THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONAL VALUES ON FEEDBACK-SEEKING BEHAVIORS

STÉPHANE BRUTUS AND ELIZABETH F. CABRERA

ABSTRACT: This study investigates the relationship between personal values and feedback-seeking behaviors. Feedback-seeking behaviors, or the way by which individuals in organizations actively seek information about their performance, has recently become an important research topic in the management literature. However, the large majority of this research has been conducted in the United States. This study aims to test the relationships between the personal values of a multinational sample and feedback-seeking behaviors. An integrated set of hypotheses regarding the influence of values on feedback seeking are outlined and tested empirically using samples from Canada, China, Mexico, the Netherlands, Spain, and the United States. As predicted, results indicate that significant aspects of feedback seeking were related to personal values. The perceived cost of feedback seeking, the clarity of the feedback from others, and the use of feedback-seeking behaviors were all linked to personal values. The study also uncovered substantial variations in feedback-seeking behaviors across nations. The implications of these findings for research on feedback-seeking behaviors and for feedback practices are discussed.

RESUMEN: En el presente trabajo estudiamos la relación que existe entre los valores personales y los comportamientos de búsqueda de feedback. La búsqueda activa de información por parte de los empleados sobre su rendimiento (comportamientos de búsqueda de feedback) se ha convertido en un área de especial interés, aunque la mayor parte de los trabajos desarrollados al respecto se han realizado en Estados Unidos. Nuestro estudio tiene como objetivo comprobar si la influencia de la cultura en los comportamientos de búsqueda de feedback se debe a las diferencias en los valores personales. En este sentido, se proponen una seria de hypotesis que contrastamos utilizando muestras de Canadá, China, México, Holanda, España y Estados Unidos. Los resultados obtenidos indican que aspectos significativos de la búsqueda de feedback están relacionados con los valores personales. De este modo se comprueba que los costes percibidos de la búsqueda, la claridad del feedback procedente de otros y el uso de comportamientos de búsqueda de feedback se relacionan con los valores personales. Por último comentaremos las implicaciones, tanto teóricas como prácticas, de los resultados obtenidos.

Stéphane Brutus is an associate professor at the John Molson School of Business at Concordia University in Montreal, Canada. Dr. Brutus obtained his Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology from Bowling Green State University in 1995 and completed a post-doctoral fellowship at the Center for Creative Leadership in Greensboro, North Carolina, in 1997. His research interest focuses on feedback processes in organizations. He has published articles in *Human Resources Development Quarterly, Leadership Quarterly, Journal of Management Development, Journal of Business and Psychology, International Journal of Training and Development,* and *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences.* He has also authored chapters on "Maximizing the Value of 360-Degree Feedback" and the "Handbook of Multi-Source Feedback."

Elizabeth F. Cabrera is an associate professor of management at the Universidad Carlos III of Madrid, Spain, where she teaches Human Resource Management, Organizational Behavior, and Research Methodology in the undergraduate, MBA, and Ph.D. programs. She received her Ph.D. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology from the Georgia Institute of Technology in 1995. Her research interests include knowledge sharing, feedback, and the psychological contract. Her work has been published in journals including *Organization Studies, International Journal of Selection and Assessment,* and *Journal of World Business.* She currently serves on the editorial boards of the *Academy of Management Executive*, *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, European Management Review,* and *M@n@gement.*

The past decade has seen an unprecedented amount of research on performance feedback processes in organizations. The process by which individuals obtain information about their behaviors is increasingly being recognized as a very important determinant of individual and organizational outcomes (London, 1997). Rapid changes in job demands and the need for individual responsiveness to these changes place a premium on feedback information in organizations. Accordingly, an increasing emphasis on feedback processes can be observed in current management practices.

Formal feedback mechanisms are usually an integral part of most performance appraisal and developmental systems,

and the information conveyed is becoming increasingly complex (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Kuchinke, 2000; London, 1997). Examples of this trend can be found in many management practices: the relatively recent use of assessment centers for development (Jones & Whitmore, 1995), the increasing popularity of multisource feedback (Brutus & Derayeh, 2002; Leslie & Flenor, 1998), executive coaching (Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999), and mentoring practices (Kram, 1985)—all of which are practices that center on feedback. A related stream of research has concentrated on emergent feedback processes in organizations (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Bennett, Herold, & Ashford, 1990; Herold & Fedor, 1998; Herold & Parsons, 1985; Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990). This area of research stems from the realization that feedback information obtained from formal conduits represents only a small proportion of feedback available to, and used by, individuals in organizations (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). In organizations, most information about one's performance is obtained informally via an active interaction of the individual with his or her feedback environment. Thus, behaviors related to seeking and sending informal feedback are becoming a major area of study in organizational sciences.

Despite the substantial scholarly focus on feedback-seeking processes, the presence of this phenomenon in international settings is an area that has yet to receive adequate attention. Clearly, this shortcoming is not unique to this area of research; however, it is argued here that this neglect is especially problematic when dealing with feedback processes. One of the major influences of culture is in the way people exchange information (Triandis, 1989); hence, feedback, a process rooted in communication, must be understood within a cultural context. Some work has focused on the influence of culture on formal feedback processes (Earley, 1986, 1989; Earley, Gibson, & Chen, 1999), but this line of research is mostly interested in how individuals from different cultures react to feedback derived from performance appraisal systems. As for informal feedback processes, research in cross-cultural psychology points to vast differences in how people from different cultures attend to informal feedback information. For example, a large body of research demonstrates that individuals from Western cultures have a tendency to seek and remember positive information about themselves (Greenwald, 1980; Taylor & Brown, 1988); a propensity that is not present in Eastern cultures (Heine & Lehman, 1997; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). The scant empirical evidence from organizational settings does demonstrate that people from different cultures rely on different feedback-seeking strategies (Gupta, Govindarajan, & Malhotra, 1996; Kung & Steelman, 2003). Recently, Sully de Luque and Sommer (2000) proposed initial directions for research on the influence of culture on informal feedback dynamics. In this paper, we seek to highlight

some universal determinants of feedback seeking. These determinants take the form of personal values that are a reflection of higher-order cultural variables.

INFORMAL WAYS TO OBTAIN FEEDBACK INFORMATION

Research on feedback seeking is rooted in self-regulation theory. A basic tenet of self-regulation is that behavior is goal-directed and that individuals are continuously engaging in self-assessment in order to evaluate where they are in relation to their goals. Discrepancy detection represents a pivotal operation in self-regulation; it takes place when personal standards or goals are contrasted against the feedback one receives about one's performance in relation to these goals/standards. In the presence of a discrepancy between self-assessment and the goal(s), various cognitive and behavioral adjustments are made (Ashford & Tsui; 1991; Carver & Scheier, 1981; Powers, 1973).

In a comprehensive review of the literature, Karoly (1993) comments on the adoption of self-regulation theory in almost every subdiscipline of psychology, ranging from behavioral medicine to experimental psychology. An increasing number of organizational scientists are also making use of self-regulation theory to explain organizational behavior (Brett, Northcraft, & Pinkley, 1999; Vancouver, 2000). An intimate link exists between self-regulation and formal human resources practices that rely on performance feedback. The formal provision of feedback, be it via yearly performance appraisals, mentoring relationships, or any other mechanism, enables individuals to gauge their progress toward their goals. Self-regulatory needs, however, can never be completely met by formal organizational mechanisms; these being too infrequent to satisfy one's constant need for feedback information (Ashford, 1986). Thus, the desire to obtain feedback information in order to self-regulate combined with the inability of organizations to adequately provide this information compels organizational members to be proactive vis-à-vis their feedback environments and engage in feedback-seeking behaviors. Much of the interest in informal feedback conduits lies in their volitional aspect and the factors that underlie the decision to engage in these behaviors. For example, self-esteem, public self-consciousness, and tolerance for ambiguity, to name a few, are individual differences that have been found to influence the use of feedback-seeking strategies (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Bennett et al., 1990; Levy et al., 1995; Northcraft & Ashford, 1990).

