

The Impact of Organizational Learning Culture, Goal Orientation, Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment on Employees' Workplace Learning

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of organizational learning culture, learning and performance goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment on employees' workplace learning. The main research question to guide this study was, How do organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment impact employees' workplace learning?

Subjects of this study were Korean employees who were not executives, had worked at the company more than one year, and agreed to complete the survey. A paper-and-pencil-based questionnaire with 59 items (excluding six demographic questions) was designed. Six hundred questionnaires were distributed to ten organizations, and 382 responses were collected. The final response rate, after 17 unusable responses were identified, was 61% (365). Cronbach's alphas verified the reliability of the overall instrument, as well as the sections of the survey. Construct validity was determined using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Correlation analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques were conducted to test the hypotheses of the study.

The study found that organizational learning culture, learning goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment were positively related to workplace learning. In particular, psychological empowerment and workplace learning had the strongest relationship. Compared with learning and performance goal orientation, organizational learning culture had more impact on managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment. Performance goal orientation was not significantly related to managerial effectiveness and was not negatively related to psychological

empowerment, as hypothesized. Based on these findings, the implications for Human Resource Development (HRD) theory and practice, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research were discussed.

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## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Companies increasingly recognize that employee learning is inevitable and critical to organizational survival (Westbrook & Veale, 2001), and influences organizational capacity through developing the potential of employees. Learning in the workplace or workplace learning can enhance understanding of workplace practices (Elkjaer & Wahlgren, 2006) since learning is associated with improvement in performance and adaptability to environmental changes (Gherardi, 2006). In addition, workplace learning has played an important role in responding to the changing demands from organizations for improving productivity, creating innovation, and strengthening competitiveness (Ellstrom, 2001).

Many changes in organizational structures and in work, as well as innovations in society and work life, have occurred due to advanced information technology, accelerated globalization, and growing knowledge in diverse fields. These changes have stimulated organizations to develop creative ways of improving the level of employees' competence to meet external and internal challenges. In other words, continuous learning in the workplace has become required for both individuals and organizations to solve issues they are facing.

Specifically, in knowledge-based jobs and environments demanding highly skilled labor and educated workers, workplace learning can be understood as a means for managing the relationships between organizational and individual capabilities through an emphasis on individual improvement that is linked to organizational purposes and directions (Solomon, 2001). In high performance work environments, organizations

encourage employees to maximize the improvement of the organization's performance. They also try to provide the conditions for higher levels of learning and skill formation, as well as for learning to become a continuous process through problem-solving in the workplace (Ashton & Sung, 2002). In this way, workplace learning contributes to strengthening the connections between organizational results and individual competence, which results in improving high performance work environments and organizational competitiveness.

Workplace learning can also be viewed as a way to promote workplace communicative processes (Boud & Garrick, 1999) beyond the economic and performance-oriented perspectives. That is to say, workplace learning contributes not only to improving individual and organizational performance, but also enhancing an integrated process involving interaction between people and their environment in the workplace (Doornbos, Bolhuis, & Denessen, 2004). This perspective of workplace learning emphasizes the workplace as a place of learning (Ashton, 2004a) and social context (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2001), reflecting the fact that learning becomes integrated into work practices, and work itself becomes a rich source of learning (Collin, 2002).

Several studies of workplace learning have focused on the dynamic relationship between individual learners and their participation in the organization (Blaka & Filstad, 2007; Brown & Duguid, 1991; Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson, & Unwin, 2005). Specifically, these studies emphasized the collective knowing and learning process through social interaction and relationships in the community of practice. This reflects the importance of the social and cultural conditions specific to the work environment, the situational nature of working and learning in organizations. Therefore, the understanding

of workplace learning means recognizing its complexities and social processes (organizational socialization), and the personal and organizational contexts that affect this socialization (Boud & Garrick, 1999).

