in the labor force, but that they had not been in the labor force for more than six months, at the time of this study (Cottle, 2001). The label, “hardcore unemployed” implies that these individuals would participate in the labor force if a job was made available. Consequently, they should be distinguished from the economically inactive, those who would not want to work even if a job was offered to them (Gallie, Marsh & Vogler, 1994). In addition, it is important to differentiate these individuals from the first time applicants who are looking to enter the labor force. A major distinction between these groups is that the first time applicants’ distress is related to their frustration in making the transition into adulthood and independence. The distress experienced by the older individuals who are unemployed is a consequence of financial strain and negative psychological impact related to the loss of their role as providers (Albion et al., 2005). Overall, the trainees in this study experienced extra-environmental pressure related to finding a job that stemmed from their financial obligations, cultural beliefs, and societal influences.

The unemployed individuals in this training program experienced extreme pressure in regard to the inability to meet financial obligations. The Work Readiness program was exclusively developed to serve unemployed adults who were enrolled in the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families program (TANF). The fact that these participants were eligible for the TANF program meant that they were raising children (or pregnant) and residents of Florida. In addition, the countable assets of the family unit to which they belonged were required to be \$2,000 or less per month. Another restriction of the TANF program concurs with Florida law, which limits receipt of assistance to no more than 48 cumulative months. Because the program was designed for individuals who had been receiving TANF benefits for an extended period of time, some of the participants were very close to losing the supplemental income that was being provided by the government. As a result, it should be clear that these individuals were confronted on a daily basis with the inability to meet financial obligations related to providing residence and adequate nutrition for their families. The inability to meet these basic needs led to additional problems for many of the trainees related to increases in physical illness and depression, decreases in overall self esteem, decreases in motivation to exert effort toward learning basic skills, and increases in disillusionment related to future employability and financial freedom.

Some of the cultural factors that may have worked to increase the pressure experienced by the participants in this study may have been related to culturally defined expectations. A large contingency of the Work Readiness population were African American and Hispanic women. Women in the African American culture are trained to believe that they will have to work to support themselves and are not likely to expect marriage to exempt them from participating in the labor force (Hackett & Bayer, 1996). The matriarchal emphasis in this culture creates an

expectation that mothers should be able to fulfill the roles of provider and caregiver. In many Latin American countries, there is a patriarchal influence on the culture which suggests that women are primarily responsible for child rearing and household maintenance (Hondagneu, 1992). Although Latinos have strong cultural values, the cost of living in the United States promotes women's entrance into the labor force (Grzywacz, Arcury, & Márin, 2007). However, because women are given primary responsibility for family care in Latino cultures, the participants in this study may have found it especially stressful to be in a situation where they had to raise children, attend a training that took up approximately 40 hours per week, and search for a job. Across cultures, adults who find themselves labeled as single parents experience the same pressure to fulfill the role of primary provider and role model. These individuals are not only concerned with providing for their children financially, but are also concerned with setting a good example of what it means to be a responsible adult.

Even in the face of the aforementioned pressures, many trainees may have also been influenced by their perceptions of external constraints and their inhibiting influence on finding gainful employment. Lent (2002) presents a social cognitive career development theory that highlights the influence of self-referent thinking on both motivation and behavior in the process of career development. These authors suggest that several personal input and background contextual variables influence learners' self-efficacy, beliefs about one's own ability to perform certain tasks, and outcome expectations. In turn, these anticipations influence individual career choices and performance goals. Examples of personal input and contextual variables include gender, race, socioeconomic status, and family and community factors. Hackett and Bayer (1996) argue that social class exhibits a strong influence on the manifestation of what Ogbu (1991) calls the "low effort syndrome." This phenomenon describes the ambivalence that is

experienced toward academic environments based on the perception that academic achievements do not have the same outcomes for minority or low socio-economic status individuals as they do for socially dominant groups. This suggests that participant motivation to learn in a Work Readiness training program may have been hindered by an inability to anticipate a relationship between putting forth effort in learning during the training process and finding a job.

Related to this notion, some of the trainees may have adopted the attitude that they did not have the luxury of engaging in this learning environment because of the pressing need to find a job and provide for their families. This idea was reported as early as 1946, when Davis explained that adults who were raised in low socio-economic environments were accustomed to focusing on the necessities needed for survival and that they established a habit of only focusing on immediate gratification of the most basic physical needs (e.g., food, clothing, and shelter). He went on to suggest that this inhibited their striving for less urgent goals, such as learning (as discussed in Goodale, 1973). Unfortunately, unemployed individuals today may still be inhibited from benefiting from programs that offer development of job skills because of their inclination to focus exclusively on meeting immediate physical needs as well as their lack of focus on developing skills to meet future needs. Even though they were told that the Work Readiness certification would help them to get a job, the participants in this study were bombarded with TANF time limits, financial pressure, cultural expectations, and disillusionment regarding academic self-efficacy and career related outcome expectations. These factors worked together to encourage them to focus more on finding a job and less on engaging in the learning process during the training program. For these trainees, the extra-training environment served as a consistent constraint on their motivation to learn. Ultimately, differences in the attainment of positive outcomes and motivation were influenced by trainee characteristics such as goal

orientation. In terms of goals and goal orientation, the situational demands reinforced a strong performance goal orientation, rather than a learning goal orientation. The resulting variability in learning outcomes indicates that more attention should be focused on identifying the types of trainees that are determined to take advantage of learning opportunities, even in the presence of deterrents and competing performance goals.

Trainee Characteristics

Baldwin and Ford (1988) referred to trainee characteristics as individual differences in factors such as ability, skill, motivation and personality factors. Recent models continue to emphasize the importance of individual characteristics on training effectiveness (Cannon-Bowers, Salas, Tannenbaum, & Mathieu, 1995; Holton, 1996), vocational choices and adjustment (Spokane & Cruza-Guet, 2002; Lent, 2002) and training motivation (Colquitt et al., 2000). Some researchers argue that the influence of trainee characteristics on training effectiveness has not been studied enough and should be a primary focus in future research (Colquitt et al., 2000; Rowald, 2007; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992).

Given the self-paced environment, there may have been some small differences in the way the training was administered. Overall, the trainees were all exposed to identical training conditions. For example, they all used the same web-based training program, completed identical modules and tests and completed their work in the same classroom. Similarly, there may have been some variation in extra-training environments. However, the pressure to find a job was pervasive for all of the trainees. I based this assumption on the fact the trainees had to be enrolled in the TANF program in order to be eligible to participate in the Work Readiness training program. This meant that they were required to be unemployed parents in dire financial need. Sherman, Fremstad and Parrott (2004) reported that an increasing number of families with

children who are poor enough to be financially eligible for TANF cash assistance are not receiving that aid. This suggests that the adults who are in families that do receive TANF represent those who are in the most need of cash assistance. As a result, these trainees share commonalities in both sources and amount of pressure experienced to find a job. Thus, given these constraints, trainees' differences in dispositional characteristics were expected to be related to training outcomes.

Although some researchers have focused on the influence of individual differences on training effectiveness, far less research has been conducted to examine how individual difference variables influence training outcomes for the unemployed. However, a review of several previous training effectiveness models (Rowold, 2007) indicates that training motivation is often a key component of training effectiveness (Holton, 1996; Noe, 1986, Rowold, 2007). Training motivation is defined as the direction, intensity, and persistence of learning-directed behavior in training contexts (Colquitt et al., 2000). The results of Colquitt et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis provide support for relationship between several personality variables and motivation to learn. For example, they found that locus of control, anxiety, achievement motivation and conscientiousness were positively related to motivation to learn. Colquitt et al. (2000) closed the discussion of the above relationship by suggesting that future research be conducted on the influence of goal orientation on training effectiveness.

Goal orientation is an extremely important individual difference that is often researched because of its influence on training motivation (Bell & Ford, 2007; Ford et al., 1998). Goal orientation is a construct that explains variability in how people interpret and respond to achievement situations. Recent research has supported a three dimensional model of goal orientation (Attenweiler & Moore, 2006) that includes learning goal orientation, prove-

performance goal orientation, and avoid performance goal orientation. Researchers posit that learning goal oriented individuals focus on developing competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations, prove performance goal oriented individuals focus on the attainment of favorable judgments of competency, and avoid performance goal oriented individuals focus on avoiding opportunities where others could form negative perceptions of their competence (Brophy, 2005; Midgley et al., 1998; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997).

Bell and Ford (2007) addressed Colquitt et al.'s (2000) call for additional research related to the influence of goal orientation on training motivation. These researchers developed a model that suggested that goal orientation influences reaction to feedback, which in turn influenced motivation to learn. These researchers found that learning goal orientation was positively related to training motivation, avoid performance goal orientation was negatively related training motivation, and prove performance goal orientation was unrelated to training motivation. The current study extended the work of Bell and Ford (2007) by assessing the role of goal orientation in facilitating or inhibiting the use of adaptive learning strategies during training. Specifically, it was hypothesized that participants who put forth greater effort in practicing their skills and in self-reflection on their performance during the training process were likely to learn more and to remain persistent until they completed the Work Readiness training program.

CHAPTER 2: GOAL ORIENTATION

The concept of goal orientation was first introduced as a component of a model used in the educational psychology literature to explain variability in how people interpret and respond to achievement situations (Deshon & Gillespie, 2005; Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Sideridis, 2005). Initially, Dweck (1986) argued that there were two primary types of goal orientation: learning and performance. In the original formulation, researchers assumed goal orientation could be measured on a single continuum, where the proposed types of goal orientation represented opposite extremes of the same variable. More recent research suggests that the learning and performance goal orientations represent two relatively independent dimensions (Brophy, 2005; Button, Mathieu & Zajac, 1996; Midgley et al., 1998; VandeWalle, 1997).

According to Dweck, those with a learning goal orientation seek to develop competence by acquiring new skills and mastering new situations. These individuals tend to use more effective learning strategies (Gutman, 2006; Midgley et al., 1996; Payne et al., 2007), prefer challenging tasks (Ford et al., 1998), have a more positive attitude toward the class (Gelbach, 2006), have a stronger belief that success follows from effort (Ames & Archer, 1988) and are more persistent in the face of failure (Dweck, 1986). It is important to note that learning goal orientation differs from trait personality variables. Stewart (1999) argues that one must first identify the basic motivations that regulate personal behavior, by examining goal orientation, before they can determine the individual personality traits that form those motivations. In fact, Payne et al. (2007) found that learning goal orientation predicted job performance above and beyond the big five factors of personality (i.e., conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness, extraversion, neuroticism). In addition, she concluded that learning goal

orientation is related to, but not synonymous with, personality indicators of achievement goal orientation, openness to experience, and conscientiousness. Learning goal orientation is positively related to outcomes such as performance (Meece & Holt, 1993), use of effective learning strategies (Payne et al., 2007), and positive affective reactions to training (Brown, 2002).

Dweck (1986) proposed that those with a performance goal orientation were primarily motivated to gain favorable evaluation or avoid negative evaluations from others. However, recent literature has challenged Dweck's two factor model of goal orientation. Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) and Vandewalle (1997) found support for the claim that the three factor model is statistically superior to the two factor model. In the three factor model, the original performance goal orientation dimension is broken down into the two subcomponents: prove performance goal orientation and avoid performance goal orientation. Consequently, more researchers are recognizing that the performance goal orientation consists of these two independent subcomponents (Attenweiler & Moore, 2006).

Avoid performance goal orientation describes the motivation to withdraw from situations in which one's lack of competence might be exposed to others (Vandewalle, 1997). Those high on avoid performance goal orientation have been found to be less likely to engage in self-regulation tactics than those who are high on learning goal orientation (Vandewalle et al., 2001). In addition, these individuals are also more likely to engage in surface learning strategies (Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999) and less likely to engage in feedback seeking (Payne et al., 2006). Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) conducted an experiment in which they induced a state goal orientation by having participants complete the same assignment in one of four contexts. The contexts consisted of the following: a performance goal where they were told that they needed to

demonstrate competence relative to others (performance approach), a performance goal where they were told that they should avoid failing (performance-avoidance), a performance goal with no diagnosticity information provided (performance neutral), or a mastery goal. The results suggest that the avoid performance goal state was detrimental to achievement outcomes. These authors concluded that self-protective processes interfere with optimal task engagement for performance avoidance participants. In addition, they found that performance avoidance participants enjoyed the activity less than the performance approach participants (i.e., prove performance goal orientation) and reported less intrinsic motivation than those in the mastery condition (i.e., learning goal orientation). These results support previous research that found that dispositional avoid performance goal orientation is negatively related to behaviors that promote learning and task performance (Payne et al., 2007)

Prove performance goal orientation describes the motivation to approach situations in which one's competence can be demonstrated (VandeWalle, 1997). The relationship between prove performance goal orientation and process and outcome measures have proven to be a lot more difficult to determine than the previous dimensions. For example, Elliot et al. (1999) found that prove performance goal orientation was a positive predictor of exam performance.

Additionally, these researchers examined the relationship between prove performance goal orientation across learning strategies. They found that prove performance goal orientation was related to surface learning strategies (e.g., memorization), but not to learning strategies that required deep processing. Payne et al. (2007) provided a summary of findings in her meta-analysis and concluded that prove performance goal orientation tends to positively correlate weakly with learning processes and outcomes. Most recently, researchers are continuing to

investigate the nature of prove performance goal orientation by examining how it correlates and interacts with the other dimensions of goal orientation to predict outcomes.

Relationships among Goal Orientation Dimensions

Payne et al. (2007) examined the relationships among goal orientation dimensions. Their findings supported previous literature by suggesting that learning goal orientation is negatively related to avoid performance goal orientation (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). In regard to prove performance goal orientation, these researchers found that prove performance goal orientation was positively related to both avoid performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation. This finding supports the arguments of Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) who recommended that researchers pay more attention to the approach and avoid responses that underlie the motivation to behave in achievement contexts. Payne et al. (2007) also concluded that researchers should not assume that prove performance and learning goal orientations will always relate to outcomes differently. A better understanding of these relationships can be developed by examining the underlying mechanisms of goal orientation.

Theoretical Mechanisms

There are three primary hypothesized mechanisms that account for the distinctions and the relationships found among goal orientation dimensions. Although these mechanisms have received some support in the literature, to date there has not been a study that directly compared the hypothesized mechanisms to determine which may better explain the relationships (Payne et al., 2007). First, Dweck (1986) suggested that there are two contrasting theories of intelligence. She went on to suggest that an individual's belief about the nature of intelligence determines the way that the individual approaches learning and achievement situations, the kinds of goals they

adopts, and their achievement through the mediation of variables such as effort expenditure. She argued that individuals either believe in the entity theory of intelligence or the incremental theory of intelligence. The entity theory of intelligence states that intelligence is a fixed “entity” that we possess or lack completely. Individuals who adhere to this theory may feel that they will not be able to alter negative outcomes. Dweck (1986) theorized that that they would be likely to withdraw from situations that may result in failure of success. She goes on to suggest that performance goal oriented individuals adhere to this theory of intelligence. Dweck (1986) theorized that the incremental theory of intelligence is adopted by those who believe that intelligence is a malleable quality that can be developed. She suggests that this implicit theory of intelligence influences learning goal oriented individuals to approach challenging tasks that promote skill acquisition and supports their rationale for using effort to overcome difficulties.