In this paper, we assume that, regardless of cultural background, organizational members depend on feedback information to meet personal and organizational objectives and that there is a need to better understand how such information is sought around the world. We pose that the dynamics related

TABLE 1
Schwartz's 10 Value Types with Associated Values

Security:	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self (family security, national security, social order, reciprocation of favors).
Conformity:	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (obedient, politeness, self-discipline, honoring parents and elders).
Tradition:	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide (humble, accepting my portion in life, devout, respect for tradition, moderate).
Benevolence:	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, responsible).
Universalism:	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature (broad-minded, wisdom, social justice, equality, a world at peace, a world of beauty, unity with nature, protecting the environment).
Self-direction:	Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, independent, curious, choosing own goals).
Stimulation:	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (daring, a varied life, an exciting life).
Hedonism:	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life).
Achievement:	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (successful, capable, ambitious, influential).
Power:	Social status and prestige, control, or dominance over people and resources (social power, authority, wealth, preserving my public image).

to feedback seeking in organizations will be reflected, at the individual level, in the adherence to certain personal values.

PERSONAL VALUES

Values are defined as desirable goals that serve as guiding principles in people's lives (cf., Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Personal values directly affect behaviors in that they encourage individuals to act in accordance with them. Values are formed by personal experiences and exposure to formal socialization forces and, therefore, represent a direct product of a culture or social system (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). The theory of values developed by Schwartz has recently emerged as an elegant and powerful way of explaining how culture influences human behavior (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990). According to Schwartz (1992), personal values stem from a need for individuals to cope with three universal requirements within the reality of their social contexts: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and requirements for the smooth functioning and survival of groups. These three requirements lead to a universal taxonomy of values that distinguishes among ten types of values. These value types are listed in Table 1, where each one is defined in terms of its main goal and, in parentheses, by the values that represent it. These ten values are grouped along four broad dimensions, organized along two main axes (see Figure 1). Along the first axis, the dimensions are labeled "openness to change" and "conservation." "Openness to change" includes stimulation and self-direction and pertains to the extent to which values motivate people to follow their own intellectual and emotional inter-

ests in a more unpredictable direction. "Conservation," which includes tradition, conformity, and security, pertains to the preservation of the status quo and the certainty this provides for relationships with close others, institutions, and traditions (Schwartz, 1992: 43). In sum, this axis opposes values emphasizing one's own independent thought and action against those emphasizing submissive self-restriction, protection of stability, and preservation of tradition.

Along the second axis, the dimensions are "self-enhancement" and "self-transcendence." "Self-enhancement" includes power and achievement and captures the extent to which values motivate people to enhance their own personal interests (even at the expense of others). "Self-transcendence" includes universalism and benevolence and refers to the extent to which values motivate people to transcend selfish concerns and promote the welfare of close and distant others, as well as that of nature (Schwartz, 1992: 44). This axis opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare against those emphasizing the pursuit of one's own relative success and dominance over others. As can be seen in Figure 1, the tenth value, hedonism, crosses the boundaries of two different axes, "openness to change," and "self-enhancement" and is related to both.

Schwartz validated this taxonomy, which closely resembles structures derived empirically by other researchers (Braithwaite & Law, 1985; Crosby, Bitner, & Gill, 1990), on the basis of empirical evidence from 97 samples in 44 countries (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). More recently, the robustness of the taxonomy of values was supported by Spini (2003).

The usefulness of Schwartz's taxonomy is that it proposes an

FIGURE 1
Schwartz's Taxonomy of Cultural Values
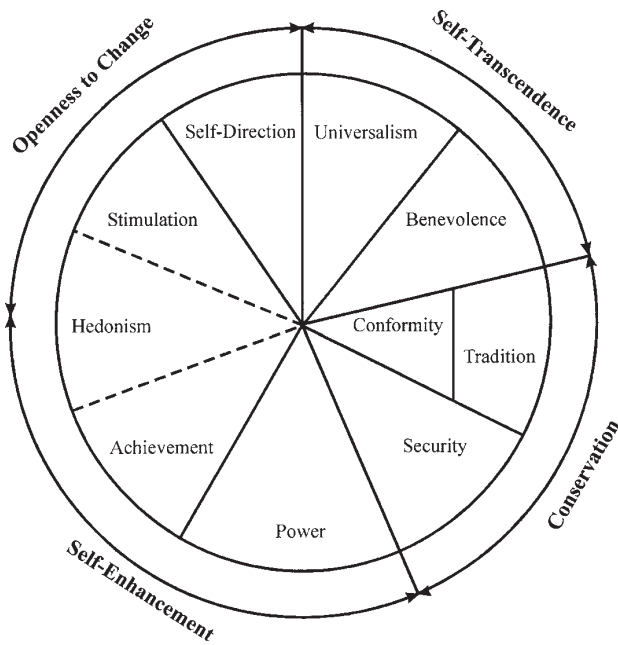
internally consistent framework in which actions in pursuit of any value have consequences that may conflict or be congruent with the pursuit of other values. This framework postulates that values form a continuum of related motivations that gives rise to a circular structure. Within this structure, adjacent value types are closely related; as stated by Schwartz: "the motivational differences between value types are continuous rather than discrete, with more overlap in meaning near the boundaries of adjacent value types" (1994: 25). As a result, values that share compatible goals are in close proximity in the structure, whereas values in opposition in the structure have competing motivational goals and have consequences that are incompatible with each other. This circular framework has significant implications for the relations of values to other variables; it implies that the whole set of ten values is associated with external variables in an integrated manner (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002; Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995). Thus, relationships with any outside variables decrease monotonically as one moves around the circular structure. This arrangement of values, and the pattern of association that it implies, has been applied to illuminate the influence of culture on behaviors such as religiosity (Schwartz & Huismans, 1995; Roccas & Schwartz, 1997), contact with out-group members (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995), pro-environmental behavior (Dietz, Frisch, Kalof, Stern, & Guagnano, 1995), and voting (Barnea & Schwartz, 1998).

We rely on this framework to hypothesize the relation-

ships between personal value types and the core variables of feedback-seeking dynamics, mainly the perceived cost of feedback seeking, feedback-seeking behaviors themselves, and the clarity of informal feedback from others.

COST OF FEEDBACK SEEKING

Although there exist various means by which to obtain feedback, asking for it directly represents the most simple and straightforward way to do so (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983). The translation of the desire for feedback into actual feedback-seeking behaviors is influenced by impression management costs. Ashford (1986) related this cost to the risk of damaging one's public image or a loss of face. "By asking for feedback, individuals risk the possibility that others will see the act as a sign of weakness and uncertainty" (Ashford, 1986: 471). Inherent to direct feedback seeking is a strong signaling element. This signal can be interpreted in various ways—some of which are positive (e.g., my coworker wants to improve) and some of which are negative (e.g., my coworker *should* know this already, but he does not). The risk of a negative interpretation of signaling as a result of directly seeking feedback makes face costs unique to this type of feedback-seeking strategy. These costs, for example, have been used to explain why individuals tend to seek less direct feedback when the context is public (Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Levy et al., 1995; Williams, Miller, Steelman, & Levy, 1999).

Much research supports the notion that the concept of "face" is culturally bound and that the importance put on preserving face varies greatly across cultures (Hallahan, Lee, & Herzog, 1997). In many cultures, great amounts of energy are spent to avoid losing face so as not to disrupt the harmony of the group (Earley, 1997). Face concerns are believed to be especially salient in collectivistic and hierarchical cultures (Earley, 1997; Morisaki & Gudykunst, 1994). Sully de Luque and Sommer (2000) predict that face costs would be greater in high-status identity cultures where cultural members are stratified into a hierarchy based on culturally salient criteria.

In keeping with the circular nature of values, we first derive hypotheses regarding the strongest positive and negative correlations between feedback-seeking behaviors and values. Then, by drawing on the circular structure of values, we formulate an integrated hypothesis that specifies the expected order of associations. Personal values within the dimension of conservation (tradition, conformity, and security) are closely linked to the concept of face and vertical hierarchy. More precisely, we expect face concerns to be more relevant for individuals who value humility and moderation in feelings and actions vis-à-vis the group, values inherent to the motivational goals of tradition (i.e., humble, accepting my portion in life, devout, respect for tradition, and moderate).