Diverse variables in work environments are likely to influence the learning of individuals, groups, and organizations. For example, a corporate culture conducive to learning is one of the contextual factors affecting the probability that learning will occur in organizations (Fiol & Lyles, 1985) and has played a critical role in fostering inquiry, openness, and trust in the workplace (Friedman, Lipshits, & Overmeer, 2001). Dweck (1986) showed that individuals' goal preferences predict patterns of learning in practical settings. Goal orientation, a psychological concept for how individuals interpret and respond to achievement situations (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999), could impact employees' levels of motivation to participate to the degree to which knowledge and skills are transferred to the job setting (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996). Psychological empowerment is also related to learning in the workplace. According to Cyboran (2005), reflection through learning activities has enabled employees to maintain feelings of empowerment during difficult transitions in the organization. In addition, a manager's behavior has an influence on workplace learning. Learning through organizational projects takes place effectively and actively when managers provide more autonomy and less supervision (McGrath, 2001). Consequently, studies on workplace learning have explored diverse factors influencing workplace learning, as well as clarified the contributions and roles of workplace learning in organizations.

## **Problem Statement**

It is not easy to define workplace learning as a single concept. This is reflected by the fact that much research has been conducted on defining and clarifying the concept and range of workplace learning (Elkjaer & Wahlgren, 2006; Ellstrom, 2001; Eraut, 2007; Fenwick, 2006, 2008; Garaven, Morely, Gunnigle, & McGuire, 2002; Jacobs & Park, 2009; Smith, 2003; Tynjala, 2008) or suggesting workplace learning models to explore key elements impacting learning in the workplace (Cseh, Watkin, & Marsick, 1999; Doornbos et al., 2004; Matthews, 1999; O'Connor, 2004; Raelin, 2000). While these studies provide theoretical insight to understand workplace learning, most definitions and concepts of the workplace learning reflect the preferences and perspectives of the authors and participants.

More recently, several studies on workplace learning have focused on how employees recognize workplace learning in diverse organizations (Blaka & Filstad, 2007; Collin, 2002; Slotte, Tynjala, & Hytonen, 2004), rather than on what employees acquire through workplace learning. These studies urge scholars to conduct research with relatively objective approaches such as using instruments to measure diverse aspects of workplace learning or identifying the outcomes of workplace learning such as job knowledge, and organizational socialization.

In terms of research methods, many studies using the term 'workplace learning' have taken a qualitative approach, including interviews, observations, and case studies (e.g., Collin, 2002; Fuller et al., 2005; Torraco, 1999; Westbrook & Veale, 2001). In this study, quantitative research on organizational learning is excluded in that workplace learning here emphasizes individual learning associated with organizational socialization.

While previous studies have provided a conceptual meaning of contextual experience and phenomena about workplace learning through qualitative research methods, these studies have been insufficient to expand their research results and to clarify factors influencing workplace learning.

At the same time, many studies have been conducted on factors influencing workplace learning. Specifically, organizational context (learning environments or organizational culture) has been shown to be one of the important factors facilitating learning and enhancing positive learning experiences in the workplace (Ashton, 2004; Billett, 2001, 2002; Clarke, 2005; Ellinger, 2005; Sambrook, 2005; Savolainen, 2000; Skule, 2004). For example, Ellinger (2005) identified several positive organizational contextual factors enhancing informal learning in the workplace, including learning-committed leadership and management, an internal culture committed to learning, the availability of work tools and resources, and members who establish relationships for learning.

However, these previous studies have not paid attention to the interactive effects on workplace learning between organizational context and other factors, such as individual characteristics and managers' support, which do not have a simple influence but have an integrative influence on workplace learning. While a few studies have examined contextual and personal factors influencing workplace learning (Berg & Chyung, 2008; Lohman, 2005; Sambrook, 2005), little research has been conducted to investigate how organizational (i. e., organizational learning culture) or personal (i.e., goal orientation) factors have an indirect effect on workplace learning mediated by managerial factors (i.e., managerial effectiveness). In other words, little research

examining organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment as antecedents of workplace learning have been found within one study.

Therefore, the research problem for this study is that: (1) studies on workplace learning focus on complicated characteristics of workplace learning, and (2) HRD researchers and practitioners need more empirical evidence about the relationship among organizational, managerial, and personal factors and employees' workplace learning.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The overall purpose of this study was to gain better understanding of factors influencing workplace learning by clarifying relationships between these factors and workplace learning. According to Sambrook (2005), factors influencing workplace learning have been categorized into organizational, functional or managerial, and personal levels. Based on Sambrook's (2005) criteria, the current study has representative factors reflecting contextual (organizational and functional) and personal categories. The contextual factors in this study are organizational learning culture and managerial effectiveness. The personal factors influencing workplace learning are goal orientation and psychological empowerment. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of: (1) organizational learning culture, (2) learning and performance goal orientation, (3) managerial effectiveness, and (4) psychological empowerment on (5) employees' workplace learning.