The results of recent research indicate little support for Dweck’s view of implicit intelligence theory as an antecedent to goal orientation. Payne et al. (2007) found very small effect sizes for the relationships between the goal orientation dimensions and entity theory. In addition, Dupeyrat and Marine (2005) did not find a relationship between performance goal orientation and entity theory. Another shortcoming of Dweck’s theory is that she does not account for the recent conceptualization of the three factor model that separates the subcomponents of performance goal orientation. In addition, her notion that there are two mutually exclusive theories of intelligence does not account for the findings that suggest that prove performance goal orientation is related to both learning goal orientation and avoid performance goal orientation.

A study conducted by Miller and Fullick (2007) found that external locus of control was related to avoid performance goal orientation, but not prove performance goal orientation. Locus

of control is a concept that describes a person's perception of responsibility for the events in his or her life (Larsen & Buss, 2005). Those who adhere to an external locus of control (i.e., externals) believe that one's life events are out of one's control. Externals are theoretically similar to Dweck's notion of an entity theorist because both groups believe that effort expenditure is ineffective given difficulty or low ability. On the other hand, those who adhere to an internal locus of control (i.e., internals) believe that one's life events are in one's control. Internals are theoretically similar to Dweck's proposed incremental theorists because both of these groups believe that effort expenditure is an effective mechanism given difficult task or current low ability. The findings of this study suggest that Dweck's implicit theory of intelligence may be suitable to explain underlying differences in learning and avoid performance goal orientations, but that it is not a viable explanation of the primary mechanism influencing the prove performance goal orientation.

The second mechanism, proposed by Nicholls (1984), suggests that the different types of goal orientation are related to an individuals' choice of referent. He theorized that learning goal oriented individuals are motivated by an internal referent because they want to be able to learn and master tasks for themselves. The avoid performance goal oriented and the prove performance goal oriented persons are said to be influenced by external referents (Nicholls, 1984). He argued that the avoid performance goal oriented individual tends to avoid situations so that he or she will not be perceived as inferior by others. However, the prove performance goal oriented individual is different because he or she is motivated to approach learning situations to out-perform and be regarded by others as high on ability. The external referent may actually be a benefit for prove performance goal oriented individuals. In some situations it may provide them with a meaningful performance incentive that causes them to approach situations and expend

more effort to perform. This underlying approach motivation represents the third mechanism and may explain the positive relationship between prove performance and learning goal orientations.

In the third mechanism, Elliot (1996) proposed a framework that focuses on the degree to which a person is motivated to approach or avoid a learning situation. He suggests that individuals are either approach-achievement goal oriented or avoid-achievement goal oriented. Elliott (2006) posits that goals conceived in terms of approaching a positive outcome or end state utilize positive possibilities as the hub of self-regulation. Conceptualizations of approach goal orientation have been linked to both trait and motivation dispositions. Elliot and Thrash (2002) found that extraversion and behavioral activation sensitivity (the inclination to pay attention to opportunities to approach rewards) were both positively related to approach achievement goal orientation.

On the other hand, goals conceived of in terms of avoiding a negative outcome entail regulating behavior according to negative possibilities. Elliot and Thrash (2002) and Heimpel, Elliot and Wood (2006) found that neuroticism and sensitivity to the behavioral inhibition system, defined as susceptibility to respond to inhibitory cues for punishment, frustration and uncertainty, were all positively related to avoid achievement goals. Elliott (1996) theorized that learning goal oriented and prove performance goal oriented individuals were approach oriented in their focus to attain competence. However, avoid performance goal oriented individuals focus on avoiding incompetence. Heimpel et al. (2006) outlined several deleterious consequences of relying on avoidance goals. First, they argued that avoidance goals only provide something to move away from, but do not provide anything to move toward. Second, they suggested that an avoid performance orientation bombards the individual with negative possibilities that tend to skew that person's ability to appraise situations. Finally, they reiterated an early argument of

Elliott, Sheldon and Church (1997) by explaining that an avoidance goal success simply represents the absence of a negative outcome. They go on to warn that positive outcomes may be needed for an individual to “thrive, rather than merely survive” (Elliot et al., 1997).

In summary, the positive relationship between learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation may be impacted by the fact that they are both influenced by an underlying mechanism of approach orientation. Prove performance goal orientation is also positively related to avoid performance goal orientation. This relationship may be impacted by the fact that both prove performance goal orientation and avoid performance goal orientation share a focus on external referents. Finally, learning goal orientation and avoid performance goal orientation have been found to be negatively correlated (Payne et al., 2007). This finding may result from the fact that learning goal orientation is influenced by an approach orientation with a self focused referent. Oppositely, avoid performance goal orientation is influenced by an avoidant orientation with an externally focused referent.

Prove performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation are each distinct, but they are not mutually exclusive. In others words, one can be high on both, low on both, or high on one and low on the other. Researchers are beginning to examine how the different combinations of goal orientations within an individual (e.g., high on learning goal orientation and low on prove performance goal orientation) relate to the different types of outcomes (e.g., proximal or distal) and how these profiles predict relations when there are multiple desired outcomes (e.g., complimentary or competing).

Interactions between Goal Orientation Dimensions

Few researchers have examined how individuals with different combinations of goal orientations performed in regard to outcomes (Bouffard, Boisvert, Vezeau & Larouche 1995;

Meece & Holt, 1993; Pintrich & Garcia 2000). The results of these studies are mixed. Pintrich and Garcia (2000) found that students with a multiple-goal profile, that is high on both learning and performance goal orientation, were as motivated as or more motivated than students who were high on learning goal orientation and low on performance goal orientation. Bouffard et al. (1995) found similar results in their analyses. They found that those who were high on both learning and prove performance goal orientation demonstrated higher academic performance than the remaining profile combinations. In contrast, Meece and Holt (1993) reported that students who were high on learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation did not perform as well academically as students who were high on learning goal orientation and low on prove performance goal orientation. These mixed findings indicate that more work needs to be done in this area. In addition to the examination of outcomes, there have not been many researchers who focused on the influence of goal orientation combinations on training processes (Bouffard et al., 1995). The present study focused on how having multiple goal orientations influenced the effort put forth in practice and self-reflection and ultimately how these processes affected program completion, time in training, and learning.

CHAPTER 3: HYPOTHESES

The Work Readiness trainees were asked to achieve two competing goals at the same time. They were encouraged to achieve the learning goal of developing and demonstrating competence on several basic skills. They were told that the Work Readiness program would help them to develop key skills that would ultimately enable them to obtain higher earnings and more satisfying jobs. The trainees were also expected to achieve the performance goal of finding work. They were under pressure from family, friends and the government to find a job quickly. Kozlowski and Bell (2006) examined the effects of having simultaneous learning and performance goals. Specifically, proximal performance goals in combination with distal learning goals were detrimental to learning. Work Readiness trainees found themselves in a situation whereby their proximal performance goal (to get a job quickly) did not support their distal learning goal (to develop skills that would help them get a better job in the long run). The degree to which these two types of goals were salient to trainees was likely to be influenced by their dispositions toward learning and prove goal orientations. Thus, those high on both of these orientations were expected to experience the greatest goal conflict during training. For this reason, it was proposed in this study that prove goal orientation would detract from the positive benefits of learning goal orientation. The following sections detail the theoretical arguments supporting the specific hypotheses.

Training Processes

Practice

Learning strategies are behaviors or thoughts that a learner engages in and that affects the learners encoding, storage, organization and retrieval of knowledge. Actively practicing a skill includes systematic repetition. It is considered to be an adaptive learning strategy because it

involves the use of several senses and promotes deep processing which in turn promotes information retrieval and skill transfer (Elliott et al., 1999). Researchers have found that active practice can lead to better performance, an increase in self-efficacy, and improvement in the ability to use the skill in a novel environment (Ford et al., 2001). It is clear that practice is a beneficial learning strategy that leads to desirable outcomes. However, not everyone who is offered the opportunity to engage in behavioral practice of a skill will actually invest the energy that is required to support improvement. The variability in how trainees respond to practice opportunities has been overlooked in traditional instructor led classroom settings because students are often required to participate in group practice activities. However, as organizations begin to rely more heavily on self-paced independent training systems, more research needs to be done to identify differences in the level of engagement that takes place in independent learning environments. Just as the individual difference of goal orientation has been found to influence trainee motivation in other contexts, it is also likely that it influences trainee behaviors in the independent learning environment.

Those who are high on avoid performance goal orientation tend to withdraw from situations that provide an opportunity for failure. When practice is used as a learning strategy, the skill development occurs through a trial and error process. In this process, the person engages in a behavior, identifies weaknesses, and then engages in the behavior again to correct the weaknesses. Thus, in order to improve, there has to be an initial focus on highlighting weaknesses. It has been theorized that those who are high on avoid performance goal orientation, find the exposure of weaknesses to be particularly discouraging because they believe that they do not have control over ability level (Dweck, 1986). As a result, they anticipate that practice and working hard to improve a skill will not have an effect on skill level. Ultimately, they anticipate

that engaging in practice will just lead to an additional failure experience and result in lower self-efficacy. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H1: Avoid performance goal orientation will be negatively associated with practice.

Those who are high on learning goal orientation were expected to be more likely to engage in practice in a self-paced web-based training program because of their motivation to take advantage of learning opportunities. Elliot, McGregor and Gable (1999) suggest that these individuals believe that they can improve their skills if they expend effort and actively participate in the learning process. These individuals are focused on approaching achievement opportunities because they expect that they will attain positive outcomes as a result of their efforts. Thus, the Work Readiness trainees who were high on learning goal orientation would have looked forward to learning from the trial and error experiences that were associated with practice. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H2: Learning goal orientation will be positively associated with practice.

Those who are high on prove performance goal orientation tend to approach situations when they know that they will be able to perform the task well and when they know that others will recognize their level of competence (Elliott et al., 1999). However, in the independent learning environment in the current study the trainees may not have been motivated to engage in practice because it did not provide an opportunity to be recognized by others. Further, the Work Readiness students in this study were also faced with the competing goal of finding a job, which would have been recognized by others. As a result, the pressure related to finding a job may have been more salient than the self-motivated pressure of engaging in the learning process. The deterring influence of prove performance goal orientation may have been especially damaging

for those who were also high on learning goal orientation. In most situations, those who were high on learning goal orientation would have actually engaged in practice, but because they were influenced by a high prove performance goal orientation they may have been motivated to rush through the practice, not engage in learning and ultimately miss the opportunity to develop the skill. Unfortunately, if these same individuals were offered the opportunity for practice in a context in which there was no competing goal and where others could observe them, the same individuals may have facilitated the learning process by engaging in practice. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H3: Prove performance goal orientation will moderate the relationship between learning goal orientation and practice. Specifically, the positive effects of learning goal orientation on practice will be weaker for those higher on prove performance goal orientation than for those lower on prove performance goal orientation.

Self-reflection

Pintrich and Garcia (1991) argued that even though self-reflection can be a difficult task, it is a necessary component of an effective training program. Self-reflection is the process of engaging in introspection that allows one to become aware of his or her behavior, motivation and cognition. Lane and Rollnick (2007) suggest that including self-reflection as a component of an interactive training program can be beneficial to students because it allows them to receive feedback in a supportive environment. When self-reflection is incorporated in an instructor led training environment, it often includes a review of one's behavior where others, either the facilitator or classmates or both, observe and work with the student to identify weaknesses and strategies for improvement. Researchers warn, however, that a disadvantage of this method is that the students may experience anxiety about being observed by others (Lane & Rollnick,

2007). In an independent learning environment like that of the Work Readiness program, the opportunity for self-reflection should not have induced the anxiety that would have been encountered in a situation where the self-reflection is coupled with the perceptions of others. One might assume that in the current study, everyone would have been able and willing to engage in self-reflection. Unfortunately, previous research on the individual difference variable of goal orientation suggests that this is not likely to be the case. In fact, the literature suggests that there are some students who are far less likely to engage in any type of feedback seeking and that there are others who look forward to being able to learn from the same.

Elliott and Harackiewicz (1996) concluded that individuals who were high on avoid performance goal orientation were more likely to engage in self-esteem protective behaviors than were those who were high on learning goal orientation. To support this notion, previous research found that avoid performance goal orientation was negatively related to feedback seeking (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997) and help seeking (Karabenick, 2001). It has been theorized that those who are high on avoid performance goal orientation are more likely to interpret feedback as judgmental information that only works to highlight one's limitations (Cron et al., 2005; VandeWalle et al., 2001). In other words, these individuals do not attach utility to identifying low skill level because they do not think that ability is malleable. Based on the fact that trainees in this program were often heavily influenced by the perceived stigmas that are associated with unemployment, those who were high on avoid performance goal orientation were most likely not interested in engaging in self-reflection to reveal additional weaknesses. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H4: Avoid performance goal orientation will be negatively associated with self-reflection.

Learning goal orientation has been found to be positively related to feedback seeking (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997) and help seeking (Karabenick, 2001). VandeWalle et al. (1999) argued that those who are high on learning goal orientation interpret feedback as useful diagnostic information about how to improve and promote skill development. When these individuals are offered an opportunity for self-reflection, whether it is in a group or in an independent learning environment, they will be inclined to engage in the process so that they can obtain as much information as possible to assist them in learning. Additionally, researchers have suggested that after receiving feedback, those who are learning goal oriented are more likely to believe that they will actually be able to work toward the development of a skill (Cron et al., 2005). These findings may also generalize to the Work Readiness trainees. Those who were higher on learning goal orientation actively engaged in self-reflection. Based on the previous, I hypothesized the following:

H5: Learning goal orientation will be positively associated with self-reflection.

It has been theorized that those who are higher on prove performance goal orientation tend to engage deeply in learning for the purpose of appearing competent and not for the sake of learning. Pintrich (1995) suggests that students who are interested in completing work to get it done or to obtain the highest grade in the class are less likely to engage in self regulated learning strategies (e.g., self-reflection). The Work Readiness trainees who were high on prove performance goal orientation may have adopted a “just get it done” strategy because they viewed completion of the program and finding a job as a more visible outcome than learning. As a result, they may have focused their attention on behaviors that were expected to help them to advance through the training as quickly as possible. In addition, they may have avoided learning techniques that required them to ruminate over training behavior and processes. In addition to

slowing down progress to advance through training, the process of self-reflection may have been even less attractive to those who were high on prove performance goal orientation in the current study. This is because it was offered in the independent learning environment where no one would even recognize their ability to self critique and create their own strategies for improvement.