Hence, we rank tradition as the value with the most positive relationship with cost. In contrast, face concerns will be less important for individuals with personal values within openness to change (self-direction, stimulation, and hedonism); values linked to the pursuit of one's self-interest. Specifically, we pose that values with the motivational goals of stimulation (i.e., daring, a varied life, an exciting life) will be inversely related to the perceived cost of feedback seeking. With tradition and stimulation as positive and negative anchors, we then unfold the circular structure of relationships among the value types in a symmetrical fashion (Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz & Huismans, 1995). This process yields a hypothesized order of associations for the remaining eight values. Thus, we hypothesize the following order (in parentheses) for the relationships between personal values and the perceived cost of direct feedback-seeking behaviors: tradition (1), conformity (2.5), security (2.5), power (4.5), benevolence (4.5), achievement (6.5), universalism (6.5), hedonism (8.5), self-direction (8.5), stimulation (10).

FEEDBACK-SEEKING BEHAVIORS

A variety of behavioral manifestations have been found to stem from the desire for feedback information. As stated in the previous section, direct feedback seeking is often associated with high perceived costs. As a result, other, more subtle, feedback-seeking behaviors can be used to obtain the desired feedback. Researchers describe two other ways in which the need for feedback can be satisfied: indirect inquiry and monitoring (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Fedor, Rensvold, & Adams, 1992; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Like direct feedback seeking, indirect feedback seeking also involves a proactive search for information but, contrary to the direct alternative, it implies a more covert way of soliciting performance-related information, such as through indirect questions or direct queries to third parties. Finally, feedback information can also be obtained via monitoring, a more passive means used when individuals observe the reactions or nonreactions of others and derive from it inferences regarding their performance. Indirect feedback seeking and monitoring do not have the cost implications of direct feedback seeking. Disregarding the issue of cost, all three feedback-seeking behaviors are directly related to the volition to obtain information about one's behavior at work.

Ashford and Tsui (1991) propose that, in order to understand why and how people use feedback-seeking behaviors, the instrumentality of feedback information has to be considered. According to this perspective, individuals guide their search for feedback depending on how useful this information is for gauging their progress in relation to their espoused goals (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). For example, organizational newcomers tend to be very active in terms of feed-

back seeking and rely heavily on all three behaviors (Miller, 1996; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Thus, we pose that the perceived instrumentality of feedback is a characteristic that can be used to derive relationships with personal values. Above and beyond the influence of cost, which was dealt with in the previous section, we seek to uncover the values that determine for whom feedback will be most useful.

We focus our attention on the desire to be responsive to one's social environment. We believe that feedback will be perceived to be more instrumental and, therefore, be more actively sought by those who strive for a "fundamental connectedness" with others. The normative imperative to be responsive to one's social environment greatly enhances the instrumentality of feedback from others. In support of this idea, research in cross-cultural psychology has demonstrated that individuals in collectivistic cultures are much more cognizant of how they are perceived by others and have more accurate self-perceptions than those in individualistic cultures (e.g., Markus, Mullaly, & Kitayama, 1997). Individuals in Western cultures establish firm boundaries between their self-concepts and their social environment. These boundaries are adaptive within this value system as they allow for a more contained and stable sense of identity (Heine, Lehman, Markus, & Kitayama, 1999; Markus & Kitamaya, 1991). These individuals are less likely to seek feedback from others because this type of feedback is often unpredictable. Feedback that is either self-generated or originates from the task is likely to be relied upon by these individuals.

We pose that individuals who value a connection with others, best captured by the value of tradition, will be more likely to seek information that will enable them to fulfill their expected roles in organizations, thus, they will rely to a greater extent on all three feedback-seeking behaviors. On the other hand, individuals who follow the motivational goals of stimulation, characterized by the pursuit of excitement, novelty, and challenge, would find less instrumentality in receiving feedback from others and, therefore, would rely less on all of the feedback-seeking behaviors.

We therefore hypothesize the same order as before for the relationship between personal values and the use of the three types of feedback-seeking behaviors: tradition (1), conformity (2.5), security (2.5), power (4.5), benevolence (4.5), achievement (6.5), universalism (6.5), hedonism (8.5), self-direction (8.5), stimulation (10).

CLARITY OF FEEDBACK

A critical element in feedback-seeking dynamics is the ability to decipher and understand informal feedback from others. Although one of the main differences between the three feedback-seeking behaviors is the clarity of the feedback obtained, all three types yield information that requires inter-

pretation. According to Ashford, "reliance on observed cues is troublesome because the inferences drawn from these observations may be subject to a variety of biases resulting in erroneous self-assessments" (1993: 203). Even the most direct feedback-seeking question, such as "How was my sales pitch?" will not necessarily result in a straightforward answer. The ability to interpret informal feedback information is likely to be influenced by the same factors underlying the volition to obtain feedback information. That is, the desire for some to be responsive to their social environment should not only motivate them to amass a greater amount of feedback information but also to draw clearer information from it. Research in cross-cultural social psychology shows that individuals from collectivistic cultures possess more social knowledge; in other words, are more sensitive to the thoughts and feelings of others, than those from individualistic cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Also, research has demonstrated that they are more accurate in detecting subtle messages from others than individualists (Naoki & Barnlund, 1983). Our hypothesis regarding the clarity of informal feedback follows the same pattern as the first two: those who value connectedness will be better at deciphering informal feedback and will, therefore, perceive it as clearer.

Thus, we hypothesize the following order for the relationship between personal values and the clarity of informal feedback: tradition (1), conformity (2.5), security (2.5), power (4.5), benevolence (4.5), achievement (6.5), universalism (6.5), hedonism (8.5), self-direction (8.5), stimulation (10).

METHOD

Sample and Procedures

Data from MBA or Executive MBA students in Canada ($n = 97$), China ($n = 161$), Mexico ($n = 125$), the Netherlands ($n = 154$), Spain ($n = 122$), and the United States ($n = 52$) were collected for this study for a total number of 711 cases. Although the selection of these six countries was guided in part by opportunity, we made a conscious effort to select countries that would represent the broad spectrum of personal values. MBA students were targeted for their experience working in organizations; the average work experience for the respondents being 4.5 years. All had lived at least ten years in their respective countries of study. Demographic information regarding the sample is included in Table 2.

All respondents completed the survey in class under conditions of anonymity. The first part of the survey contained a series of descriptive questions about respondents' work experience. The second part included questions on the use of feedback-seeking behavior at work and Schwartz's value questionnaire (Schwartz, 1992). Finally, the respondents were asked a series of demographic questions. Respondents completed

the survey in their native language. For the purpose of this study, five different versions of the survey were created: English, French, Mandarin, Dutch, and Spanish. These different versions were developed using back translation techniques. A minimum of three translators per language was used for every step of the back translation procedure.

Measures

All of the variables related to feedback were assessed using existing measures from Ashford and Tsui (1991) and Fedor et al. (1992). Items were evaluated using a five-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Cost of feedback seeking. The perceived cost of seeking feedback was measured with four items—two pertaining to the cost of seeking feedback from one's supervisor and two related to the cost of seeking feedback from peers (e.g., I find it embarrassing to ask my supervisor about what he or she thinks of my performance at work). The internal consistency of this scale was 0.83.

Direct inquiry. Direct inquiry was measured with five items—two assessed inquiry directed at one's supervisor and three assessed feedback directly sought from peers (e.g., I often ask my supervisor about my performance). The internal consistency of this scale was 0.79.

Indirect inquiry. Indirect inquiry was measured with five items—three concerned feedback sought indirectly from one's supervisor and two assessed feedback sought indirectly from peers (e.g., I sometimes indicate my curiosity about my performance to my supervisor without directly asking for information). The internal consistency of the scale was 0.81.

Monitoring. Monitoring was measured with four items—two assessed monitoring one's supervisor and two focused on monitoring one's peers (e.g., From watching my supervisor, I can tell how I am performing my job). The internal consistency of the scale was 0.66.

Feedback clarity. Feedback clarity was assessed using six items—three referring to the clarity of feedback from one's supervisor and three referring to the clarity of feedback from one's peers (e.g., When my supervisor gives me information about my performance [feedback], I still really do not know how well I am doing). The internal consistency of the scale was 0.83.