## **Research Questions**

The main research question to guide this study is, How do organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment impact employees' workplace learning? Specific questions to be answered include:

1. Does organizational learning culture impact managerial effectiveness?
2. Does organizational learning culture impact psychological empowerment?
3. Does goal orientation impact managerial effectiveness?
  - 3-1. Does learning goal orientation impact managerial effectiveness?
  - 3-2. Does performance goal orientation impact managerial effectiveness?
4. Does goal orientation impact psychological empowerment?
  - 4-1. Does learning goal orientation impact psychological empowerment?
  - 4-2. Does performance goal orientation impact psychological empowerment?
5. Does managerial effectiveness impact employees' workplace learning?
6. Does psychological empowerment impact employees' workplace learning?

## **Significance of the Study**

This study has theoretical and practical implications for Human Resource Development (HRD). Theoretically, this study includes organizational, managerial, and personal factors influencing workplace learning as a process of understanding organizational knowledge and norms (organizational socialization process). Based on the integrative literature review, the current study using factors in three different categories contributes to sustaining diverse perspectives regarding the context of workplace learning. Moreover, this study considers the results of workplace learning, including job

knowledge, acculturation to the company, and establishing relationships, through emphasizing the roles of workplace learning on socialization.

The theoretical importance of this study is that it provides additional empirical evidence for future studies to explore the impact of related or other factors influencing workplace learning. While previous studies have focused on finding critical roles of workplace learning and illuminating the relationship between given situations and workplace learning, the current study identifies the degree to which related factors impact workplace learning and clarifies a tested model of employees' workplace learning by using structural equation modeling (SEM).

From a practical perspective, this study can provide better information for decision making to organizations and HRD practitioners in order to improve the impact of workplace learning. Identifying the more influential dimensions in an organizational context (i. e. organizational learning culture) and personal characteristics (i. e. goal orientation), organizations can develop more specific requirements and conditions to enrich workplace learning for employees. In addition, HRD practitioners can consider related factors influencing social process through workplace learning to design and develop learning programs for employees. Particularly, HRD professionals can pay attention to how managers support and collaborate in programs for workplace learning, focusing on the impact of psychological empowerment and managerial effectiveness.

### **Definitions of Terms**

The constructs of this study include: (1) goal orientation, (2) managerial effectiveness, (3) organizational learning culture, (4) psychological empowerment, and (5) workplace learning. These key words are defined as follows:

### **Goal Orientation**

Goal orientation refers to individual goal preferences in achievement situations (Dweck, 1986) and is a motivational variable expected to affect the allocation of effort during learning (Fisher & Ford, 1998). Goal orientation is categorized into learning and performance. *Learning goal orientation* means a desire to increase one's competence by developing new skills and mastering new situations. *Performance goal orientation* refers to a desire to demonstrate one's competence to others and to receive positive evaluations from others.

### **Managerial Effectiveness**

Managerial effectiveness is generally defined as the degree to which a manager fulfills or exceeds work role expectations (Spreitzer, 1995). In this research, managerial effectiveness is perceived manager's behaviors and attitudes about managerial performance standards, comparison to other managers, performance as a role model, overall managerial success and effectiveness.

### **Organizational Learning Culture**

Organizational learning culture is a term for a learning organization that relates to organizational culture (Wang, 2005). In this culture, learning plays a critical role in maintaining organizational functions and success (Marquart, 2002). Organizational learning culture contributes to creating a supportive environment for desired outcomes (Marsick & Watkins, 2003).

### **Psychological Empowerment**

Psychological empowerment refers to psychological states in which individuals feel a sense of control in relation to their work (Spreitzer, 2007) and the personal beliefs

that employees have about their roles in relation to the organization. It focuses on how employees experience their work, rather than focusing on managerial practices that share power with employees at all levels.

### **Workplace Learning**

Workplace learning is an integrated process involving the interaction between people, their environment and internal processes for creating learning results (Doornbos, et al., 2004; Illeris, 2003). In this study, workplace learning is defined as “a process of formally and informally communicating and transmitting an organization’s technical knowledge, culture, norms, and procedures” (Reio & Wiswell, 2000, p. 9), focusing on the individual learning associated with socialization processes in organizations.