The individuals who were high on both learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation may have struggled while participating in the training program because they may have been motivated to use both surface learning strategies and deep processing strategies. In this situation, prove performance goal orientation would be a detriment because it would cause people who perceived self-reflection as a beneficial tool to disregard the opportunity and to choose not to engage in the process of self-reflection. In this instance, a person who may have needed to learn a skill and who would have typically taken advantage of the opportunity, may not have because of the influence of prove performance goal orientation. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H6: Prove performance goal orientation will moderate the relationship between learning goal orientation and self-reflection. Specifically, the positive effects of learning goal orientation on self-reflection will be weaker for those higher on prove performance goal orientation than for those lower on prove performance goal orientation.

Training Outcomes

Program Completion

The main objective of the Work Readiness training program was to have the trainees complete a certification exam and become work ready certified. In order to take the certification

exam, the trainees had to complete all of training modules, pass the subsequent quizzes, pass the post skill assessment, and adhere to the program attendance and dress code requirements. In addition to the anxiety that many of the students experienced in regard to performing academically, many of the students struggled to get to class on time because they had to rely on public transportation. Based on the fact that this program was only offered in one location, many students were forced to make several bus transfers to arrive at the Work Readiness program by 9 a.m. In addition, some students were living in shelters and were limited by the rules and regulations for maintaining residence (e.g., breakfast serving schedules). The trainees who were motivated to complete the course had to be determined to work through the curriculum and prevail over the daily frustrations that were associated with having to rely on public services. The trainees' motivation to persist and overcome these deterrents may have been influenced by goal orientation.

Dweck (1986) theorized that people who are higher on avoid performance goal orientation are less likely to persist in the face of hardship and are more likely to withdraw from situations in which failure is seen as an option. In the Work Readiness program, these individuals were required to approach a learning environment in which they were confronted with the likelihood of failing quizzes on a daily basis. Those who were avoid performance goal oriented may have been afraid of the possibility of adding failing the Work Readiness program to their lists of self perceived failures. The anticipation of this additional failure may have been particularly overwhelming. As a result, these individuals may have been more likely to find a reason to quit the program before taking the certification exam. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H7: Avoid performance goal orientation will be negatively associated with program completion.

Learning goal orientation has been associated with a willingness to approach difficult tasks as a means to promote personal growth (Deshon & Gillespie, 2005). Elliot et al. (1999) suggest that these individuals are more likely to persist in the face of hardship. For those who are higher on learning goal orientation, persistence and the motivation to engage in learning strategies is related to the belief that they can improve their skills if they engage in the learning process. In addition, they believe that their persistence in learning will help them to reap rewards in the long term. In addition, these students may have anticipated experiencing an increase in self confidence after achieving the Work Readiness certification. For all of the above stated reasons, those who were high on learning goal orientation were more likely to consistently engage in behaviors that helped them to progress through the program and move toward the goal of obtaining the Work Readiness certification. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H8: Learning goal orientation will be positively associated with program completion.

Research suggests that prove performance goal oriented individuals are motivated to engage in behaviors that result in successful outcomes and that demonstrate their competence to others (Meece & Holt, 2003). In the context of the Work Readiness program, those who were prove performance goal oriented may have seen the completion of the program as a superficial sign of their worth. They may have believed that graduating from the program was an accomplishment that would be recognized by close family members and classmates, but they may not have believed that hiring organizations or most other people would recognize this accomplishment. They may have made this assessment once they learned that the Work

Readiness initiative was still in its infancy. In addition to skepticism about the worth of the Work Readiness certification, many may have also believed that finding employment was an accomplishment that would allow them to be recognized by everyone as a contributing member of society. As a result, when they made assessments of where to focus their attention, they may have focused less on program completion and more on finding a job. The choice of focusing attention on finding a job may have had a negative influence on those individuals who were high on both learning and prove performance goal orientation. Prove performance goal orientation may have weakened the fortitude of an individual who was also high on learning goal orientation. As a result, a person who would have been able to complete the program may have lost the motivation required to do so. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H9: Prove performance goal orientation will moderate the relationship between learning goal orientation and program completion. Specifically, the positive effects of learning goal orientation on program completion will be weaker for those higher on prove performance goal orientation than for those lower on prove performance goal orientation.

Time in Training

The Work Readiness program was designed to last for approximately three weeks. Before taking the certifying exam, the students were generally expected to complete the basic skills training modules and the post-training skill assessment exam toward the beginning of the third week. Although all of the students were encouraged to graduate from the program, the learning strategies that the trainees engaged in may have led to differential outcomes in the length of time it took for the students to master the basic skills and complete the modules.

Research indicates that the avoid performance goal oriented individuals would not have been motivated to set high goals for themselves. In fact, Payne et al. (2007) found that avoid performance goal orientation was negatively related to self set goal level. They were more likely consumed with avoiding failure of the minimum required program goals. This idea is supported by the results of the experimental study conducted by Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996). In this study, the researchers induced a state goal orientation by assigning participants to a task that required them to focus on achievement from the perspective of a person with a particular trait goal orientation. The results demonstrated that an induced avoid performance goal orientation led to a focus on failure that was detrimental to task performance. They concluded that avoid performance goal oriented participants may have been so focused on not failing, that they allocated less attention to actually learning and improving their skills. In the context of the present study, focused attention on learning was necessary to complete the modules. Those who were high on avoid performance goal orientation may have been less likely to focus on learning and therefore may have been more likely to fail module quizzes, be required to repeat modules and take longer to complete training than those who were not high on avoid performance goal orientation. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H10: Avoid performance goal orientation will be positively associated with time in training for those who completed the basic skills portion of the training program.

As previously suggested, those who were learning goal oriented may have been more likely to engage in adaptive learning strategies. Hollis-Sawyer and Sterns (1999) found that those who engaged in goal setting were able to complete training tasks faster than those who did not set specific goals for training. Previous research suggests that dispositional goal orientation is related to self set goal level. In a meta-analysis conducted by Payne et al. (2007) self set goal

level was found to be positively related to learning goal orientation. This suggests that learning goal oriented individuals in the current study may have held themselves to a higher standard than the minimal requirements that were outlined by the Work Readiness program administrators. In order to meet their own standard, they may have exerted more effort and used deep processing learning strategies. As a result, they should have been more likely to complete the modules during their first attempt. Ultimately, completing modules on the first try would have allowed these individuals to complete the training faster than those who had to repeat modules. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H11: Learning goal orientation will be negatively associated with time in training for those who completed the basic skills portion of the training program.

The result of the Payne et al. (2007) meta-analysis did not support the claim that those high on prove performance goal orientation set high self goals because of their desire to demonstrate competence to others. In this study, I expected that those who were high on prove performance goal orientation were preoccupied with the performance goal of finding a job. In addition, they were less influenced by the learning goals because the training was done in an independent learning environment in which no one would notice their superior academic performance. As a result, these participants may have engaged in maladaptive learning strategies, such as surface learning and low levels of effort expenditure to obtain the required minimum score needed to advance to the next step in the training process. As a result, the behaviors of the participants who were high in both prove performance and learning goal orientations may have been negatively influenced by the impact of their high level of prove performance goal orientation. The prove performance goal orientation may have led those who were also high in learning goal orientation to superficially engage in the learning processes. As a result,

individuals who would have otherwise completed the modules after the first attempt would in this situation have to repeat modules and, as a result, take longer to complete the training program. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H12: Prove performance goal orientation will moderate the relationship between learning goal orientation and time in training for those who completed the basic skills portion of the training program. Specifically, the negative relationship between learning goal orientation and training time will be weaker for those higher on prove performance goal orientation than for those lower on prove performance goal orientation.

Learning

Learning is a very popular dependent variable in the goal orientation literature and is essential to the evaluation of training programs. In addition to being used as an assessment to validate the quality of the training program, learning is an essential pre-condition to skill transfer. For those who were in the Work Readiness program, it was important that they learned the skills and passed the certification exam, but they also needed to apply those skills in their future workplaces. If the students failed to apply the skills in the workplace, the credibility of the entire Work Readiness initiative would have been at risk. Learning is the acquisition of declarative and procedural knowledge typically assessed through performance on a test or exam (Payne et al., 2007). The learning outcome in this study focused on knowledge gain that is demonstrated through the improvement of scores on a skill assessment exam. The amount that individuals learn in training has been linked to trainee motivation (Colquitt et al., 2000). Students who are motivated to learn work harder to engage themselves in the acquisition of declarative and procedural knowledge. Differences related to student motivation are influenced by individual differences in goal orientation (Colquitt et al., 2000).

Covington (1992) argued that once people who are high on avoid performance goal orientation believe that they are likely to fail in an achievement situation, they also accept that there is nothing that they can do to avoid failure. This rationale leads them to focus their attention on engaging in behaviors that prevent them from looking incompetent. As a result, they are not able to focus their attention on adaptive learning strategies, but instead demonstrate behaviors that do not support learning. For example, avoid performance goal orientation has been found to be positively related to procrastination (Howell et al., 2007) and negatively related to the deep processing of information (Dupeyrat & Marine, 2001). Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H13: Avoid performance goal orientation will be negatively associated with learning.

Previous research suggests that learning goal orientation is positively related to learning outcomes and self regulatory processes that influence those outcomes. For example, learning goal orientation has been found to be positively related to effort (VandeWalle et al., 2001), deep processing strategies (Meece & Holt, 1993), persistence (Miller, Greene, Montalvo, Ravindran, & Nichols, 1996), academic adjustment (Gong & Fan, 2006) and help seeking (Karabenick, 2004). Ultimately, these findings suggest those who are higher in learning goal orientation are more likely to expend the effort required to gain a deeper understanding of the concept and therefore learn more. In the context of the Work Readiness program, the previous would indicate that trainees who were higher on learning goal orientation most likely applied learning strategies that promoted learning. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H14: Learning goal orientation will be positively associated with learning.

There have been mixed findings related to the relationship between prove performance goal orientation and learning (Payne et al., 2007). These findings may have been influenced by the context of the varying situations. For example, Cron et al. (2005) found that prove performance goal orientation is positively related to exam performance before negative feedback is given, but that it is not related to exam performance once feedback has been given. In the current study, the learning measure incorporated the post-training assessment. This assessment was given after the participants had been regularly exposed to feedback for approximately three weeks. As a result, prove performance goal orientation may have been less likely to have a direct effect on learning, but may have still moderated the relationship between learning goal orientation and learning. Students who are higher on learning goal orientation do not tend to be negatively influenced by feedback. In fact, they are likely to engage in feedback seeking as a learning strategy that promotes learning (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). In the context of the Work Readiness program, participants higher on learning goal orientation may have learned from feedback and improved based on what they learned. When the same participants were also higher on prove performance goal orientation, their reactions to feedback may have been influenced by their motivation to perceive themselves as being more competent than others. As a result, prove performance goal orientation may have inhibited those who were also high on learning goal orientation by limiting the effectiveness of feedback as a learning strategy. Based on the previous argument, the following was hypothesized:

H15: Prove performance goal orientation will moderate the relationship between learning goal orientation and learning.

Specifically, the positive effects of learning goal orientation on learning were expected to be weaker for those higher on prove performance goal orientation than for those lower on prove performance goal orientation.

CHAPTER 4: METHOD

Work Readiness Training Program

This study was conducted in the context of a Work Readiness training program. This particular program was funded by the state of Florida as part of the National Work Readiness initiative to train basic work skills. The primary objective of the initiative was to use a standardized exam to identify individuals who possessed the minimum level of job skill competence required for entry-level jobs. The core of the training curriculum was administered using the KeyTrain web-based job skills training system (Think Media, 2007). The basic job skills of the curriculum were math, reading, writing, locating information, observation, teamwork, and listening actively (see Appendix A for KeyTrain course descriptions). The primary benefit of participating in this program was the opportunity to become “Work Ready” certified. This certification indicated that the individual who earned it demonstrated the basic skills that are needed for almost any entry-level job. The participants were told that Work Readiness graduates would be given preferential treatment when applying for positions at partnering organizations. An additional benefit of this program was that it was considered an acceptable work-related activity which was important for TANF participants, as they had to choose from a list of work related activities in order to continue to receive financial assistance from the government. Finally, graduating participants received career counseling, a \$75 voucher to purchase business attire, and financial incentives for finding a job.

There were several qualifications that had to be met in order for the trainees to be involved in the Work Readiness program. First, they had to have either a high school diploma, general equivalency degree (G.E.D), or be in the process of enrolling in a G.E.D course. Second, they had to be enrolled in the TANF program. Finally, they had to achieve a minimum score of

80% on the math and reading qualification exams. After being accepted into the program, the trainees were required to log in for approximately 120 hours of active training. This time consisted of 90 hours spent completing the basic skills modules and 30 hours in self-directed study (e.g., homework assignments and job search) over the course of three to four weeks). The training environment was designed to simulate a professional work place. As a result, poor attendance was not tolerated and business casual attire was required. Violation of these policies resulted in a verbal and written warning. If the behavior continued to occur, after the warning, the students were dismissed from the program.

The participants of the Work Readiness program were required to complete four phases: (a) pre-training skill assessment, (b) basic job skills curriculum, (c) post-training skill assessment, and (d) Work Readiness certification. In the pre-training skill assessment phase, trainees were asked to complete a computer based pre-assessment exam that evaluated their baseline ability levels across the skills included in the curriculum (see Appendix A for KeyTrain course descriptions). Next, the trainees had to complete the basic job skills curriculum phase. Typically, each trainee worked independently on a computer and completed KeyTrain modules in the various skill areas at his or her own pace. Completion of the modules required the trainees to review the material, participate in computer-based exercises and pass a quiz. In addition, they were required to complete interpersonal skills training modules that varied in instruction mode. The interpersonal skills training modules were either instructor-led or computer-based.

The Workforce Central Florida Interpersonal Skills Training Simulator is an example of a computer-based soft skills module. This tool was offered to the Work Readiness program and implemented as a mandatory module. Even though the trainees had to complete it as a requirement of the program, they were aware that the Work Readiness program facilitators

would not score this module. In the current study, the trainees' behaviors during this module were examined as an indicator of engagement in two learning strategies: practice and self-reflection. The training process data were collected from their saved responses.

After all of the modules were complete, the trainees started Phase Three. In this phase, they were re-tested using the skill assessment from Phase One. In the final phase, the participants took the Work Readiness certification exam. The students were assessed based on levels ranging from one to seven. In order to become Work Ready certified, they had to achieve a level three on the locating information, math, and reading areas of the examination.

Workforce Central Florida Interpersonal Skills Simulator

The Workforce Central Florida Interpersonal Skills Training Simulator is an interactive computer-based simulation that is designed to help trainees practice and receive feedback through self-reflection on five interpersonal communication skills. These competencies are listening actively, speaking clearly, resolving conflict, cooperating with others, and solving problems with math (See Appendix B for descriptions of the interpersonal skill areas). The simulation contained 32 events of which the participants were required to provide a verbal response by speaking into a microphone or a written response that required typing using the keyboard. All of the responses were saved on the computer. The simulation had three major sections. These sections were (a) Introduction, (b) Customer Service Simulation, and (c) Performance Assessment and Feedback. Each section will be described in detail below.