Cultural value dimensions. Schwartz's cultural values survey (1992) was used for the assessment of values. The survey contains 56 values to be rated in terms of their importance as

TABLE 2
Demographic Characteristics of the Six Samples

	Canada	China	Mexico	Netherlands	Spain	United States
Age	31.2 (6.4)	31.5 (5.2)	30.2 (4.4)	21.0 (6.8)	33.2 (3.6)	30.3 (7.5)
Work experience in years	4.1 (3.9)	5.1 (3.9)	4.5 (2.8)	2.3 (2.1)	5.2 (3.8)	4.0 (3.6)
Gender						
Male	55 (57)	129 (80)	86 (70)	97 (63)	86 (70)	34 (65)
Female	41 (42)	18 (11)	36 (30)	54 (35)	36 (30)	18 (35)
Type of organization						
Manufacturing	14 (14)	41 (26)	18 (14)	12 (8)	13 (10)	10 (19)
Agriculture, mines, forest	4 (4)	11 (7)	7 (6)	9 (6)	8 (7)	1 (2)
Transportation	9 (9)	11 (7)	7 (6)	5 (3)	21 (17)	3 (6)
Wholesale, retail	3 (3)	7 (4)	9 (7)	48 (31)	6 (5)	1 (2)
Finance, insurance, banking	11 (11)	19 (12)	19 (15)	14 (9)	11 (9)	8 (15)
Health care, pharmaceutical	11 (11)	16 (10)	4 (3)	2 (1)	7 (6)	7 (13)
Communications, software, Internet	18 (19)	12 (7)	41 (33)	20 (13)	40 (33)	7 (13)
Tourism, entertainment, cultural	2 (2)	5 (3)	3 (2)	22 (14)	5 (4)	3 (6)
Others	24 (25)	25 (17)	14 (11)	19 (13)	11 (9)	2 (4)
Organization level						
Top executive	7 (7)	11 (7)	31 (25)	2 (1)	18 (15)	1 (2)
Upper management	12 (12)	28 (17)	32 (26)	11 (7)	44 (36)	3 (6)
Middle management	47 (47)	64 (40)	40 (32)	18 (12)	42 (34)	25 (48)
First level	10 (10)	30 (19)	17 (14)	12 (8)	11 (9)	7 (13)
Hourly employee	2 (2)	9 (6)	2 (2)	39 (25)	4 (3)	4 (6)
Others	18 (18)	5 (3)	0 (0)	69 (46)	3 (2)	12 (23)
Size of organization						
1–9 employees	7 (7)	5 (3)	5 (4)	18 (12)	5 (4)	4 (8)
10–99 employees	17 (17)	53 (33)	18 (14)	65 (42)	18 (15)	8 (15)
100–999 employees	15 (15)	55 (34)	39 (31)	35 (23)	43 (35)	11 (21)
1,000–4,999 employees	11 (11)	28 (17)	23 (18)	12 (8)	18 (15)	3 (6)
5,000–9,999 employees	14 (14)	3 (2)	10 (8)	5 (3)	11 (9)	3 (6)
10,000+ employees	30 (30)	9 (6)	29 (23)	15 (10)	27 (22)	13 (44)

Notes: For the variables age and work experience, standard deviations are in parentheses. For the remaining variables, percentages are in parentheses.

TABLE 3
Mean and Standard Deviations of Personal Values per Samples

	Security	Conformity	Tradition	Benevolence	Universalism
Canada	4.33 (0.99)	3.92 (1.15)	2.94 (1.28)	4.61 (0.91)	4.10 (1.04)
China	4.12 (0.98)	4.34 (1.09)	3.20 (1.28)	4.35 (1.23)	3.76 (1.21)
Mexico	3.89 (1.02)	4.63 (1.20)	3.14 (1.40)	5.04 (1.04)	4.44 (1.05)
Netherlands	4.20 (1.25)	4.06 (1.15)	2.39 (1.18)	4.51 (0.95)	3.56 (0.99)
Spain	3.65 (1.01)	3.72 (1.07)	3.71 (1.07)	4.66 (0.85)	4.03 (0.98)
United States	4.50 (1.10)	4.45 (1.08)	4.45 (1.08)	4.79 (0.95)	3.76 (1.12)
	Self-direction	**Stimulation**	**Hedonism**	**Achievement**	**Power**
Canada	4.95 (0.91)	4.54 (1.21)	4.97 (1.06)	4.82 (1.06)	3.09 (1.40)
China	4.61 (1.09)	3.67 (1.57)	3.97 (1.46)	4.57 (1.18)	3.53 (1.24)
Mexico	5.31 (0.91)	4.37 (1.41)	4.65 (1.25)	5.21 (1.04)	3.97 (1.26)
Netherlands	4.47 (1.00)	3.95 (1.35)	5.22 (1.12)	4.38 (1.09)	3.00 (1.33)
Spain	4.68 (0.85)	3.55 (1.49)	3.96 (1.37)	4.29 (1.03)	2.87 (1.32)
United States	4.66 (0.98)	3.78 (1.35)	4.16 (1.34)	4.72 (1.14)	3.22 (1.42)

Note: Standard deviations are in parentheses.

TABLE 4
Mean and Standard Deviations of Feedback-Seeking Behaviors per Samples

	Cost	Direct	Indirect	Monitoring	Clarity
Canada	2.41 (0.80)	2.24 (0.72)	2.61 (0.80)	3.70 (0.78)	2.32 (0.64)
China	2.97 (0.72)	2.68 (0.72)	3.03 (0.64)	4.01 (0.52)	2.61 (0.62)
Mexico	1.87 (0.90)	2.82 (0.90)	2.62 (0.84)	3.59 (0.81)	2.20 (0.72)
Netherlands	2.07 (0.66)	2.32 (0.75)	2.60 (0.87)	3.58 (0.67)	2.08 (0.53)
Spain	1.96 (0.80)	2.43 (0.82)	2.63 (0.76)	3.71 (0.70)	2.40 (0.69)
United States	2.35 (0.78)	2.56 (0.85)	2.68 (0.78)	3.73 (0.67)	2.33 (0.69)

Note: Standard deviations are in parentheses.

a guiding principle in one's life. The scale used ranged from "opposed to my principles" (–1) through "not important" (0) to "of supreme importance" (7). The means of the importance ratings obtained for the values representing each value type were used as indices for the ten types. Table 1 lists the 44 values[1] used for the computation of the 10 value types. The internal consistency for the different scales ranged from 0.60 to 0.78.

Source credibility. The effectiveness of one's coworkers has been found to influence the propensity to seek their feedback (Fedor et al., 1992). Therefore, we assessed the perception of coworkers' ability in order to control for the possible variance caused by this idiosyncratic factor. The perceived ability of peers and supervisor was measured with five items—two regarding supervisor credibility and three regarding peer credibility (e.g., My supervisor is excellent at what he or she does). The internal consistency of the scale was 0.73.

RESULTS

Analyses

The means and standard deviations for the individual values and the three feedback-seeking behaviors are presented in Tables 3 and 4. Partial correlations between perceived cost, the three feedback-seeking behaviors, clarity, and the ten personal values were computed to test the proposed hypotheses. Country membership was dummy coded and entered as a control variable to remove the variance attributed to country differences. For the hypothesis pertaining to the use of the three feedback-seeking behaviors, perceived cost and source credibility were included as additional control variables. The correlation table is presented in Table 5.

Cost. The predicted polar correlations between values and the perceived cost of feedback seeking were partly confirmed.