### **Summary**

In knowledge-based jobs and environments, workplace learning can be understood as a means for managing the relationships between organizational and individual capabilities through the connections between individual improvements and organizational purposes. From a different perspective, workplace learning can be viewed as a way to promote workplace communicative processes, which emphasizes the importance of the social and cultural conditions specific to the work environment and the situational nature of working and learning in organizations.

Studies on workplace learning have been conducted to explore diverse factors influencing workplace learning, as well as to clarify the contributions and roles of workplace learning in organizations. However, previous studies have focused on simple relationships between related factors and workplace learning, and have depended more on qualitative research methods. Little research has been done to shift the focus onto

complicated characteristics of workplace learning, or to provide more empirical evidence about the relationship between relevant factors and employees' workplace learning.

The purpose of this research was to investigate the impact of: (1) organizational learning culture, (2) learning and performance goal orientation, (3) managerial effectiveness, and (4) psychological empowerment on (5) employees' workplace learning. The current study provides additional empirical evidence for future research in academia and better information to develop learning programs and to have management support for HRD practices.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter presents the relevant literature to investigate the impact of organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment on employees' workplace learning. The first section reviews the definitions, forms, characteristics, and constructs of workplace learning. The second section focuses on the foundations of workplace learning, including education, psychology, sociology, and economics. Third, factors influencing workplace learning are described in detail. Each factor is explained based on the literature, and possible relationships among the variables are hypothesized. Finally, a framework for this study is proposed to describe the relationships among the factors.

#### **What Is Workplace Learning?**

Scholars have used different terms to describe workplace learning, including workplace learning (Watkins, 1995), work-based learning (Raelin, 1997), learning in the workplace (Marsick, 1987), workplace-based learning (Garrick, 1998), work-related learning (Doornbos et al., 2004; Westbrook & Veale, 2001), learning at work (Boud & Garrick, 1999), integrating learning with working (Ellstrom, 2001; Torraco, 1999), workplace-focused learning (Bierema & Eraut, 2004), and workforce learning (Jacobs & Park, 2009). To expand the understanding of workplace learning, this section will provide the definitions, forms, characteristics, and constructs of workplace learning.

#### **Definitions of Workplace Learning**

Some researchers (Elkjaer & Wahlgren, 2006; Raelin, 2000) have tried to distinguish workplace learning from organizational learning. Workplace learning is about

individual learning in the environment of work and workplaces and involves deliberate and conscious learning activities to reflect on actual workplace experiences (Marsick, 1987; Raelin, 2000). In addition, workplace learning could be characterized as developmental activities and educational efforts within the organization to help it establish a culture of organizational learning (Raelin, 2000). Additionally, Lewis (2005) proposed that the primary unit of workplace learning must be the individual worker.

On the other hand, Nadler (1992) emphasized three major types of work-based learning programs in Human Resource Development (HRD), considering both individual and organizational learning: (1) training (learning related to the present job of the individual), (2) education (learning related to a future but defined job for which the individual is being prepared), and (3) development (learning for the general growth of the individual or organization). Moreover, Elkjaer (2004) provided an integrated perspective of individual and organizational learning in terms of organizational learning, and Marsick and Watkins (1990) pointed out that workplace learning involves moving toward continuous improvement at individual, team, and organizational levels.

In addition, Watkins (1995) suggested that workplace learning is referred to as training and HRD, reflecting the increasing demand for learning at work, more flexible learning practices, and lasting debates about the priority between individual and organizational value, and between learning and performance. Training is usually job-related instruction, and HRD includes activities that contribute to developing people within organizations (Watkins, 1995). Orlando, Geroy, and Wright (2000) noted that training is a tool for learning, which influences performance improvement. The goal of

training and education in organizations is to facilitate learning to reach a certain standard (Orlando et al., 2000).

Broader definitions of workplace learning, including the contexts and processes of learning, were introduced by Marsick (1998) and Matthews (1999). Marsick (1998) argued that workplace learning was the way in which individuals or groups acquire, interpret, reorganize, change, or assimilate related information, skills, and feelings. Workplace learning is a primary way in which people construct meaning in their personal and shared organizational lives. Matthews (1999) proposed that workplace learning involves the process of reasoned learning towards desirable outcomes for the individual and the organization. These outcomes should foster the sustained development of both the individual and the organization, within the present and future context of organizational goals and individual career development. Table 1 shows diverse definitions of workplace learning.