Introduction

The introduction was designed to expose the participant to the contextual and technical components of the simulation. Participants completed this portion of the simulator by listening to

the narration, clicking through the slides and following the directions for the practice exercises. On average, it took approximately 19 minutes to complete this part of the program.

First, information was given about the purpose of the simulation. Next, participants were given instructions for interacting with the program. The participants practiced responding verbally to various communication conditions using the headset/microphone device (face to face, phone, public address response system) and through type written communication using the e-mail condition (see communication mode description – Appendix C). Finally, the participants were provided with background information about the role that they played as the hospital emergency room customer service representative. Specifically, the participants were given a job description, introduced to coworkers and supervisors and informed of the hospital rules and procedures.

Customer Service Simulation

The simulation was a 40-minute interactive training program in which participants responded to 32 new scenarios within a continuous storyline. Participants responded to situations by using various communication modes, but primarily used spoken responses. Voice recognition technology detected when the participants were done responding to a scenario and advanced them to the next scene (see Appendix C for a description of the communication modes). Altogether, participants responded to 19 face-to-face scenarios, five voicemails, five e-mails, and three Public Address (PA) system announcements. Although each scene was designed to assess a particular communication skill, the participants were not told which skill was being assessed in each scene. In addition, each skill was evaluated intermittently across several scenes throughout the storyline so that the participants were forced to use multiple skills in a dynamic environment.

Performance Assessment and Feedback

The Performance Assessment and Feedback section of the training program allowed the participants to listen to their responses and compare them to examples of ideal responses to the various situations. The participants were reminded of the situation surrounding each response. Next, they were asked specific questions that were designed to help them engage in self-reflection about their responses. Most of the questions required them to indicate an answer by selecting either yes or no. There were seven open-ended questions in this section that required the participants to provide a type-written response (see Appendix N).

Participants

One hundred and eighty-eight (188) female trainees of a Florida-based Work Readiness Program ($M = 29.87$ years, $SD = 7.23$, min = 18, max = 53) volunteered to participate between September 2005 and June 2006. The racial make-up consisted of 107 Blacks, 49 Latinos, 27 Whites, one Asian, and four individuals who chose not to disclose race. Of the participants, 29 stopped attending school before graduating from high school, 45 earned either a high school diploma or G.E.D, 92 had taken college courses without earning a four-year college degree, and ten earned bachelors degrees. Education level data were missing for 12 participants. On average, the participants had 5.54 years of customer service experience ($SD = 3.93$, min = 0, max = 18). Data were missing in regard to years of customer service experience for 55 participants.

Attrition was a major problem for the Work Readiness Program and for this study. In fact, 66.3% of the students who did not become Work Readiness certified discontinued the program by the end of the first week. Based on the transient nature of this population and the fact that the program was cancelled abruptly, it was difficult to collect data on all of the measures for all of the participants. The sample sizes for each measure and subsequent analysis will be

identified in later sections. The participants did not receive compensation for volunteering to participate in the study as a separate activity from the Work Readiness training program. All participants were treated in accordance with ethical guidelines and following the requirements of University of Central Florida Office of Research & Commercialization (see Appendices D and E).

Measures

Demographic Information

A demographic questionnaire was used to provide additional contextual information about the sample population (see Appendix F). The variables collected from this measure included gender, age, race, education level, years of customer service experience, bilingual ability, date of last employment and type of previous position (i.e., full time or part time).

Work-Family Conflict

Work family conflict was measured using a 2-item 6-point Likert scale (see Appendix I). The indicators ranged from “1,” representing *strongly disagree*, to “6,” representing *strongly agree*. The mean work-family conflict score was 3.18 ($n = 184$, $SD = 1.70$) with a possible range from 1 to 6 (actual min = 1, actual max = 6). An example item was “at this point in my life, the needs of my family or spouse/partner make it difficult for me to do things that would help me to get a job.” The coefficient alpha for this scale was .87.

Reaction to the Simulation

Reaction to the simulation was measured using a 6-point Likert scale (see Appendix J). The item responses ranged from “1,” indicating *strongly disagree*, to “6,” indicating *strongly*

agree. This scale consisted of five items ($n = 135$, $M = 4.8$, $SD = 1.02$, $\text{min} = 1$, $\text{max} = 6$). The internal consistency of this scale was assessed using coefficient alpha of .75. An example of an item in the scale read “I enjoyed the simulation.”

Reaction to the Self-Reflection Task

Reaction to the self-reflection task was measured using a 6-point Likert scale (see Appendix K). The item responses ranged from “1,” indicating *strongly disagree*, to “6,” indicating *strongly agree*. This scale consisted of three items ($n = 138$, $M = 5.21$, $SD = 0.96$, $\text{min} = 1$, $\text{max} = 6$). Reaction to the self-reflection task was measured using three items. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .72. An example item was “I enjoyed the self assessment process.”

Job Search Self-Efficacy

Job search self-efficacy was measured using a 10-item 6-point Likert scale (see Appendix G). This scale ranged from “1,” *not at all confident*, to “6,” *extremely confident*. An item in this scale was “how confident are you in your ability to interview for a new position” ($n = 187$, $M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.83$, $\text{min} = 1.2$, $\text{max} = 6$). The coefficient alpha for this scale was .86

Computer Anxiety

Computer anxiety was measured using a 20-item scale developed by Marcoulides, Stocker, and Marcoulides (2004; see Appendix H). The items were answered using a 6-point Likert scale ($n = 168$, $M = 3.16$, $SD = 1.29$, $\text{min} = 1$, $\text{max} = 6$). The participants were instructed to rate the degree to which the situation described in the item led them to feel anxious. A score of one indicated that the participants were not at all anxious and a score of six indicated that they

were very anxious. The coefficient alpha was .96. An item included in this measure was “learning computer terminology.”

Goal Orientation

Learning, prove performance and avoid performance goal orientation dimensions were assessed using scales developed by VandeWalle and Cummings (1997; see Appendix L). Participants were asked to respond to each item using a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from a score of one, meaning strongly disagree, to a score of six, meaning strongly agree ($n = 188$). The learning goal orientation measure consisted of five items (e.g., “I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks where I’ll learn new skills;” $M = 5.05$, $SD = .84$, $\text{min.} = 2.2$, $\text{max.} = 6$). The coefficient alpha for this subscale was .83. The measure of prove performance goal orientation consisted of four items (e.g., “I’m concerned with showing that I can perform better than others;” $M = 4.23$, $SD = .97$, $\text{min.} = 1.75$, $\text{max.} = 6$). The internal consistency was measured using coefficient alpha ($\alpha = .64$). Finally, the measure of avoid performance goal orientation consisted of four items (e.g., “I prefer to avoid situations where I might perform poorly;” $M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.2$, $\text{min.} = 1$, $\text{max.} = 6$). Coefficient alpha was .77.

Practice

Engagement in practice was assessed using two indicators. The first indicator was the sum score of the dichotomous ratings of the trainees’ responses to five e-mail events during the simulation. All of the responses used for this assessment required the participant to answer using type written communication (see Appendix M for simulation e-mail events). If a question was answered, the participant was assigned a score of one for that question. If a question was skipped, the participant was assigned a score of zero for that question. As a result, the possible

sum total score could range from 0 to 5. The actual minimum and maximum scores did range from 0 to 5 ($n = 133$, $M = 4.89$, $SD = .55$). The coefficient alpha for this measure was .77. The second indicator of practice was the amount of time taken to complete the customer service simulation portion of the interpersonal skills training simulator. Those who spent more time completing this section were thought to have engaged in more practice. The times ranged from 29 minutes to 83 minutes ($n = 88$, $M = 52$, $SD = 10.55$). The responses from the face-to-face, phone and PA announcements were not used in the analyses due to the error that would have been introduced by the technological complications that hindered the consistency of the recordings.

Self-Reflection

Self-reflection was assessed using two indicators. The first indicator was a dichotomous rating of whether the trainees answered or skipped the seven open-ended questions in the performance assessment and feedback section of the interpersonal simulator (see Appendix N for self-reflection questions). In order to answer the questions, the participants had to type a written response. If a question was answered, the participant was assigned a score of one. If the question was skipped, the participant was assigned a score of zero. As a result, the possible sum total scores could range from 0 to 7. The actual minimum score was 0 and the actual maximum score was 7 ($n = 74$, $M = 3.81$, $SD = 2.79$). An assessment of internal consistency was conducted using coefficient alpha ($\alpha = .9$). The second indicator of effort was the amount of time spent in the performance assessment and feedback portion of the interpersonal skills training simulator. Those who spent more time completing this section were considered to have exerted more effort in self-reflection. The times ranged from 9 minutes to 68 minutes ($n = 82$, $M = 34.02$, $SD = 12.19$).

Program Completion

The purpose of the Work Readiness Training program was for trainees to become Work Ready certified. Ninety trainees completed the certification process. The trainees who did not certify discontinued the program for the following reasons: dismissed for lack of attendance ($n = 37$), found a job ($n = 14$), dismissed by the instructor for lack of progress ($n = 13$), dropped out due to personal constraints ($n = 8$), health reasons ($n = 5$), did not pass the certification exam ($n = 3$), started school ($n = 3$) and TANF account closure ($n = 2$). Based on the abrupt ending of the Work Readiness Program, data on program completion were not collected for 13 participants. In rating program completion, participants were assigned a score of one if they certified and a score of zero if they did not.

Time in Training

Time in training was measured using two different indicators. Data were only included in these analyses for participants who completed the Work Readiness program. The first indicator was the amount of time that participants stayed in training. This was calculated using cumulative program hours. Participant attendance records were compiled by the program facilitators. The cumulative program hours ranged from 11 hours to 131.75 hours ($n = 83$, $M = 54.33$, $SD = 25.09$). The second indicator of time in training accounted for the number of times that the participants took the quiz at the end of each module before achieving the minimum score required to pass the module. If a participant did not pass the quiz, that person was required to repeat the lesson and retake the quiz. The average number of times that participants completed modules across the areas was used as an indicator of time in training. The minimum average number of attempts was 1 and the maximum was 5.43 ($n = 65$, $M = 1.81$, $SD = .79$). Internal consistency across areas was estimated using coefficient alpha ($\alpha = .79$).

Learning

Participants were given a pre-training skill assessment test on the second day of enrollment in the program. This computer-based skill assessment evaluated them in the areas of math, listening actively, locating information, reading, observation and teamwork. Next, after completing all of the KeyTrain modules, the participants were re-tested using the same skill assessment. The length of time between test administrations varied across participants because the participants worked individually and the program was self-paced. The tests were scored based on level ranging from below level 1 to level 7. The pre-training skill assessment scores were subtracted from the post-training skill assessment scores as an indicator of learning in each skill area. The average difference across areas was calculated for each participant ($n = 72$, $M = .75$, $SD = .57$, min. = -1.29, max. = 2). In addition, the percent increase in scores from the pre-training skill assessment score to the post-training skill assessment score were also calculated ($n = 72$, $M = 30.05$, $SD = 25.71$, min. = -25, max. = 118). The seven modules were assessed separately because the areas did not demonstrate enough internal consistency to warrant the creation of a single indicator of learning ($\alpha = .28$). Analyses were limited to the three areas of learning in which the average increase in score from the pre-training skill assessment to the post training skill assessment was at least .75. The descriptive statistics for the difference and percent increase between pre-training and post-training skill assessments for each area can be found in Table 1.

Table 1:

Descriptive Statistics for Pre-Training-Post-Training Skill Assessment Differences

Variable	Difference Scores				Percent Increase in Score			
	M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
1. Math	1.38	1.26	-2	4	42.81	39.71	-40	133
2. Observation	1.26	1.40	-2	4	38.54	41.05	-40	133
3. Listening Actively	.75	1.34	-2	5	39.07	100.77	-40	133
4. Writing	.51	1.57	-3	4	51.99	95.52	-75	300
5. Locating Information	.47	.88	-1	3	13.73	24.42	-17	100
6. Reading	.44	1.20	-2	3	11.61	25.43	-29	100
7. Teamwork	.40	1.45	-2	3	12.57	30.61	-33	75

N = 72 for all

Procedure

New trainee orientations were held on Tuesday of each week, typically the second day of the participants' first week in the program. These orientations were for all new trainees and were held to inform them that they were required to go through the Workforce Central Florida Interpersonal Skills Training Simulator as a module for interpersonal skills. In addition, the trainees were told that the Work Readiness program facilitators would not score this module. During the orientation, participants were also informed about the research that was being conducted and were given the opportunity to volunteer to participate by completing measures and allowing their responses from the interpersonal skills training simulator to be used in subsequent analyses. The trainees who volunteered were asked to read and complete an informed consent, a demographic questionnaire, control variable measures, and the goal orientation measure. Next, participants went through the simulated customer service-training program. This occurred three to five business days after the orientation. After completing the simulation, the trainees continued in their participation in the Work Readiness program. Once the trainees exited the program, archival data about their reasons for leaving the program, the amount of time it took

them to find a job as well as their scores on the pre-training and post-training skill assessments were collected.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

All analyses were conducted using SPSS 14.0 for Windows. The correlations among study variables are presented in Table 2. Reading, observation, listening actively, and math pre-training scores were used in the preliminary analyses and were included as covariates in the final analyses when appropriate.

Correlations of the Covariates

Reading pre-training score was included as a covariate in the analysis of time in practice. This was appropriate because the participants in this study were required to read e-mails that were not narrated in order to complete the practice task. Reading was negatively related to time in practice ($r = -.39$).

Math, listening actively, and observation pre-training scores were included as covariates in the analyses of learning for their respective areas. Math pre-training score was negatively related to math pre-post training difference ($r = -.73$), cumulative program hours ($r = -.36$), and number of module attempts ($r = -.37$). Listening actively pre-training score was positively related to listening actively pre-post training difference ($r = .90$) and negatively related to cumulative program hours ($r = -.36$) and number of module attempts ($r = -.38$). Observation pre-training was negatively related to observation pre-post training difference ($r = -.70$) and positively related to program completion ($r = .40$).

Job search self-efficacy, computer anxiety, work-family conflict, reaction to the simulation, and reaction to the self-reflection task were used in the preliminary analyses to address concerns regarding the influence of attitude on several of the study variables. Job search self-efficacy was negatively related to avoid performance goal orientation ($r = -.17$) as well as work-family conflict ($r = -.16$) and positively related to learning goal orientation ($r = .56$), prove

performance goal orientation ($r = .15$), and time in self-reflection ($r = .24$). Computer anxiety was negatively related to program completion ($r = -.16$) and positively related to cumulative program hours ($r = .34$), as well as the number of attempts to complete the training modules ($r = .33$). Work family conflict was positively related to avoid goal orientation ($r = .22$) and negatively related to program completion ($r = -.20$). Reaction to the practice task and reaction to the self-reflection task were positively related to each other ($r = .64$). In addition, reaction to the practice task was negatively related to cumulative program hours ($r = .28$). Reaction to the self-reflection task was positively related to learning goal orientation ($r = .21$) and negatively related to cumulative program hours ($r = -.32$).