TABLE 5
Correlations of the 10 Types of Values with Variables

	Tradition	Conformity	Security	Power	Achievement	Hedonism	Stimulation	Self-direction	Universalism	Benevolence
Cost	0.11**	-0.01	0.02	0.01	-0.09*	-0.02	-0.09*	-0.10**	-0.03	-0.09**
Canada	0.02	0.03	0.06	-0.03	-0.25*	-0.20*	-0.21*	-0.16	-0.05	-0.12
China	-0.03	0.08	0.08	-0.05	-0.02	0.02	-0.13	-0.10	0.04	-0.05
Mexico	0.24**	-0.03	0.07	0.15	-0.05	0.12	0.07	-0.03	0.23**	-0.06
Netherlands	0.13	0.13	-0.10	-0.06	-0.12	-0.05	-0.08	-0.20*	-0.15	-0.15
Spain	0.15	0.08	0.00	0.08	-0.03	-0.08	-0.15	-0.03	-0.09	-0.05
United States	0.24	0.16	0.17	0.04	-0.03	-0.12	-0.14	0.18	0.18	0.00
Direct	0.13**	0.06	0.07	0.10**	0.03	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.05
Canada	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.10	-0.06	0.01	-0.02	-0.06	0.00	0.13
China	0.27	0.10	0.17*	0.14	0.13	-0.02	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.10
Mexico	0.13	0.03	-0.05	0.04	-0.08	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03	-0.07	0.09
Netherlands	0.10	0.00	0.02	-0.02	0.02	-0.04	0.09	0.04	-0.03	0.05
Spain	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.10	0.06	0.14	0.13	-0.03	0.02	-0.03
United States	0.01	0.01	0.16	0.14	0.07	0.08	-0.03	-0.03	0.10	-0.02
Indirect	0.14**	0.04	0.04	0.10**	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.07
Canada	-0.02	-0.07	-0.01	0.11	-0.02	0.03	-0.11	-0.13	-0.23*	-0.14
China	0.32*	0.18*	0.25**	0.24**	0.15	0.16*	0.13	0.16*	0.12	0.21**
Mexico	0.24**	0.12	0.05	0.18*	0.03	0.00	0.04	0.06	-0.04	0.14
Netherlands	0.07	-0.02	-0.06	0.00	0.08	-0.06	-0.01	0.05	0.00	0.10
Spain	0.14	0.00	-0.01	-0.03	-0.04	0.05	0.03	-0.10	0.03	-0.03
United States	-0.09	-0.09	-0.01	0.10	-0.10	0.08	-0.22	-0.12	-0.02	-0.04
Monitoring	-0.04	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.07	0.03	-0.01	0.02	0.01	0.07*
Canada	-0.08	-0.01	-0.01	0.16	0.13	-0.02	0.00	0.01	-0.12	-0.03
China	0.04	0.05	0.00	0.07	0.04	0.16*	-0.04	0.05	0.08	0.18*
Mexico	0.02	0.02	0.12	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.02	-0.01	0.00	0.22*
Netherlands	-0.15	0.08	0.01	-0.01	0.07	-0.03	0.01	0.05	0.04	0.06
Spain	0.00	-0.01	-0.07	-0.05	0.08	-0.05	-0.01	0.05	0.02	-0.04
United States	-0.04	0.17	-0.04	0.10	0.16	-0.02	-0.12	0.09	0.12	0.00
Clarity	0.16**	0.02	0.03	0.03	-0.12**	-0.08*	-0.07	-0.08*	0.03	-0.05
Canada	0.01	0.03	0.11	-0.08	-0.15	-0.19	-0.26**	-0.06	0.04	-0.03
China	0.11	0.15	0.19*	0.11	-0.05	-0.02	-0.03	0.01	0.07	0.02
Mexico	0.24**	-0.02	-0.06	0.13	-0.17	-0.08	0.02	-0.13	0.01	-0.08
Netherlands	0.12	-0.11	-0.17*	-0.08	-0.12	-0.24**	-0.15	-0.10	-0.06	-0.12
Spain	0.30**	0.03	0.02	0.03	-0.18*	0.06	-0.03	-0.22*	0.10	-0.07
United States	0.16	0.04	0.12	0.11	-0.05	-0.06	-0.07	-0.03	0.05	0.00

Notes: Correlations with direct, indirect, and monitoring are partial correlations with the effects of perceived cost and source credibility removed. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

As predicted, perceived cost was correlated most positively with tradition ($r_{xy} = 0.11$; $p < 0.01$). However, although cost was correlated negatively with stimulation ($r_{xy} = -0.09$; $p < 0.05$), the most negative correlation was found with self-direction ($r_{xy} = -0.10$; $p < 0.05$). These findings confirm that those who value humility and moderation in feelings (tradition) perceive a higher cost in asking for feedback, whereas those who value self-enhancement and independence (stimulation) perceive these costs as low.

We also tested the integrated hypothesis that relates the perceived cost of feedback-seeking behavior with all ten personal values by correlating the predicted with the observed orders of correlations between perceived cost and values (cf., Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995). A Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.44 ($p < 0.05$) confirmed the integrated hypothesis. This association reflects the fact that the correlations of perceived cost with values tend to decrease monotonically around the value circle from tradition values, on one hand, to stimulation values, on the other. In order to display the results, the obtained correlations are included on a graph containing the ten values arranged in sequential order (Figure 2).

Direct feedback seeking. The predicted correlations between values and direct feedback seeking, with perceived cost and source credibility controlled for, were partly confirmed. The reliance on direct feedback-seeking behaviors correlated most positively with tradition ($r_{xy} = 0.13$; $p < 0.01$), however, the correlation with stimulation failed to yield the most negative relationship ($r_{xy} = 0.03$; ns). These findings confirm that those who value humility and moderation in feelings (tradition) use direct feedback seeking to a higher degree. However, the lack of a relationship with stimulation fails to confirm that those who value the pursuit of excitement, novelty, and challenge rely less on direct feedback seeking. Interestingly, a positive relationship was found with power.

We also tested the integrated hypothesis relating direct feedback-seeking behavior with all ten personal values by correlating the predicted with the observed orders of correlations between direct feedback seeking and values. A Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.69 ($p < 0.01$) confirmed the integrated hypothesis. This association reflects the fact that the correlations of direct feedback seeking with values decrease monotonically around the value circle (Figure 3) from Tradition values to stimulation values.

Indirect feedback seeking. The predicted correlations between values and indirect feedback seeking, with perceived cost and source credibility controlled for, were partly confirmed. The reliance on indirect feedback-seeking behaviors correlated most positively with tradition ($r_{xy} = 0.14$; $p < 0.01$), however, the correlation with stimulation failed to yield the most negative relationship ($r_{xy} = 0.01$; ns). As was the case for direct feedback seeking, a positive relationship was found with power.

We also tested the integrated hypothesis that relates indirect feedback-seeking behavior with all ten personal values by correlating the predicted with the observed orders of correlations between indirect feedback seeking and values. A Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.58 ($p < 0.01$) confirmed the integrated hypothesis. Again, the association reflects the fact that the correlations of indirect feedback seeking with values decrease monotonically around the value circle (Figure 3) from tradition values to stimulation values.

Monitoring. The predicted correlations between values and monitoring, with perceived cost and source credibility controlled for, were not confirmed. Reliance on monitoring did not correlate most positively with tradition ($r_{xy} = -0.04$; ns), and, whereas it did correlate negatively with stimulation ($r_{xy} = -0.01$; ns), the only significant correlation found was with benevolence ($r_{xy} = 0.07$; $p < 0.05$). The Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.03 (ns) also failed to confirm the integrated hypothesis.

Clarity. The predicted polar correlations between values and the clarity of feedback were partly confirmed. Clarity of feedback from others correlated most positively with tradition ($r_{xy} = 0.16$; $p < 0.01$), however, the correlation with stimulation failed to yield a significant negative relationship ($r_{xy} = -0.07$; ns). The most negative relationship was with achievement ($r_{xy} = -0.12$; $p < 0.01$). These findings partially confirm the hypothesis that those who value tradition feel more comfortable deciphering informal feedback. Surprisingly, those who have the most difficulty understanding feedback from others are those who value achievement (i.e., successful, capable, ambitious, influential). Other negative correlations include hedonism and self-direction.

We also tested the integrated hypothesis regarding the relationship between clarity of feedback and all ten personal values by correlating the predicted with the observed orders of correlations between clarity and values. A Spearman rank correlation coefficient of 0.52 ($p < 0.05$) confirmed the integrated hypothesis. The association reflects the fact that the correlations of clarity with values decrease around the value circle (Figure 4) from tradition values to stimulation values.

Exploratory analyses were conducted to investigate possible differences between the feedback-seeking dynamics directed toward different sources—that is, supervisors and peers. In order to do so, the items of the feedback-seeking variables (cost, direct feedback seeking, indirect feedback seeking, and clarity) were aggregated by source. These new indices were then correlated with values. Results of these analyses mirror those of the overall feedback-seeking indices.