Table 1

*Definitions of Workplace Learning*

Author(s)	Definition
Boud & Garrick (1999)	“An important activity both for contributing to organizations and for contributing to the broader learning and development of individual workers/participants” (p. 3).
Doornbos et al. (2004)	“An integrated process involving the interaction between worker and their environments and as an internal process of inquisition, elaboration, and construction leading to learning result (adopted from Illeris, 2002)” (p. 252).
Evans, Hodkinson, Rainbird, & Unwin	“A variety of different forms of learning which may or may not be formally structured, some of which take place

(2006)	spontaneously through social interactions of the workplace” (p. 7).
Fenwick (2001)	“Human change or growth that occurs primarily in activities and contexts of work” (p. 4).
Jacobs & Park (2009)	“The process used by individuals when engaged in training programs, education and development courses, or some type of experiential learning activity for the purpose of acquiring the competence necessary to meet current and future work requirements” (p.134).
Marsick (1998)	“The way in which individuals or groups acquire, interpret, reorganize, change or assimilate related information, skills and feelings” (p.190).
Rylatt (2001)	“A sustained and high leverage development of people in line with organizational outcomes” (p.5-6).
Spencer (2001)	“The learning that takes place at work, learning that workers engage on a daily basis” (p. 32).
Wiesenberg & Peterson (2004)	“The acquisition of knowledge, skills and feelings which result in improved individual or collective adaptation to change in the workplace” (p.219-220).

In short, workplace learning is a learning process with diverse activities and approaches that encourage employees to engage in and share conscious reflection and development based on actual experiences and knowledge for both individual and organizational goals in the workplace or in a work context. A key defining feature of workplace learning is that participation in the workplace and learning are seen as inextricably linked within the same process because learning cannot be separated from working (Clarke, 2005; Eraut, Alderton, Cole, & Senker, 2002). In the same context,

Barnett (2002) argued that work needs to become a form of learning and learning a form of work.

### **Forms of Workplace Learning**

Workplace learning is generally considered to have three different forms: *formal*, *informal*, and *incidental* (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Formal learning, such as training, consists of several plans to provide instruction on how to perform specific jobs within an institutional sponsor and educational structure. Informal learning occurs based on a learner's control rather than institution-centered, classroom-based, or highly structured environments. Examples of informal learning include self-directed learning, networking, coaching, mentoring, and performance planning to review learning needs (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). Incidental learning, as one type of informal learning, takes place as a result of diverse activities without the intention to learn. For instance, task accomplishment, interpersonal interaction, sensing the organizational culture, trial-and-error experimentation, or formal learning can be activities leading to incidental learning (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal and incidental learning have been connected with related concepts, but they are not the same (Garrick, 1998; Marsick & Watkins, 1990). In addition, Eraut et al. (2002) emphasized that most of the learning at work is non-formal in that workplace learning is neither clearly specified nor planned.

On the other hand, Lankau and Scandura (2002) identified two types of personal learning in the workplace, focusing on organizational awareness and interpersonal skills. The first type is *relational job learning*. It refers to increased understanding about the interdependence or connectedness of one's job to others. This type emphasizes learning about the context of work to see relationships among people (Merriam & Heuer, 1996).

The second type is *personal skill development*, defined as acquisition of new skills and abilities that enable better working relationships. This type relates to interpersonal skills (Kram & Hall, 1996), such as communication, problem solving, and developing relationships with others in the organization.

### **Characteristics of Workplace Learning**

Workplace learning can be characterized as a highly social activity that requires interaction and dialogue, requires the kinds of challenges that make learning necessary, and involves reflection on past experiences and the planning of future activities (Tynjala, 2008).

In addition, Streumer and Kho (2006) summarized the characteristics of workplace learning as the notion of process, boundary, complexity, and evolution as follows: (1) workplace learning represents a set of processes that occur within specific organizational contexts and focus on acquiring and assimilating an integrated cluster of knowledge, skills, values, and feelings that result in individuals and teams refocusing and changing their behavior; (2) workplace learning incorporates within its boundaries the issues of individual and organizational learning, both formally and informally within organizations; (3) workplace learning discourse highlights the complex and context-specific nature of learning; and (4) the notion of learning as a concept has evolved significantly in terms of meaning, from just acquisition of skills to the development of cognitive processes in conjunction with skill acquisition.