Data Screening

The hypotheses in this study were tested using moderated multiple regression and moderated logistic regression. The variables in these analyses were normally distributed and did not violate the assumptions of linearity or homoscedasticity. As anticipated, multicollinearity existed among the predictors of learning goal orientation, prove goal orientation and the interaction of these predictors. As a result, the predictors were centered before being entered in the regression equations (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

Table 2.

Inter-correlations Among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Avoid GO	(.77)																				
2. Learning GO	-.31**	(.83)																			
3. Prove GO	.19**	.17*	(.64)																		
4. Coded Practice	-.28**	.03	-.08	(.75)																	
5. Time in Practice	-.06	-.04	.02	.16	(-)																
6. Coded Self-reflection	-.10	.18	.21 [†]	.10	-.28	(.90)															
7. Time in Self-reflection	-.07	.06	-.03	.06	.02	.14	(-)														
8. Program Completion	-.11	-.10	-.04	-.01	-.38**	.09	-.11	(-)													
9. Cum. Hours in Training	.05	-.16	-.21	-.18	.20	.01	.25	.06	(-)												
10. Module Attempts	.26*	-.03	.16	-.32	.18	.12	.12	-.01	.35**	(.79)											
11. Learning (Observing)	-.08	-.07	.13	-.01	.00	.09	-.09	-.21	.00	-.02	(-)										
12. Learning (Listening Actively)	-.09	.01	-.05	.07	.32*	.01	.09	.03	.31*	.25*	.10	(-)									
13. Learning (Math)	.05	-.22	.04	-.11	.06	-.04	-.08	.05	.23	.19	.01	.14	(-)								
14. Job Search Self-efficacy	-.17*	.56**	.15*	.14	-.19	.24*	-.05	.01	-.02	.19	-.08	.13	-.10	(.86)							
15. Computer Anxiety	.02	.02	.13	-.12	.08	-.01	-.04	-.16*	.34**	.33**	.16	.06	.24**	.14	(.96)						
16. Work-Family Conflict	.22**	-.06	.13	-.03	.11	.03	.17	-.20**	-.09	-.19	.04	-.09	-.01	-.16*	.09	(.87)					
17. Reaction to the Simulation	-.07	.06	-.08	.08	-.17	.17	.02	.13	-.28*	.06	.03	-.10	.09	.15	-.04	-.24**	(.75)				
18. Reaction to Self Assessment	-.03	.21*	.05	.07	-.19	.15	-.11	.04	-.32*	.05	.16	-.04	-.10	.26**	.06	-.15	.64**	(.72)			
19. Pre-Training Reading	-.18*	.08	-.07	.07	-.39**	.16	-.03	.39**	-.17	-.41**	.10	-.02	-.06	-.02	-.15	-.06	.04	.02	(-)		
20. Pre-Training Observation	-.13	.03	-.03	.11	-.09	.08	-.00	.40**	-.19	-.24	-.70**	-.03	-.07	-.07	-.25**	-.03	.06	-.14	.29**	(-)	
21. Pre-Training Listening Actively	-.03	-.02	.04	.03	-.45**	-.09	.26	-.09	-.36**	-.38**	-.04	.90**	-.13	-.15	-.21	.08	.10	.01	.10	.12	(-)
22. Pre-Training Math	.01	.19	.00	.07	-.30*	.09	.15	592	-.36**	-.37**	-.05	-.18	-.73**	.05	.40**	.15	-.18	-.08	.19	.19	.25

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, † $p < .05$. The sample sizes varied across bivariate correlation analyses. The sample sizes used to assess the relationships between self report measures and all other variables ranged from 57 to 188. The sample sizes used to assess the relationships between the process measures and between the process measures and outcome measure ranged from 27-85. The sample sizes used to assess the relationship between the outcome measures ranged from 63 to 72. GO = goal orientation.

Training Processes

Practice

Hypotheses One, Two and Three were tested using moderated multiple regression. The two indicators of practice were coded practice and time in practice. Both of these indicators were independently regressed on avoid performance goal orientation (APGO), learning goal orientation (LGO), prove performance goal orientation (PPGO), and the interaction term for learning goal orientation by prove performance goal orientation (LGO x PPGO). In addition, pre-training reading score was included as a covariate in the analysis of time in practice. The overall F was significant for the equation in which coded practice was the dependent variable, $F(4, 134) = 2.98, p < .05$. This model accounted for 5% of the variance in coded practice. Similarly, the overall F was significant when time in practice was regressed on the predictors, $F(5, 78) = 4.37, p < .01$. Taken together the set of predictors explained 17% of the variance in time in practice.

Avoid performance goal orientation was not a significant predictor of time in practice. However, in support of Hypothesis One, avoid performance goal orientation did account for unique variance in coded practice (see Table 3). Learning goal orientation did not contribute uniquely to variance in either indicator of practice. Thus, Hypothesis Two was not supported. The covariate of reading and the interaction term of learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation were significant predictors of time in practice (see Table 4). The pattern of the interaction is shown in Figure 2.

Learning goal orientation was negatively associated with time in practice for those who were lower in prove performance goal orientation and positively related to time in practice for those who were higher on prove performance goal orientation. Hypothesis Three was not

supported because the pattern of the resulting relationship was opposite of the hypothesized pattern.

Table 3.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for Coded Practice

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Coded Practice					.05*
	Avoid Goal Orientation	.13	.04	-.28**	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	.08	.06	-.12	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.02	.05	.03	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	.08	.06	-.13	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 139$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for the Time in Practice

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Time in Practice					.17**
	Reading Pretest	3.34	.91	-.38**	
	Avoid Goal Orientation	.13	.98	-1.37	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	.26	1.57	.17	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.09	1.27	-.07	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	.23	1.45	2.22*	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 84$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

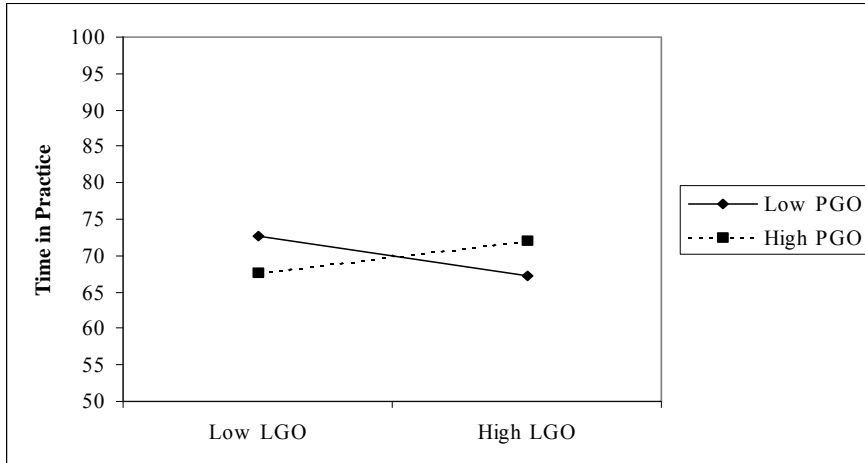


Figure 2. Interaction Plot for Time in Practice

Self-reflection

Moderated multiple regression was used with two different indicators of self-reflection to test Hypotheses Four, Five, and Six. Coded self-reflection and time in self-reflection were independently regressed on avoid performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation, prove performance goal orientation and the interaction term for learning goal and prove performance goal orientations. This model accounted for 1% of the variance in coded self-reflection, $F(4, 69) = 1.12, p > .05$, and 4% of the variance in time in self-reflection, $F(4, 77) = .17, p > .05$. The overall F was not significant in either equation. Thus, H4, H5 and H6 were not supported (see Tables 5 and 6).

Table 5.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for the Coded Self-reflection

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Coded Self-reflection					.01
	Avoid Goal Orientation	-.15	.31	-.06	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	.30	.46	-.09	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.52	.36	.18	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	-.04	.43	-.01	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 74$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 6.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for the Time in Self-reflection

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Time in Self-reflection					.04
	Avoid Goal Orientation	-.44	1.26	-.04	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	1.07	1.99	.07	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	-.59	1.63	-.05	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	.55	1.86	.04	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 82$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Training Outcomes

Program Completion

Hypotheses Seven, Eight and Nine were tested using standard moderated logistic regression with a dichotomous outcome. These hypotheses were tested by regressing program completion on avoid performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation, prove performance goal orientation, and the interaction term for learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation. A constant-only baseline model correctly classified 51.1% of the cases. The full predictor model correctly classified 56.3% of cases overall. A test of the full model with all four predictors against a constant-only model was conducted using the chi-square difference test. The model did not demonstrate reliability, $\chi^2(8) = 6.33, p > .05$. Thus, the set of predictors did not reliably distinguish between those who did and those who did not certify. The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test indicated support for the model, $\chi^2(8) = 6.08, p > .05$. Avoid goal orientation approached significance ($p = .05$) based on the Wald criterion, but the absolute value of the odds ratio was less than 1 (OR = .75). The associated confidence interval ranged from .57 to 1.00. The Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke R^2 “pseudo R^2 ” indices suggested that the model accounted for 3% and 4.7% of the variance in program completion, respectively. Taken together, this model did not provide reliable prediction of program completion. Thus, Hypotheses Seven, Eight and Nine were not supported (see Table 7).

Table 7.

Moderated Logistic Regression Analysis for Program Completion

Variables

Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	Wald	Exp(B)	$R^2 = .04$	
						95% C.I. for Exp(B)	
						Lower	Upper
Program Completion	Avoid Goal Orientation	-.29	.14	3.91*	.75	.57	1.00
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	-.39	.20	3.65	.68	.45	1.01
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.06	.17	.13	1.06	.76	1.48
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	-.12	.20	.39	.89	.60	1.30

$R^2 =$ Cox and Snell R^2 . $N = 172$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Time in Training

Hypotheses Ten, Eleven, and Twelve were tested using moderated multiple regression. In these analyses, time in training was measured in program hours and in number of attempts to complete modules. Cumulative hours in training was regressed on avoid performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation, prove performance goal orientation and the interaction term for learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation dimensions. This set of predictors did not account for the variance in cumulative hours in training $F(5, 63) = 1.9, p > .05$ (see Table 7). Next, average number of attempts taken to complete the modules was regressed on avoid performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation, prove performance goal orientation and the interaction term for learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation. The overall equation for this model was not significant, $F(4, 74) = 1.52, p > .05$ (see Table 8). Thus, H10, H11, and H12 were not supported using moderated multiple regression. However, H10 was supported by the significant positive bivariate relationship between avoid

performance goal orientation and time in training. Specifically, those who were higher on avoid performance goal orientation repeated module more often.

Table 8.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for the Cumulative Hours in Training

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Cumulative Hours in Training					.06
	Avoid Goal Orientation	-6.27	2.91	-.26	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	-.68	3.23	-.03	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	-5.75	4.41	-.17	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	3.35	3.79	.11	

*R*² = total adjusted *R*². *N* = 69. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

Table 9.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis for the Number of Attempts to Complete Modules

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Number of Attempts to Complete Modules					.03
	Avoid Goal Orientation	.14	.10	.18	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	.02	.13	.02	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.16	.10	.18	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	.02	.11	.02	

*R*² = total adjusted *R*². *N* = 79. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

Learning

Moderated multiple regression was used to test H13, H14 and H15. Math, listening actively, and observation pre-post-training difference scores were independently regressed on avoid performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation, prove performance goal orientation, and the interaction term for learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation. In addition, the pre-training score for each area was included in the respective analyses as a covariate. The overall equations for all three areas were significant. The model accounted for 52% of the variance in math pre-post-training difference, $F(5, 66) = 16.59, p < .01$ (see Table 9). Although this overall equation was significant, none of the hypothesized independent variables made a significant contribution to explaining variance in math pre-post-training difference scores. The only significant predictor was pre-training math, which was positively associated with math pre-post-training difference. The equation used to predict listening actively pre-post-training difference explained 81% of the variance, $F(5, 66) = 66.26, p < .01$. In support of H13, avoid performance goal orientation was a significant predictor of pre-post-training scores in listening actively. Specifically, avoid performance goal orientation was negatively associated with pre-post-training difference in listening actively (see Table 10). In addition, pre-training listening actively accounted for unique variance in pre-post training difference score of listening actively. Those who scored higher on the listening actively pre-test learned less than those who scored lower.

Finally, the same core set of predictors accounted for 51% of the variance in observation pre-post-training difference $F(6, 65) = 15.62, p < .01$. Pre-training observation score and the interaction between learning and prove performance goal orientation dimensions explained unique variance in observation pre-post-training difference (see Table 11 and Figure 3). Those

who scored higher on the pre-training observation learned less in the same area. The pattern of the interaction suggests that learning goal orientation was positively related to learning for those who were low on goal orientation, but slightly negatively related to learning for those who were high on performance goal orientation.

Although the hypothesized pattern is not identical to the resulting pattern, the results support the notion that those who were higher in both learning and prove performance goal orientation dimensions learned less than those who were higher in learning and lower in prove performance goal orientation dimensions. Thus, H15 was supported. Learning goal orientation did not contribute significantly to either indicator of learning. Consequently, H14 was not supported.

Table 10.

Moderated Multiple Regression for Pre-Post Difference Score for Math

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Math pre-post difference					.52**
	Math Pre-test	-.71	.09	-.70**	
	Avoid Goal Orientation	-.00	.11	-.00	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	-.11	.15	-.07	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.07	.12	.05	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	.15	.12	.11	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 72$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 11.

Moderated Multiple Regression for Pre-Post Difference Score for Listening Actively

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Listening Actively Pre-post difference					.81**
	Listening Actively Pre-test	-.93	.05	-.90**	
	Avoid Goal Orientation	-.17	.07	-.13*	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	-.11	.10	-.06	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.03	.08	-.05	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	.07	.08	-.05	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 72$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 12.