FIGURE 2
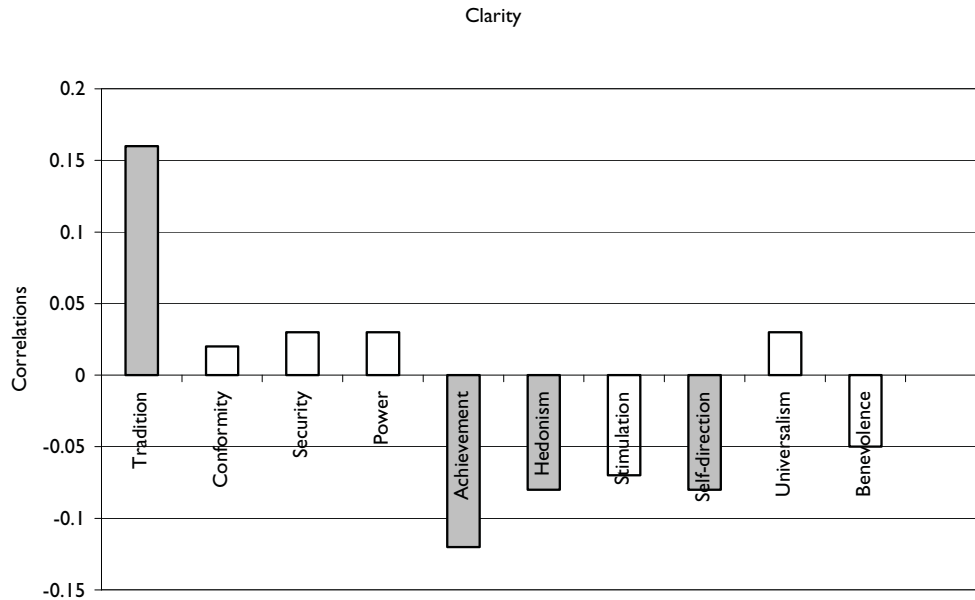**Correlations Between Personal Values and Cost**

Cost
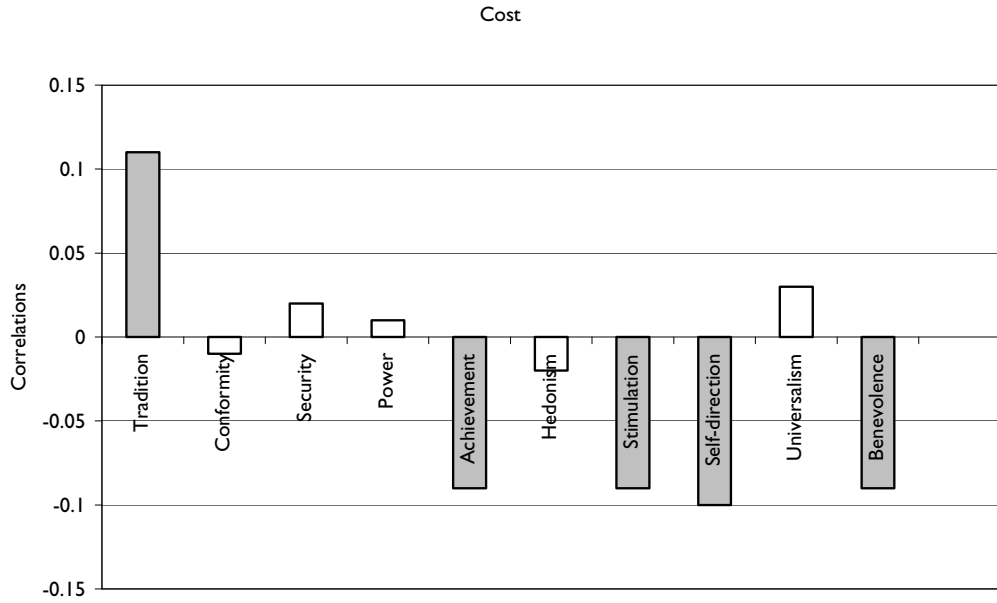
Note: Significant correlations are shaded.

FIGURE 3
Correlations Between Personal Values and Direct and Indirect Feedback-Seeking

Direct and Indirect Feedback-seeking
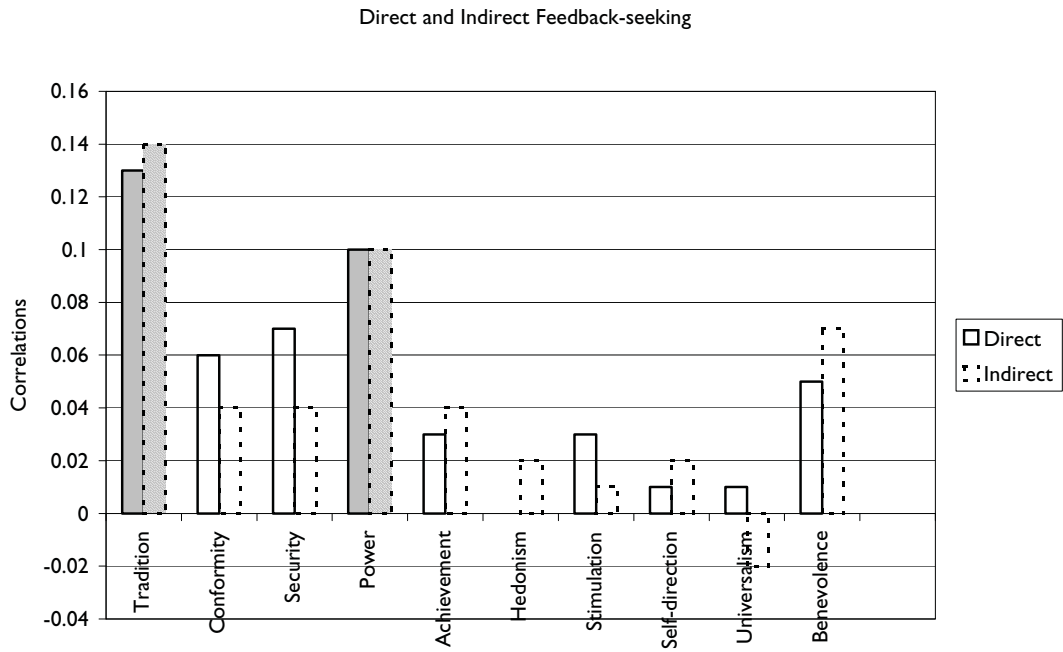
Note: Significant correlations are shaded.

FIGURE 4
Correlations Between Personal Values and Clarity

Clarity

Note: Significant correlations are shaded.

DISCUSSION

Past research on emergent feedback processes in organizations has neglected to focus on how these processes unfold around the world. Much of what is known regarding feedback-seeking dynamics has emerged from a specific context—that of the United States. However, this area of research is sufficiently mature to expand its boundaries and test some of its assumptions in cross-cultural settings. In this paper, we sought to address this need by investigating how personal values influence feedback-seeking dynamics using a sample that varied greatly in terms of cultural membership. Our results, based on respondents from six different countries, indicate that certain personal values underlie key elements of this dynamic.

The main contribution of this research lies in how the feedback-seeking process varies along the spectrum of personal values. Not only were specific values related to each feedback-seeking variable assessed (except monitoring), but the patterns of these relationships were also congruent with Schwartz's theory of values. In the following paragraphs, we discuss these results in more detail.

As predicted, the perceived price that one must pay when overtly seeking feedback was positively related to the extent to which people value humility and moderation in feelings and actions vis-à-vis the group, values associated with tradition and negatively related to values related to excitement

and novelty, that is, stimulation. Overall, the pattern of relationship supports the fact that the perceived cost of feedback seeking decreased as personal values moved away from tradition and toward stimulation. From a theoretical perspective, the current findings are consistent with previous research on the influence on context on the cost of feedback-seeking behaviors (Ashford & Northcraft, 1992; Levy et al., 1995; Williams et al., 1999). The cost of seeking feedback in public is related to impression management concerns, as individuals are concerned that others will view their behavior as an indicator of their insecurity or their lack of ability. Similarly, those who espouse values of tradition are also sensitive to impression management concerns, albeit ones of a different kind. For these individuals, the cost of seeking feedback is related to the fact that it signals an ignorance of what they should know. Thus, by overtly asking for feedback, they may not only display insecurity and lack of ability, but also an inability to be synchronized with others. The latter represents a breach of what is expected of individuals in this value system. Conversely, the series of negative associations found with achievement, self-direction, and benevolence imply a lower perceived cost of feedback-seeking behaviors for those who possess these values.

Overall, the pattern of correlations supports the fact that, when the cost of these behaviors was controlled for, the use of direct and indirect feedback-seeking behavior decreased as

personal values moved away from tradition toward stimulation; no relationships were found between personal values and monitoring. More precisely, direct and indirect feedback-seeking behaviors were positively related to tradition. Thus, it appears that the self-regulatory needs of individuals who value a connection with others encourage reliance on direct and indirect feedback seeking.