Moderated Multiple Regression for Pre-Post Difference Score for Observation

Variables					
Dependent	Independent	<i>B</i>	SE <i>B</i>	β	R^2
Observation Pre- post difference					.51**
	Observation Pretest	-.72	.09	-.74**	
	Avoid Goal Orientation	-.10	.12	-.08	
	Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	.01	.17	.01	
	Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	.04	.13	.03	
	Interaction of LGO/PPGO	-.31	.14	-.19*	

R^2 = total adjusted R^2 . $N = 72$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

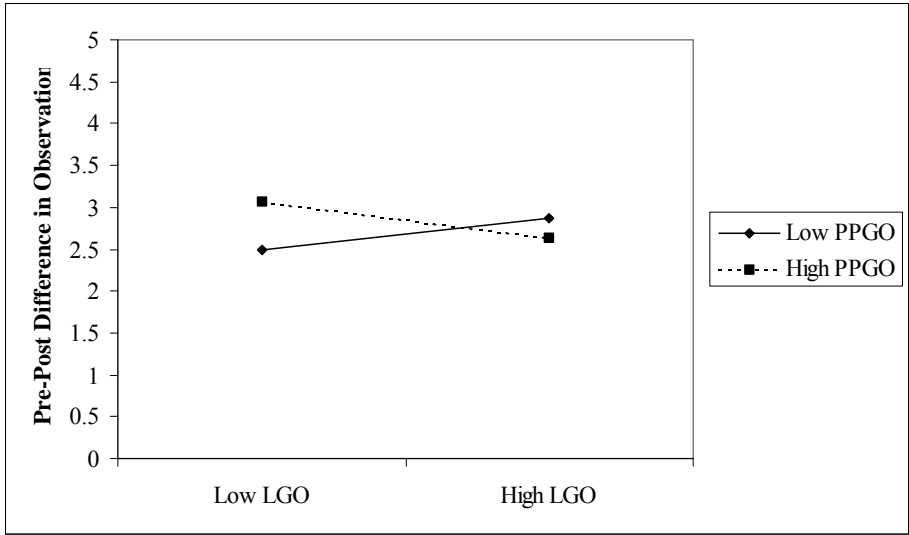


Figure 3. Interaction Plot for Pre-Post Difference in Observation

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

A major goal of the present study was to determine how goal orientation influences the use of learning strategies and training outcomes of Work Readiness trainees. Specifically, I investigated the main effects of avoid performance goal orientation, learning goal orientation and prove performance goal orientation. Additionally, I examined whether prove and learning goal orientation interacted to predict training processes and outcomes. As predicted, avoid goal orientation was found to be negatively associated with engagement in practice and to learning (for one of the three competency areas) and positively related to training time as operationalized by the number of time training modules needed to be retaken (due to failing quizzes).

Learning goal orientation did not demonstrate direct effects with any of the hypothesized study variables. However, it did interact with prove performance goal orientation to predict time in practice and learning (for one of the three competency areas). The nature of these interactions was not exactly as expected. Contrary to expectations, the relationship between learning goal orientation and time in practice was negative for those who were lower on prove performance goal orientation and positive for those who were higher on prove performance goal orientation. As predicted, those high in learning goal orientation learned more if they were lower on prove goal orientation than if they were higher on prove goal orientation. However, for those low on learning goal orientation it was better to be higher on prove than lower on prove goal orientation. No significant relationships were found between goal orientation, self-reflection in training, and program completion.

Theoretical Discussion

Goal Orientation Dimensions

The results of this study are consistent with those from prior research with respect to the negative effects of avoid goal orientation (Elliot & Harackiewicz 1996; Elliot, McGregor, & Gable, 1999; Payne et al., 2006; VandeWalle et al., 2001). In the current study, those who were higher on avoid performance goal orientation were less likely to engage in developmental practice as an adaptive learning strategy than those who were lower on avoid performance goal orientation. In addition, those who were higher on avoid performance goal orientation also learned less than those who were lower on avoid performance goal orientation. Several bivariate relationships also supported the notion that avoid performance goal orientation has a negative influence on training outcomes. For example, individuals higher on avoid goal orientation reported higher levels of work-family conflict and lower levels of job search self-efficacy.

Typically, learning goal orientation has been found to be negatively related to avoid goal orientation, and positively related to learning strategies and training outcomes. In the current study, learning goal orientation was negatively related to avoid performance goal orientation, but did not demonstrate significant predictive or bivariate relationships with the learning strategies or outcomes that were examined in this study. There may have been several contributing factors that led to these results. Several of the analyses in this study were only conducted using the subsample of trainees who completed the Work Readiness training modules. Those who were higher in learning goal orientation may have been more likely to persist and to work through obstacles in order to complete the program (Dweck, 1986; Howell, 2007). Consequently, the students who stayed in the program long enough to be included in the analyses may have generally been higher

on learning goal orientation than the students who did not stay. Thus, the results regarding the remaining may have been limited due to range restriction.

The relationship between learning goal orientation and learning strategies was assessed in regard to coded indicators of learning strategies. Typically, researchers have used self report measures of learning strategies. In the current study, learning goal orientation was positively related to reported reactions to the self-reflection task, but not to coded self-reflection. This study extends previous literature because the measurement of the training processes were not examined using self-report measures. This is particularly important in the study of learning goal orientation because of its relationship with social desirability. Grossbard (2007) and Kavussanu (2006) both found learning goal orientation to be positively related to social desirability. Those who are higher on learning goal orientation may tend to report practicing more than they really do because they are ambitious in their intentions to engage in learning. As a result, the individuals in previous studies may have overestimated the degree to which they actually engaged in learning strategies. Thus, the coded indicators in this study may have provided a more realistic assessment of the degree to which the participants engaged in the training processes. In the future, a study could replicate these findings and perhaps demonstrate the impact that using each type of process measure (i.e. self-report versus coded measures) has on the relationship between learning goal orientation and learning strategies used during training.

The current study supported previous research that suggests that prove performance goal orientation is positively related to both learning and avoid performance goal orientations. A meta-analysis conducted by Payne et al. (2007) found that prove goal orientation tend to be either unrelated or weakly positively related to training processes and outcomes. The results in this study supported this trend. Prove goal orientation did not have main effects on any of the

training process or outcome variables. Instead it moderated the impact of learning goal orientation in two cases. A specific discussion of each interaction will follow.

Explanation of Interactive Relationships

Prove performance goal orientation interacted with learning goal orientation to predict time in practice. The pattern of the interaction suggested that the relationship between learning goal orientation and time in practice was negative for those who were lower on prove performance goal orientation and positive for those who were higher on prove performance goal orientation. One possibility for this is the operational definition of time in practice. In the current study, spending more time in practice was intended to reflect engagement in practice. It was anticipated that those who took longer to complete the simulation were taking time to think about how they wanted to respond, writing notes, reviewing patient information and taking time to write out their math steps. However, it is possible that those who took longer to complete the simulation did so for other reasons. For example, time in practice was negatively related to reading, writing and listening actively pre-training assessments. In addition, time in practice was negatively related to program completion. Taken together, this suggests that those taking longer to complete the simulation may have been engaging in inefficient practice.

The data suggest that individuals who took the longest in practice tended to be either low on both learning and prove performance goal orientation dimensions or high on both. Those who are low on both learning and prove goal orientation typically perform the worst in prior research (e.g., Bouffard, et al., 1995). These individuals were likely not motivated to engage at all in the practice task. I hypothesized that those high on both learning and prove goal orientation would not put as much effort into practicing as would those high on learning goal orientation but low in prove goal orientation. My rationale was that those high on prove goal orientation would want to

rush through the simulation since this task was purely developmental and would not help them to graduate faster. I expected this to manifest itself in shorter simulation times. However, given the manner in which the technology worked it is also possible that those who attempted to rush through may have inadvertently taken longer to complete the task. Specifically, the simulation required a verbal response to move from scene to scene. The technology employed required that responses were clear and long enough for the computer to detect and react to human speech. If a response was not long enough or was too quiet a scene would not advance. Thus, many participants who attempted to rush through the simulation found themselves “fighting” the technology to get it to advance and as a result wound up taking much longer. This may explain why those high in both learning and prove took longer to complete the simulation. In other words, theoretically my hypothesis regarding their desire to rush through practice may have been correct, however the variable I used to assess this was not as straightforward as I originally intended.

Prove goal orientation also interacted with learning goal orientation to predict learning in the area of observation. The nature of this interaction suggested a compensatory relationship. Specifically, trainees showed greater pre-post training gain scores in the area of observation if they were high on either learning or prove goal orientation, but not both. I hypothesized that those high in learning goal orientation would be distracted by the competing goal of proving their competence by gaining reemployment quickly. However, I did not expect that prove performance goal orientation would positively affect learning for those low on learning goal orientation. Perhaps those low on learning goal orientation and high on prove performance goal orientation were more likely to have volunteered for the Work Readiness training program solely because they saw it as a means of demonstrating their competence. By contrast, those low on

both orientations may have simply volunteered as a means of avoiding the need to look for a job. Those who were low on learning and high on prove who did not view the program as an opportunity to prove themselves may have simply not volunteered for the program in the first place and were thus not represented in my data. Additional research is clearly needed to test this notion.

Training Processes

Self-reflection was not related to any of the three goal orientation variables. With respect to self-reflection, my measures may have been deficient or contaminated indicators. Participants who replied to the open ended questions used to indicate coded self-reflection were assumed to have engaged in self-reflection. However, this measure of self-reflection may not have generalized to the participants typical behavior because the interpersonal skills simulator coached them step by step in the process of self-reflection. There may have been individuals who responded during the reflection task, but who do not typical have a positive attitude toward self-reflection or feedback seeking. In fact, in this study, coded self-reflection was not related to reaction to the self-reflection task.

The participants' attitudes about the self-reflection task may have been a better predictor of training outcomes because the participants' responses were influenced by their general attitude regarding self-reflection. Participant reaction to the self-reflection task was positively related to learning goal orientation and negatively related to time in training. Feedback was an integral piece of the Work Readiness program. The participants were given feedback and the opportunity to reflect on every module. Previous research suggests that learning goal orientation is positively related to feedback seeking. Thus, those who were higher on learning goal orientation were more likely to report positive attitudes regarding self-reflection and may have engaged in deeper self-

reflection throughout the Work Readiness training program. In this study, self-reflection was only measured during one module. In addition, it was not assessed for quality. A measure of quality of self-reflection may have been related to generalized attitude of self-reflection and predictive of training outcomes.

Training Outcomes

Program completion was not supported by the hypothesized model, but was negatively related to work-family conflict and computer anxiety. The Work Readiness program was a computer-based program that was offered to individuals who were most likely experiencing relatively high levels of conflict between family obligations and commitment to engaging in the Work Readiness program as well as job search activities. Ultimately, program completion may have been influenced by so many contextual variables that the goal orientation dimensions did not emerge as significantly influencing certification.

Program completion was measured as certified or not certified. The individuals who certified may have been more similar to one another than the individuals who did not certify. Recall that those who did not certify did not for many reasons. The influences of the variation within the non-completion sub-group may not have been evident in the evaluation of completed or not completed. Although this distinction is appropriate in this context, information about the distinctive nuances between people who left the program for the varying reasons may have also been beneficial.

The hypotheses that were tested using the cumulative program hours indicator of time in training were not supported. However, the relationships between cumulative program hour and number of attempts to pass the modules with other variables offers support for the idea that time in training is an important variable to examine. Cumulative program hours was positively related

to number of attempts needed to complete the module and computer anxiety. In addition, cumulative program hours were negatively related to reactions to the practice task, reactions to the reflection task, and pre-training scores on listening actively and math. Number of module attempts was positively related avoid goal orientation, computer anxiety, learning in the area of listening actively and negatively related to pre-training scores in reading, math and listening actively. Overall, those who took longer to complete were influenced by negative attitudes toward training, limited basic skills and an avoid goal orientation.

Many of the theoretical implications discussed also provide support for the practical implications. Although it is cost effective for organizations to implement and facilitate computer based training programs, administrators should be more aware of the influence that individual differences in trainees have on program outcomes (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). The Work Readiness program administrators incorporated the self-paced criteria to allow a degree of flexibility in the program. However, the independent learning environment did not allow the facilitators enough exposure to individual differences in personality, computer anxiety, attitude toward self-reflection, motivation, job search self-efficacy and level of basic skills of the trainees. Additional insight about the trainees would have allowed the facilitators the opportunity to offer the supplementary guidance that was needed.

Practical Implications

The results of this study highlight the deleterious influence of avoid goal orientation on training processes and outcomes as well as the positive influence of learning goal orientation on trainee attitude. Administrators could develop seminars that are designed to improve the participants' self-awareness. In this type of seminar participants could complete a goal orientation measure, learn about the concept of goal orientation, the benefits of learning goal

orientation and the disadvantages of avoid goal orientation. In addition, they may be able to reflect and provide examples about how being higher or lower on particular dimensions has influenced them in the past. Finally, they could be exposed to strategies that would help to identify when they are avoiding achievement opportunities and focusing too heavily on the external referent as well as strategies that will help them to become comfortable with approaching situations and focusing on an internal referent.

A preliminary measurement of goal orientation would allow administrators to identify participants who need additional encouragement or even training to encourage them to activate the underlying mechanisms of approaching achievement situations. A preliminary measurement of goal orientation would also allow the Work Readiness program the opportunity to offer orientation sessions that are designed to highlight the benefits of the program that would be most appreciated by the participants based on their goal orientation dimensions. For example, those who are higher on prove performance goal orientation might be encouraged to attend an orientation that is designed to outline the positive impact that graduating from the Work Readiness program will have on how others perceive them.

If goal orientation measures were completed throughout a workforce development system an agency could use the information to identify the trends across different sectors. Perhaps they would discover that there are patterns regarding how the underlying mechanisms of goal orientation influence different sectors of the population that they serve. In this study, prove goal orientation was negatively related to age. A workforce development agency that implements job skills programs for young adults may want to develop programs that focus primarily on the influence of prove goal orientation and how it can detract from the positive effects of learning goal orientation for some individuals.

Some administrators may assume that they will be able to improve the success of their programs by only choosing participants who are lower on avoid goal orientation and who demonstrate strong basic skills on the pre-training skill assessment. There are several problems with using the findings in this study to support this rationale. First, it is unethical to deny services to a client based on one dimension of personality. Those who are higher on avoid performance goal orientation should not be denied services. Instead, intervention should be put in place to help these individuals learn how not to withdraw from achievement situations. Second, a program that consists of individuals who are all low on avoid goal orientation and who all score high on the basic skills may experience a high pass rate, but the limited variance within the sample will make it more difficult to determine the relationships among goal orientation, training processes and training outcomes. In other words, range restriction will make it more difficult to find significant results when one is trying to determine why a program does or does not work. Finally, programs that are developed to have a positive impact on the community and to reduce poverty should target the participants with the greatest need for assistance. A program that graduates individuals who are higher on avoid goal orientation will have more of a positive impact than a program that is designed to only help those who were already likely to succeed.

Study Limitations

A major limitation in this study was the problem of attrition that occurred in the Work Readiness program. As noted earlier, 66.3% of the students who did not become Work Readiness certified discontinued the program by the end of the first week. As a result, there were many cases of missing data. In general, the missing data were not systematic. For example, one person may have been included in all of the analyses except for the cumulative program hours because there was no attendance data in that person's file. Another person may have had all of the data

points except for average number of module attempts. If this person's file was missing data for only one of the seven modules, that person was not included in the analyses. Overall, missing data were related to the nature of the population, a technological problems and the abrupt cancellation of the program.