The fact that tradition is related to cost and both direct and indirect feedback-seeking behavior raises questions about the influence of cost on the use of these behaviors. A reanalysis of the correlations between personal values and feedback-seeking behaviors, this time not controlling for the variance due to cost, has minimal effect on the results. The magnitude of the relationship and the order of the correlations varied slightly; the Spearman rank index decreased from 0.69 to 0.64 for direct feedback seeking and increased from 0.58 to 0.59 for indirect. Thus it appears that, although perceived cost of feedback seeking varies according to personal values, this cost does not play a substantial role in dictating the extent to which these behaviors are used across values.

The results of clarity shed more light on the dynamics of feedback seeking. The clarity of informal feedback was positively related to tradition, but was not related to stimulation. Overall, the pattern of relationships supports the fact that the clarity of informal feedback decreased as personal values moved away from tradition toward stimulation. It is adaptive for individuals whose value system emphasizes a connection with others to understand informal feedback information better than individuals for whom this connection is less of a concern.

Another complementary explanation for the results of clarity is that feedback environments are likely to be different for individuals with different value systems. This explanation speaks to the dyadic nature of feedback seeking and to the fact that these behaviors occur in a communication context in which the motivation and skills of both the sender and the receiver must be considered. As stated by Fedor et al. (1992), performance feedback is assumed to lead to reduction in uncertainty, however, it often raises as many questions as it answers. Although our research does not directly address the role of the sender, it does shed some light on the quality of the communication process involving informal feedback. Specifically, individuals who value tradition may find themselves in a richer and more "precise" feedback environment. In other words, these individuals may also be better feedback-givers and be more cognizant of their duty to help others self-regulate. On the other hand, the internal focus of those who value stimulation may impede the provision of high-quality informal feedback.

Another result deserves specific attention: the relationship between power and both direct and indirect feedback-seeking behaviors. In the hypotheses, the association of this value with the reliance on feedback-seeking behaviors was not expected to be so strong. At the root of these relationships may be a different instrumentality motive than that of being connected with others. The effective use of these behaviors has been linked to organizational adaptiveness (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). Here, the usefulness of feedback-seeking behaviors may lie in enhancing the probability of achieving success. Those who value power may better understand the importance and the value of feedback information for success and, thus, more actively seek it.

A final observation is the disappointing results for monitoring. Monitoring, the most unobtrusive of the three behaviors, was expected to have the same relationships with personal values as direct and indirect feedback seeking. It did not. Although individuals do report using monitoring in order to obtain feedback information (the mean for monitoring was higher than for direct and indirect inquiry), this use could not be explained by values. It appears that this is quite a different channel through which information is obtained and perhaps monitoring is, in fact, a universal feedback-seeking behavior that is not influenced by cultural values.

Practical Implications

The practical implications of these research findings mostly relate to the variations in the use of informal feedback processes across individuals and the interplay between these informal processes and the formal ones. The scant literature on the use of performance appraisal practices around the globe indicates that formal performance appraisal systems are mostly prevalent in Western countries (Fletcher & Perry, 2001; Ramamoorthy & Carroll, 1998). Thus, most employees around the world have to rely on informal processes to obtain feedback at work. This may be especially so in cultures where personal values of tradition are common. Our findings point to the fact that workers who share values that emphasize a connectedness with others (i.e., tradition) may have a greater propensity to obtain high-quality feedback information via informal means and are better able to accurately decipher it. Thus, the need for formal feedback systems may not be as high for these workers. On the same token, the increasing reliance on very explicit and powerful feedback mechanisms—360-degree feedback immediately comes to mind—would be most adaptive for those individuals in which the propensity to rely on informal feedback means is weaker and where informal feedback is seen as unclear.

Limitations

A main limitation of this study is related to the measurement issues inherent in cross-cultural research (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). Conceptual and measurement equivalence across our six samples is implied, but not empirically tested

due to the small size of our sample. Although the robustness of Schwartz's cultural values survey is well established, the psychometric properties of the feedback-seeking measures relied upon may well vary across our sample. Future research should address the issues of measuring feedback-related variables across cultures. Another limitation lies in the self-report nature of the data used. The relationships found could be due to response biases. A more valid approach would have been to rely on another individual to provide ratings of the focal individual's feedback-seeking behaviors. However, this limitation is not unique to this study and is common to all research on feedback-seeking behaviors. The sampling procedure relied upon to collect the data presents another limitation. We attempted to maximize the variance of values by using samples from multiple nations while trying to match the respondents on other key variables, such as work experience. Unfortunately, our control over the final samples was limited, so some of our samples are small (e.g., from the United States). A final limitation is our neglect of the role of feedback senders in the feedback-seeking process. As stated earlier, the feedback-seeking process is dyadic in nature, therefore the behavior of the feedback seekers can only be understood in relation to the individuals who provide feedback. The "richness" of the feedback environment is likely to vary greatly based on the values of senders. The normative pressures put upon the feedback seekers are equally likely to operate on the feedback sender. For example, those high on tradition are likely to be more cognizant of their roles as feedback givers and, thus, to provide more frequent and more precise feedback to others. Future research in this area should focus on the feedback environment within which employees evolve. This is especially important in terms of the quality and quantity of the feedback information that "others" are providing.

As stated in the introduction, the international application of formal feedback practices has neglected the issue of how people naturally self-regulate. The sparse literature on international performance appraisals is silent on the fact that the need for formal feedback may vary around the globe (Milliman, Nason, Lowe, Kim, & Huo, 1995; Vance, McClaine, Boje, & Stage, 1992). Our results indicate that the effectiveness of different feedback practices may well be predicated on the value systems in which they are implemented. For instance, the use of an executive coach as a feedback provider may be more appropriate in countries where informal feedback is less likely to be sought out. There is a need to better understand how these two parallel systems coexist in different countries. We are cognizant of the fact that our methodology does not allow us to draw strong conclusions as to nationalistic effects on feedback-seeking dynamics because of sampling issues. However, by being the first empirical attempt to discover cultural differences, this study certainly opens the way for further probing.

In summary, this investigation has shed some light on the dynamics that underlie the use of feedback-seeking behaviors. By identifying the influence of certain personal values on these behaviors, this study offers the first empirical evidence of how feedback-seeking behaviors operate in various cultures.

NOTE

[1] Schwartz's value survey contains 11 values used to compute cultural-level indices; these were not used in our analyses because we focused only on individual-level values.

REFERENCES

Ashford, S.J. 1986. Feedback-seeking in individual adaptation: A resource perspective. *Academy of Management Journal,* 29 (3): 465–487.

———. 1993. The feedback environment: An explanatory study of cue use. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 14 (2): 201–224.

Ashford, S.J., & Cummings, L. 1983. Feedback as an individual resource: Personal strategies of creating information. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance,* 32: 370–398.

Ashford, S.J., & Northcraft, G.B. 1992. Conveying more (or less) than we realize: The role of impression management in feedback-seeking. *Organization Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 53 (3): 310–334.

Ashford, S.J., & Tsui, A.S. 1991. Self-regulation for managerial effectiveness: The role of feedback-seeking. *Academy of Management Journal,* 34 (2): 251–280.

Barnea, M., & Schwartz, S.H. 1998. Values and voting. *Political Psychology,* 19 (1): 17–40.

Bennett, N., Herold, D.M., & Ashford, S.J. 1990. The effects of tolerance for ambiguity on feedback-seeking behavior. *Journal of Occupational Psychology,* 63 (4): 343–348.

Braithwaite, V.A., & Law, H.G. 1985. Structure of human values: Testing the adequacy of Rokeach value survey. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 49 (1): 250–263.

Brett, J.F., Northcraft, G.B., & Pinkley, R.L. 1999. Stairways to heaven: An interlocking self-regulation model of negotiation. *Academy of Management Review,* 24 (3): 435–451.

Brutus, S., & Derayeh, M. 2002. Multi-source assessment from the perspective of the human resources managers: Completing the circle. *Human Resources Development Quarterly,* 13 (2): 187–202.

Carver, C.S., & Scheier, M.F. 1981. *Attention and self-regulation: A control-theory approach to human behavior.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Crosby, L.A., Bitner, M.J., & Gill, J.D. 1990. Organizational structure of values. *Journal of Business Research,* 20 (3): 123–134.

Dietz, T., Frisch, A.S., Kalof, L., Stern, P.C., & Guagnano, G.A. 1995. Values and vegetarianism: An exploratory analysis. *Rural Sociology,* 60 (fall): 533–542.