There are several limitations to this study that served to reduce statistical power and may have led to Type II errors. Many of the analyses were conducted using relatively small sample sizes. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommend a sample size that is less than or equal to 90 for a model with five predictors and a sample size that is less than or equal to 82 for a model with four predictors. This standard was not met in the current study. The sample sizes ranged from 72 to 84 in the models with five predictors. The lowest case to IV ratio was 14.4 to 1. In the models using four predictors, the lowest case to IV ratio was 17.25 to 1. The samples sizes ranged from 69 to 172. Future research in the study of job skill training programs for the unemployed may have to be conducted using very large samples so that the number of participants who are able to provide data on all measures is large enough to allow for the deletion of cases with missing data.

Almost of all the dependent variables were influenced by range restriction. The training process measures were either collected at the end of the first week or the beginning of the second week. Many of the participants who volunteered and completed the goal orientation measure on Tuesday discontinued the program before the process data could be collected at the end of the week. The analyses for the outcome variables of cumulative number of hours in training, number of times needed to complete the modules and learning only included participants who completed all of the Work Readiness modules. The resulting sub-sample may have represented a reduced range in variability on both the predictors and outcome measures. This range restriction may have weakened the relationships and led to Type II error. Unfortunately, there is no way to find

out how the results would have changed if training process and outcome data were collected on the participants who discontinued from the program. When studying transient populations, future researchers should develop research designs that capture data as quickly as possible.

The training process variables were only assessed in one module. In addition, that module was developmental. The participants completed seven basic skills modules that consisted of several levels. In addition, they completed various soft skills modules. The participants' behaviors in the developmental module may not have reflected their typical behavior. Therefore, conclusions and implications based on these results should be made cautiously.

The responses used to code for practice and self-reflection were provided using type written communication. The coded practice indicator was limited to e-mail responses. The simulated interpersonal skills simulator was an innovative training system that relied on relatively new voice recognition software. The recordings that were created from the responses to the face-to-face, voicemail and PA announcements incurred inconsistent problems in recording. For example, some the responses were cut off in the beginning of the statement and others were cut off at the end of the statement. In addition, there were times when the scene advanced without recording the participant because a background noise triggered the software. As a result, the coded practice measure relied on type written communication. Coded practice was not related to computer anxiety, but typing ability and related anxiety were not measured. In addition, all of the responses required the participant to respond to open ended questions. This required skills related to writing, (e.g., sentence formation). Because typing was constant across the training processes, the results may not generalize to practice activities that do not require answering open ended questions using type written communication.

The measures of cumulative program hours and the number of times to complete the modules may have been influenced by unreliability of measurement. These measures required the facilitators to collect the information and to make sure that the information was in the participants' files. At times there was only one staff member working to facilitate the program. As a result, there may have been some inconsistencies in filing of the information needed in these analyses. For example, a participant may have accumulated more program hours than were reported in his or her file. This unreliability of measurement may have influenced the relationship between the goal orientation dimensions and the dependent variables. If it caused the relationship to be weaker than it would have been in the absence of unreliability, then a Type II error may have occurred.

The sample in this study consisted of female Work Readiness participants. The results of this study may have been different if the sample consisted of an even number of males and females or if the sample was all male. For example, the influence of work-family conflict often may manifest differently for men and women (Cinamon & Rich, 2002). Future work should also include males. In addition, a systematic comparison of gender differences in the use of learning strategies and training outcomes may provide beneficial insight and inspire recommendations for practical applications.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

This study provides important insight about the influence of goal orientation on learning strategies and training outcomes experienced by unemployed Work Readiness trainees. The direct relationships support previous literature which suggests that avoid performance goal orientation is negatively related, learning goal orientation is positively related and prove performance goal orientation is either weakly positively related or unrelated to desirable training processes and outcomes. In general, studies that focus on the main effects of each goal orientation dimension find this pattern of results. In support of previous research, this study found that avoid performance goal orientation was negatively related to desirable training processes and outcomes and positively related to an undesirable training outcomes.

The studies that focus on the influence of multiple goal orientation dimensions tend to report results that are conflicting and mixed. The findings in this study offer insight by highlighting the compensatory nature of the interactive relationship of prove performance and learning goal orientation. Prove performance goal orientation enhances the positive effects that learning goal orientation has on learning for those who are lower on learning goal orientation. Oppositely, prove performance goal orientation weakens the positive effect that learning goal orientation has on learning for those who are higher on learning goal orientation. Understanding the direct and interactive nature of the goal orientation dimensions is advantageous because it provides insight about the underlying mechanisms that impact trainee motivation, engagement in training processes and training outcomes. Administrators can apply this knowledge to improve Work Readiness training programs around the country.

APPENDIX A
KEYTRAIN COURSE DESCRIPTIONS

Reading - Reading for Information is the skill of reading and understanding common workplace documents.

Applied Mathematics - Applied mathematics is the skill of applying mathematical reasoning and problem-solving techniques to workplace situations. The program includes practice and review of the basic concepts of mathematical operations including money, measurement and time. In each topic these skills are applied to practical world problems.

Locating Information - Locating information is the skill of finding, extracting, understanding and using information that is not in the form of normal text. These types of documents include charts, graphs, tables, forms, maps and drawings.

Writing - Writing and listening are the skills of understanding audio information and relaying that information in a different form. Writing assesses the ability to compose a grammatically correct written message from the information provided. Spelling, punctuation, sentence structure and flow are all assessed.

Listening - The listening skill measures the ability to convey factual information from spoken messages. The style and grammar of the written message is not considered.

Observation - Observation is the skill of being able to see, comprehend, remember, and utilize information and procedures. KeyTrain breaks this skill into four primary components – perception, memorization, integration and interpretation. It uses interactive exercises to train for these skills.

Teamwork - Teamwork is the ability to identify responses to group situations which support business and team goals. KeyTrain discusses several components of teamwork and then has the participant apply the skills to workplace scenarios.

APPENDIX B

SIMULATION TARGETED SKILLS DESCRIPTIONS

1. **Basic math skills**--- targets a participant's ability to apply knowledge of math concepts and procedures to answer questions or solve problems. The basic mathematical concepts which are assessed in the simulation include addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

2. **Cooperating with others**--- targets a participant's ability to interact with others in ways which are friendly, polite, and respectful. Effective responses would require a participant to seek input from others to understand their actions and reactions, be able to clearly state their own interests and attitudes so others can understand, and adjust their actions to consider the needs of others and the task to be completed.

3. **Listening actively**---targets a participant's ability to integrate information from listening with prior background knowledge to address a goal, task, or purpose. Effective responses would require a participant to successfully evaluate the relevancy and adequacy of information.

4. **Resolve and negotiate conflict**---target's a participant's ability to identify a conflict among parties and facilitate towards an area of agreement. Effective responses incorporate skills involving listen actively, generating ideas for resolution, taking into consideration the ideas of others, monitoring the resolution process, and adjusting strategies as necessary to result in a positive resolution of a conflict.

5. **Speaking clearly**---events which target a participant's ability to organize and relay information to effectively communicate with a listener. Effective responses would include a

participant paying close attention to conventions of oral communication; including grammar, word choice, and gestures to minimize barriers in regards to a listener's comprehension.

APPENDIX C
SIMULATION COMMUNICATION MODES

Video clip response ---the participant speaks directly to a character on the screen. The participant responds by speaking directly into a microphone attached to a headset.



Workforce Florida's Interpersonal Skills Training

Prepare for Practice Simulation



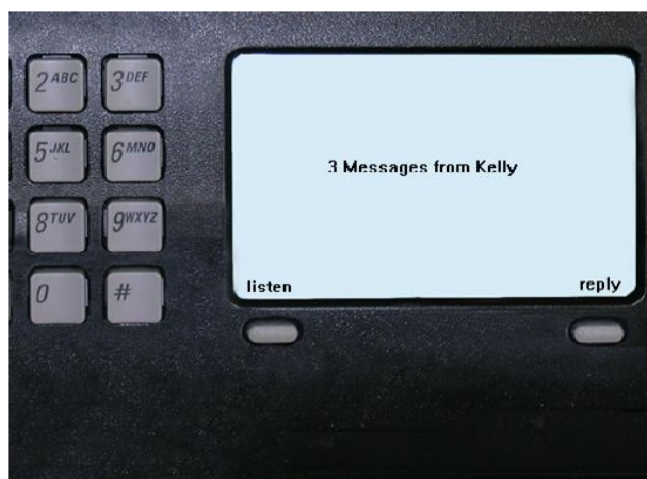
Meet Ron, your supervisor

Voicemail response --- the participant leaves a voicemail message on a phone system. The participant responds by speaking directly into a microphone attached to a headset.



Workforce Florida's Interpersonal Skills Training

Prepare to Practice Listening to and Leaving Voicemail

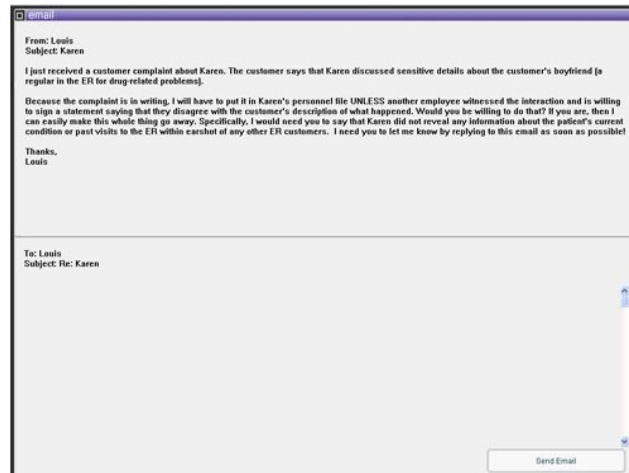


E-mail response --- the participant types an e-mail to a character. The participant responds by typing on the keyboard.



Workforce Florida's Interpersonal Skills Training

Prepare to Practice Sending Email



Public Address (P.A.) response ---the participant is required to make a public address announcement over a P.A. system. The participant responds by speaking directly into a microphone attached to a headset.



Workforce Florida's Interpersonal Skills Training

Prepare to Practice Speaking Over the PA System



APPENDIX D
SIGNED IRB APPROVAL LETTER



September 20, 2005

Kimberly Jentsch, Ph.D.
University of Central Florida
Department of Psychology
PH 3020
Orlando, FL 32816-1390

Dear Dr. Jentsch:

With reference to your protocol #05-2797 entitled, "**Technology-Enabled Learning in Soft-Skills Training: Demonstrating High-Tech Solutions for Preparing the Workforce**" I am enclosing for your records the approved, expedited document of the UCFIRB Form you had submitted to our office. **This study was approved on 9/13/05 and the expiration date will be 9/12/06.** Should there be a need to extend this study, a Continuing Review form must be submitted to the IRB Office for review by the Chairman or full IRB at least one month prior to the expiration date. This is the responsibility of the investigator. **Please notify the IRB office when you have completed this research study.**

Please be advised that this approval is given for one year. Should there be any addendums or administrative changes to the already approved protocol, they must also be submitted to the Board through use of the Addendum/Modification Request form. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur.

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors.

Cordially,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads 'Barbara Ward'.

Barbara Ward, CIM
UCF IRB Coordinator
(FWA00000351, IRB00001138)

Copies: IRB File

BW:jm

APPENDIX E
INFORMED CONSENT

Informed Voluntary Consent to Participate

Please read this consent document carefully before you decide to participate in this study.

1. You are being asked to voluntarily participate in a research study titled “Technology-Enabled Learning in Soft-Skills Training: Demonstrating High-Tech Solutions for Preparing the Workforce.” You will be asked to complete various questionnaire measures which will be collected at both the beginning and end of the study. In addition you will be asked to complete an interactive simulation based training session where your responses will be recorded in voice files. These digital voice files will be used for behavioral coding and will not be published or displayed. They will be destroyed following transcription and will not be attached to your name.

You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer on any of the questionnaires, and have the right to examine the questionnaires before signing this informed consent form.

2. The purpose of this research study is to demonstrate the potential of advanced techniques from modeling and simulation and dynamic media to develop and validate technology-enabled learning systems

3. The investigator believes that there are no risks or discomforts associated with participation.

4. You understand that you will receive no direct benefit other than:

- Exposure to various situations that they could be confronted with on the job in a simulated and safe environment.
- Exposure to various simulated job related situations
- Practice in dealing with extreme situations in a safe environment
- An opportunity to improve communication skills with customers, coworkers and superiors
- An opportunity to take part in the development of a training system that enhance the current Work Readiness Training
- A copy of any publications resulting from the current study if requested

5. My identity will be kept confidential. My confidentiality during the study will be ensured with a use of a coded identification number that will be used to label the transcripts that are created from my voice file. The list connecting my name to this number will be kept in a locked file. The confidentiality of the information related to my participation in this research will be ensured by maintaining records that are stored by participants’ numbers rather than names. Thus, my name will not be directly associated with any data. Upon completion of the study and after an adequate amount of time has passed, all data will be properly destroyed. Only members of the research team will have access to the data collected from this study, unless otherwise indicated by law.

6. If I have any questions about this study I should contact the following individual:

Principal Investigator: Dr. Kim Jentsch Phone: 407-823-3577
E-mail: kjentsch@mail.ucf.edu

7. My participation in this study is completely voluntary and will not affect my grade or status in any program or class.
8. My participation in this study may be stopped by the investigator at any time without my consent if it is believed the decision is in my best interest. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which I am otherwise entitled at the time my participation is stopped.
9. No out of pocket costs to me may result from my voluntary.
10. If I decide to withdraw from further participation in this study, there will be no penalties. To ensure my safely and orderly withdrawal from the study, I will inform the Principal Investigator, Dr. Kimberly Jentsch.
11. Official government agencies may have a need to inspect the research records from this study, including mine, in order to fulfill their responsibilities.
12. I have been informed that my consent form will be stored under lock and key.
13. If I have any questions about my rights in the study, I may contact:

Barbara Ward, UCFIRB Office, University of Central Florida Office of Research, Orlando Tech Center, 12443 Research Parkway, Suite 302, Orlando, FL 32826, 407-823-2901

UCFIRB Office, University of Central Florida Office of Research, Orlando Tech Center, 12443 Research Parkway, Suite 207, Orlando, FL 32826, 407-823-2901

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about this study and its related procedures and risks, as well as any of the other information contained in this consent form. I have been given the opportunity to review the questionnaire items that I will be asked to fill out. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand what has been explained in this consent form about my participation in this study. I do not need any further information to make a decision whether or not to volunteer as a participant in this study.

By my signature below, I give my voluntary informed consent to participate in the research as it has been explained to me, and I acknowledge receipt of a copy of this form for my own personal records.

Volunteer Signature	Print Name	Date
---------------------	------------	------

I was present during the explanation referred to above, as well as during the volunteer's opportunity to ask questions, and hereby witness the signature.

Investigator Signature	Print Name	Date
------------------------	------------	------

APPENDIX F
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SHEET

Date:

ID:

1) Gender:

2) Age:

3) Race:

Please select all that apply: Asian _____ Caucasian _____

Black _____ Hispanic _____ Other _____

4) Highest level of education

5) Do you have any customer service experience? Yes No

If yes, then please give your job title:

Years of Experience:

6) Are you bilingual?

If yes, then what languages are you fluent in?

7) When were you last employed? MM/YYYY

8) Was your last job full or part time?

9) Do you have a working e-mail account? Yes No

APPENDIX G

JOB SEARCH SELF-EFFICACY

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of confidence regarding the following statements.

How confident are you in your ability to:

	Not at all Confident			Extremely Confident		
1. Interview for a new position.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Create a resume.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Get a job that satisfies your current needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Get a job that you really enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Consistently show up for work on time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Avoid interpersonal conflicts on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Resolve conflicts when they occur on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Learn new skills on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Keep a job for at least a year.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Be promoted from one job to a more desirable job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX H
COMPUTER ANXIETY

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of anxiety regarding the following statements.

How confident are you in your ability to:

	Not at all Anxious				Extremely Anxious	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Thinking about taking a class in computer language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Applying for a job that requires some training in computers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Sitting in front of a home computer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Being around people who are "into" computers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Watching a movie about an intelligent computer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Looking at a computer printout.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Getting "error" messages from the computer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Watching or listening to news programs about the increasing role of computers in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Watching someone working on a computer terminal.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Being refused information because the computer is "down".	1	2	3	4	5	6

11. Talking to a computer programmer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Learning to write computer programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Using a typewriter.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Visiting a computer store.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Attending a workshop on the uses of computers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Erasing or deleting material from a computer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Thinking about prepackaged (software) programs for a computer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Taking a class about the uses of computers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Learning computer terminology.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Looking at a high-speed computer printer.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX I
WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
At this point in my life, the needs of my family or spouse/partner make it difficult for me to do things that would help me to get a job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
At this point in my life, family-related stressors make it difficult for me to do the things I need in order to get a job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX J
REACTION TO THE SIMULATION

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
1. I became engaged in the story within the simulation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I became bored during the simulation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The simulation was challenging.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I learned something from simply going through the simulation	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I enjoyed the simulation.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX K

REACTION TO THE PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
1. Listening to my own responses as part of the self-assessment was an eye-opening experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The questions in the self-assessment were helpful in understanding where I can improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I enjoyed the self-assessment process.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX L
GOAL ORIENTATION MEASURE

Please indicate on the scale from 1-6 your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

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

13. I prefer to avoid situations where
I might perform poorly.

1

2

3

4

5

6

APPENDIX M

CUSTOMER SERVICE SIMULATION E-MAIL EVENTS

E-mail Event 1

Background:

This event involved figuring out what time a co-worker should have been expected to return home.

E-mail Text:

Hi, What a night! The lobby must be really crazy right now and you guys need your breaks. Just letting you know that a customer service rep who normally works weekends (Sharice) has agreed to come in so you three can get your breaks, but she doesn't want to be here any longer than she has to. Remember, only one of you can go on break at a time, and the union handbook says you have to take 20 minutes. -

Tanya

Hi, it's Sharice. My baby-sitter needs to know what time she can expect me to get back home. It's 4:00 now and I'm just walking out the door. It takes me 15 minutes to get there. She will be checking my email account, so she'll receive your reply. Will you please reply to this message and let her know what time I will be back? Thanks! Sharice

Action: The participant responds by typing an e-mail to Sharice.

E-mail Event 2

Background:

This event involved the participant witnessing an interaction between a customer and a supervisor. The script for the interaction is below.

Christina: (Camera scans waiting area, Christina appears concerned attending to boyfriend. Coming from the waiting room, she walks towards the counter in desperation) “My boyfriend is really sick. He needs to see a doctor right away. I know that nurse said it was nothing life threatening, but I’ve never seen him like this.”

Walter: (Cuts in front and interrupts, with ‘entitled’ attitude). “Excuse you (to Christina). (To customer service representative) Hey you, I’m good friends with your boss Lynn…… really good friends. Anyway, my kid just fell out of a tree and I think he may have broken something. Lynn, needs to look at him right away. So, I’m going to be next. Right?”

Lynn: (Enters from stage right) “Hey, I heard you were here. What’s going on?”

Christina: (Very flustered, Interrupts) “Hey, can somebody go see my boyfriend!”

Lynn: (Condescendingly) “Christina, you know he’s just going through withdrawal like he does once a month when you two run out of drugs. Don’t worry. Is he conscious?” (During Lynn’s lines, Walter is in the background frowning and shaking his head in an arrogant manner).

Christina: “Yes”

Lynn: “Well, he’s fine then, as long as he’s conscious.” To customer service representative “Let me know if he loses consciousness.” (Exits scene with her friend/neighbor, stage right)

E-mail Text:

The participant received the following e-mail from Louis regarding the scene above:

“Hey, that customer with the sick boyfriend handed me a complaint card about Lynn. The card says that Lynn discussed sensitive details about the customer’s boyfriend (a regular in the ER for drug-related problems) openly in front of other customers. She also mentioned that Lynn told her he would be seen right away if he lost consciousness, but then when she told Lynn that he did lose consciousness he wasn’t taken back. Because the complaint is in writing, I will have to put it in Lynn’s personnel file UNLESS another employee witnessed the interaction and is willing to sign a statement saying that they disagree with the customer’s complaint

Action: The participant responds by typing an e-mail to Louise

E-mail Event 3

Background:

This event involved a co-worker (Kelly) complaining about comments another co-worker (Rick) made.

This event involved witnessing an interaction between two co-workers (Rick & Kelly). The script for the interaction is below.

Rick: (Enters from coworker entrance)

Kelly: (Enters from supervisor entrance) Out of breath, approaches the customer service representative.

“Oh, my gosh, It has been the craziest morning, I am so sorry.” “Did Louise or Lynn leave any special instructions for me for today?”

Rick: “Yeah, Louise said that you need to start wearing tighter shirts to work.”

Kelly: Unimpressed laugh. “No, really.”

Rick: “Well, he just said that we need to start taking our breaks as early in the shift as we can.”

Kelly: “OK, this is what I need to do. I’m going to tell Lynn that I was here at 8:00 but I just forgot to punch in. So, if you guys will cover for me, I think I can pull it off. Is that a plan?” (Glances at the customer service representative, then at Rick).

Rick: “That depends, what’s it worth to you?”

Kelly: Ignores Rick's comment, a little bit of a scowl on her face. Looks to the customer service representative. "Can I count on you?"

E-mail Text:

Later in the simulation, the participant received the following e-mail message from Kelly:

Hey, can you believe some of the stuff that comes out of Rick's mouth? I am sick and tired of the way he talks to me! I just mentioned something about it to Lynn and she just blew me off – like I was over-reacting or something. Am I crazy, or was he way out of line earlier?

Lynn's reaction made me so mad that I went to talk to Louise about it too. He tried to make excuses for Rick like he always does – anything to avoid conflict (what a wimp). He tried to tell me that Rick doesn't really mean to offend me and that he probably has no idea that his comments are out of line (yeah right). You saw for yourself today how obvious I was about letting him know. If he couldn't tell by my reaction that I was offended just now, he's just clueless. How can I be any more obvious than that? Don't you agree? --- Kelly

Action: The participant responds by typing an e-mail to Kelly

E-mail Event 4

Background:

Participant receives an e-mail from Lynn. In the e-mail Lynn states that she is taking disciplinary action against the participant for leaving the station. Lynn wants the participant to be willing to sign the disciplinary action form. The participant never left the station, but was informed by Kelly that there was something wrong with the telephone at the station where he or she was sitting.

E-mail Text:

I am writing this email to notify you that I have submitted a disciplinary action against you for leaving the customer service desk for an extended period of time. As you know, you missed several urgent phone calls regarding a critical patient as a result. I need to know whether you are willing to accept responsibility and acknowledge this in writing. As you know, employees shown to give false statements even once are subject to immediate dismissal from their jobs. In the event that you are unwilling to sign the formal disciplinary form, the matter will go before a disciplinary board. I need you to reply to this email with your response as soon as possible. Lynn

Action: Participant responds by typing an e-mail to Lynn.

E-mail Event 5

Background:

This event involved witnessing an interaction between two co-workers (Rick & Kelly). The script for the interaction is below.

Rick: (Enters from coworker entrance)

Kelly: (Enters from supervisor entrance) Out of breath, approaches the customer service representative. “Oh, my gosh, It has been the craziest morning, I am so sorry.” “Did Louise or Lynn leave any special instructions for me for today?”

Rick: “Yeah, Louise said that you need to start wearing tighter shirts to work.”

Kelly: Unimpressed laugh. “No, really.”

Rick: “Well, he just said that we need to start taking our breaks as early in the shift as we can.”

Kelly: “OK, this is what I need to do. I’m going to tell Lynn that I was here at 8:00 but I just forgot to punch in. So, if you guys will cover for me, I think I can pull it off. Is that a plan?” (Glances at the customer service representative, then at Rick).

Rick: “That depends, what’s it worth to you?”

Kelly: Ignores Rick’s comment, a little bit of a scowl on her face. Looks to the customer service representative. “Can I count on you?”

E-mail Text:

Later in the simulation, the participant received the following email message from Louise:

“I am hoping you can help me to sort out this situation between Rick and Kelly. I’m not interested in all the details right now. I just need two quick answers from you. (1) Did you hear Kelly clearly let Rick know that his comments were offensive to her? And, (2) Did you hear him make a second inappropriate comment to her after he was told that Kelly was offended? --Louis”

Action: Participant responded by typing an e-mail to Louis.

APPENDIX N

SELF-REFLECTION AND FEEDBACK QUESTIONS

Open Ended Question 1



Click to hear your response



Click to hear a sample response

What would you communicate to your coworker, Sharice, about the bus accident so that she can answer questions and make additional announcements when needed? Please write a note to Sharice in the box below.

Preliminary Questions (required a response of either yes or no)

1. Did you tell the parents that you did not yet know how many children would be arriving at your hospital or who they would be?
2. Did you tell the parents that some of the children may be sent to another hospital but that you did not know for sure which hospital or which children?
3. Did you tell the parents that they should stay in the lobby area so that they would hear the updates as soon as they come in?
4. Is it possible that the parents may have misunderstood you to mean that their child was sent to Central park hospital, this meant that the child had been seriously burned?
5. Did you present the information in a way that might have otherwise left the customers confused or misinformed?
6. Did you start by getting the attention of those in the lobby looking for children involved in the bus accident?
7. Did you announce that Micheal Rayfield, Katrina Jones, Lydia Donato, John Brown, and Susan Smith had arrived at the hospital and that their families should check with Kelly?
8. Did you read all of the children's names correctly?
9. Did you announce that the families of these children would be called back to the emergency room to see their child as soon as he or she was stabilized?

10. Did you announce that you expected more children to arrive but that you did not know how many or which ones?
11. Is it possible that some customers may have misunderstood you to mean that if their child's name was not called, that he or she was not be coming to this hospital?
12. If you had to do it again would you try to speak slower, so that customers could catch all of the information in your announcement?
13. If you had to do it again, would you try to pronounce your words more clearly, so that customers would better understand your announcement?
14. Did you present the information in a way that might have otherwise left the customers confused or misinformed?
15. Did you start by getting the attention of those in the lobby looking for children involved in the bus accident?
16. Did you announce that families of the children whose names you did not call should contact the principle for further information?
17. Did you remember to announce the school phone number?
18. Did you give the correct phone number (355-7807)?

Open Ended Question:

What would you communicate to your coworker, Sharice, about the bus accident so that she can answer questions and make additional announcements when needed? Please write a not to Sharice in the box below

Open Ended Question 2



Click to hear your
response

Now that you know who was who, what cues did you miss or misinterpret?

continue

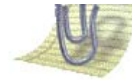
Preliminary Questions (required a response of either yes or no):

1. Did you tell Kelly that you thought this man was probably the one the patient wanted to see?
2. Did you tell Kelly that you thought this man was probably the one the patient wanted to see (correct answer)?
3. Did you tell Kelly that you didn't know which one the patient wanted to see?

Open Ended Question:

Now that you know who is who, what cues did you miss or misinterpret? (box for insertion of text)

Open Ended Question 3



Now that you've had the chance to think about it, if you had to respond to Kelly on this issue again, what would you say?

continue

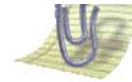
Preliminary Questions (required a response of either yes or no):

1. Could you have stated your opinion or your intentions more clearly? (regarding response to Kelly's voicemails asking you to clock her in)
2. Could your response have been more friendly or respectful? (regarding response to Kelly's voicemails asking you to clock her in)
3. Could you have stated your opinion or intentions more clearly? (regarding Kelly's lateness)
4. Could your response have been more friendly or respectful? (regarding Kelly's lateness)

Open Ended Question:

Now that you have had the chance to think about it. If you had the chance to respond to Kelly again on this issue, what would you say?

Open Ended Question 4



Now that you've had the chance to think about it, if you had the chance to respond to this event with Ric and Lynn about taking breaks again what would you say?

continue

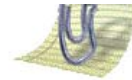
Preliminary Questions (required a response of either yes or no):

1. Could you have stated your opinions or intentions more clearly?
2. Could your response have been more friendly or respectful?
3. Could you have stated your opinion or intentions more clearly? (regarding Lynn / break schedule)
4. Could your response have been more friendly or respectful? (regarding Lynn / break schedule)

Open Ended Question:

Now that you have had the chance to think about it, if you had the chance to respond to this event about Ric and Lynn taking breaks, what would you say? (box for text)

Open Ended Question 5



Click to hear your response



Click to hear a sample response

Now that you've thought more about it, if you had the chance to respond to these customers again what would you say?

continue

Preliminary Questions:
none

Open Ended Question:

Now that you have thought more about it, if you had the chance to respond to these customers again, what would you say? (regarding a portly man who was rude and wanted to be treated immediately)

Open Ended Question 6



Click to hear your response



Click to hear a sample response

Now that you've thought more about it, if you had the chance to respond to these parents again what would you say?

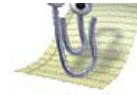
continue

Preliminary Questions:
none

Open Ended Question:

Now that you have thought more about it, if you had the chance to respond to these customers again, what would you say? (regarding parents desperate to see child)

Open Ended Question 7



Click to hear your response



Click to hear a sample response

Imagine that you had the opportunity to sit down with Ric and Kelly together to discuss the situation. What would you say?

continue

Preliminary Questions:
none

Open Ended Question:

Imagine that you had the opportunity to sit down with Ric and Kelly to discuss the sexual harassment situation, what would you say?

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