Earley, P.C. 1986. Trust, perceived importance of praise and criticism, and work performance: An examination of feedback

in the United States and England. *Journal of Management,* 12 (4): 457–474.

————. 1989. Intercultural assessment of performance feedback. *Group and Organization Studies,* 14 (2): 161–182.

————. 1997. *Face, harmony, and social structure.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Earley, P.C., Gibson, C.B., & Chen, C.C. 1999. "How did I do?" versus "how did we do?": Cultural contrasts of performance feedback use and self-efficacy. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 30 (5): 594–619.

Fedor, D.B., Rensvold, R.B., & Adams, S.M. 1992. An investigation of factors expected to affect feedback-seeking: A longitudinal field study. *Personnel Psychology,* 45 (4): 779–805.

Fletcher C., & Perry, E.L. 2001. Performance appraisal and feedback: A consideration of national culture and a review of contemporary research and future trends. In N. Anderson, D.S. Ones, & H.K. Sinangil (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial, work, and organizational psychology,* vol. 1: 127–144. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Greenwald, A.G. 1980. The totalitarian ego: Fabrication and revision of personal history. *American Psychologist,* 35 (7): 603–618.

Gupta, A.K., Govindarajan, V., & Malhotra, A. 1996. Feedback-seeking behavior of subsidiary presidents in multinational corporations. *Academy of Management Proceedings,* 20 (3): 151–155.

Hall, D.T., Otazo, K.L., & Hollenbeck, G.P. 1999. Behind closed doors: What really happens in executive coaching. *Organizational Dynamics,* 27 (3): 39–53.

Hallahan, M., Lee, F., & Herzog, T. 1997. It's not just whether you win or lose, it's also how you play the game: A naturalistic, cross-cultural examination of the positivity bias. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 28 (6): 768–778.

Heine, S.J., & Lehman, D.R. 1997. The cultural construction of self-enhancement: An examination of group-serving biases. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 72 (6): 1268–1283.

Heine, S.J., Lehman, D.R., Markus, H.R., & Kitayama, S. 1999. Is there a universal need for positive self-regard? *Psychological Review,* 106 (4): 766–794.

Herold, D.M., & Fedor, D.B. 1998. Individuals' interaction with their feedback environment. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management,* 16: 215–254.

Herold, D.M., & Parsons, C.K. 1985. Assessing the feedback environment in work organizations: Development of the job feedback survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 70 (2): 290–305.

Jones, R.G., & Whitmore, M.D. 1995. Evaluating developmental assessment centers as interventions. *Personnel Psychology,* 48 (2): 377–392.

Karoly, P. 1993. Mechanisms of self-regulation: A systems view. *Annual Review of Psychology,* 44: 23–52.

Kluckhohn, C. 1951. Values and value-orientations in the theory of action. In T. Parsons & E. Shils (Eds.), *Toward a general theory of action:* 338–433. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Kluger, A.N., & DeNisi, A. 1996. Effects of feedback intervention on performance: A historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological Bulletin,* 119 (2): 254–284.

Kram, K.E. 1985. *Mentoring at work: Developmental relationships in organizational life.* Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

Kuchinke, K.P. 2000. The role of feedback in managerial training settings. *Human Resource Development Quarterly,* 11 (4): 381–401.

Kung, M., & Steelman, L.A. 2003. *A cross-cultural study in feedback-seeking.* Paper presented at the Eighteenth Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Orlando, April.

Leslie, J.B., & Fleenor, J.W. 1998. *Feedback to managers: A review and comparison of multi-rater instruments for management development.* Greensboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership.

Levy, P.E., Albright, M.D., Cawley, B.D., & Williams, J.R. 1995. Situational and individual determinants of feedback-seeking: A closer look at the process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 62 (1): 23–37.

London, M. 1997. *Job feedback: Giving, receiving, and using feedback for performance management.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Markus, H.R., & Kitayama, S. 1991. Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review,* 98 (2): 224–253.

Markus, H.R., Mullaly, & Kitayama, S. 1997. Selfways: Diversity in modes of cultural participation. In U. Neisser and D.A. Jopling (Eds.), *The conceptual self in context: Culture, experience, self-understanding:* 13–61. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Meglino, B.M., & Ravlin, E.C. 1998. Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. *Journal of Management,* 24 (3): 351–389.

Miller, V.D. 1996. An experimental study of newcomers' information seeking behaviors during organizational entry. *Communication Studies,* 47 (1–2): 1–24.

Miller, V.D., & Jablin, F.M. 1991. Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics, and a model of the process. *Academy of Management Review,* 16 (1): 92–120.

Milliman, J.F., Nason, S., Lowe, K., Kim, N., & Huo, P. 1995. An empirical study of performance appraisal practices in Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and the U.S. *Academy of Management Journal Best Papers Proceedings:* 182–187.

Morisaki, S., & Gudykunst, W.B. 1994. Face in Japan and the United States. In S. Ting-Toomey (Ed.), *The challenge of facework: Cross-cultural and interpersonal issues:* 47–93. Albany: State University of New York.

Naoki, N., & Barnlund, D. 1983. Patterns of interpersonal criticism in Japan and United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 7 (1): 1–18.

Northcraft, G.B., & Ashford, S. 1990. The presentation of self in everyday life: The effects of performance expectations and feedback context on feedback inquiry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 47 (1): 42–64.

Powers, W.T. 1973. *Behavior: The control of perceptions.* Chicago: Aldine Publishing.

Ramamoorthy, N., & Carroll, S.J. 1998. Individualism/collec-

tivism orientations and reactions toward alternative human resource management practices. *Human Relations,* 51 (5): 571–588.

Riordan, C.M., & Vandenberg, R.J. 1994. A central question in cross-cultural research: Do employees of different cultures interpret work-related measures in an equivalent manner? *Journal of Management,* 20 (3): 643–671.

Roccas, S., & Schwartz, S.H. 1997. Church-state relations and the association of religiosity with values. *Cross-Cultural Research,* 31 (4): 356–375.

Roccas, S., Sagiv, L., Schwartz, S.H., & Knafo, A. 2002. The big five personality and personal values. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,* 28 (6): 789–801.

Rokeach, M. 1973. *The nature of human values.* New York: Free Press.

Sagiv, L., & Schwartz, S.H. 1995. Value priorities and readiness for out-group social contact. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 69 (3): 437–448.

Schwartz, S.H. 1992. Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology,* vol. 25: 1–65. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

———. 1994. Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In U. Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S.-C. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method and applications:* 85–119. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Schwartz, S.H., & Bilsky, W. 1987. Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 53 (3): 550-562.

———. 1990. Toward a theory of the universal content and structure of values: Extensions and cross-cultural replications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 58 (5): 878–891.

Schwartz, S.H., & Huismans, S. 1995. Value priorities and religiosity in four Western religions. *Social Psychology Quarterly,* 58 (2): 88–107.

Schwartz, S.H., & Sagiv, L. 1995. Identifying culture specifics in the content and structure of values. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 26 (1): 92–116.

Spini, D. 2003. Measurement equivalence of 10 value types from the Schwartz value survey across 21 countries. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology,* 34 (3): 3–23.

Sully de Luque, M.F., & Sommer, S.M. 2000. The impact of culture on feedback-seeking behavior: An integrated model and propositions. *Academy of Management Review,* 25 (4): 829–849.

Taylor, S.E., & Brown, J.D. 1988. Illusion and well-being: A social psychological perspective on mental health. *Psychological Bulletin,* 103 (2): 193–210.

Triandis, H.C. 1989. The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review,* 96 (3): 506–520.

Vance, C.M., McClaine, S.R., Boje, D.M., & Stage, H.D. 1992. An examination of the transferability of traditional performance appraisal principles across cultural boundaries. *Management International Review,* 32 (4): 313–326.

Vancouver, J.B. 2000. Self-regulation in organizational settings: A tale of two paradigms. In M. Boekaerts & P.R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation:* 303–341. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

VandeWalle, D., & Cummings, L.L. 1997. A test of the influence of goal orientation on the feedback seeking process. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 82 (3): 390–400.

William, J.R., Miller, C.E., Steelman, L.A., & Levy, P.E. 1999. Increasing feedback seeking in public contexts: It takes two (or more) to tango. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 84 (6): 969–976.