## **Constructs of Workplace Learning**

Based on the definition and characteristics of workplace learning, learning environments, methods of learning, learning processes, and goals and learning outcomes can be identified as constructs composing workplace learning.

**Learning environments.** In this study, environment is a broad concept, including organizational structure and context. The workplace is viewed as a learning environment because it provides opportunities for workers to engage in activities and practice. That is, the workplace offers many opportunities for learning that need to be centered around reflection on work practices (Raelin, 2000). Moreover, the workplace as a learning environment is not fixed but is an outcome of the changing relationship between organizational factors, social relations, and employees (Rainbird, Fuller, & Munro, 2007).

Additionally, Elkjaer and Wahlgren (2006) stressed three characteristics of the workplace as a learning environment. First, learning is connected to a specific learning context, the workplace. Second, a learning environment is decisive for learning to occur, and changes in the environment may have important impact on the learning that can take place in the workplace. Third, for competence development to occur, there must be a connection between production and the possibilities that the workplace offers for learning.

**Methods of learning.** Many studies of workplace learning have focused on procedures and techniques to enhance learning, such as coaching, mentoring, job rotations, and trial and error (Garrick, 1998), as well as e-learning or on-line learning. Raelin (2000) introduced listening, attending, encouraging, disclosing, illuminating, clarifying goals, sharing reflection and feedback, taking notes, questioning, evaluating, and reinforcing participative environments as workplace learning facilitation skills.

According to Elkjaer and Wahlgren (2006), workplace learning methods consist of organizing the social relations at work and the work processes in such a way that learning can take place. From a more traditional perspective, learning methods are similar to the approach of establishing teacher-pupil relations, such as systematic training, guidance, mentoring, and supervision. Billett (1999) emphasized that structured and planned workplace learning activities, systematic thinking, and the linking of learning activities to current work processes are necessary in the workplace.

**Learning processes.** The concept of single-loop learning and double-loop learning (Argyris & Schon, 1996) can be used to explain learning processes in organizations. Single-loop learning is instrumental learning that changes the actions intended to lead to the expected outcomes in the current value system (e.g., trial-and-error). In contrast, double-loop learning involves reflection on values/norms and the social structures to examine the appropriateness of chosen ends (e.g., innovation). More recently, several researchers (Peschl, 2007; Raelin, 2000; Romme & van Witteloostuijn, 1999) added the concept of triple-loop learning in which the basic premises of perceiving the world are questioned.

Meanwhile, Cseh, Watkins, and Marsick (1999) conceptualized the learning process through an informal and incidental workplace learning model. The model shows the learning cycle of understanding, learning, solution, strategy choice, result, and evaluation. Based on a problem-solving approach, the model is mixed with experiential learning and the interaction of individuals and their environment.

**Goals and learning outcomes.** The aims of the organization and of individuals are the most important motives in workplace learning (Streumer & Kho, 2006).

Employees experience challenges continuously by setting goals in the workplace (Confessore & Kops, 1998). Organizational goals influence individual goals that are related to their roles (Simon, 1964) and use them as one criterion for appraising organizational performance (Arvey & Murphy, 1998). Thus, the better the aims of the organization and its members coincide, the greater is the possibility that the learning outcomes will produce a surplus value for both the individual and the organization.

Nieuwenhuis and Woerkom (2007) identified four goals for learning potential in the workplace: (1) preparation (learning as a preparation for work), (2) optimization (learning for effective task execution), (3) transformation (learning for innovation), and (4) personal development (learning for personal goals). The effectiveness of workplace learning needs to be evaluated by different criteria according to different learning goals. For example, the criterion of learning as a preparation for work is qualification (Nieuwenhuis & Woerkom, 2007). In this case, the qualification is evaluated by educational standards or purpose. However, learning for effective task execution is for optimizing productivity. This type of learning needs to be considered the organizational context in the evaluation process (Nieuwenhuis & Woerkom, 2007).

Learning outcomes can be categorized into four types of learning in organizations (Sarangi, 2001): pragmatic development (according to the skills, knowledge, and technical facility to do the job successfully), intrapersonal development (the ability of employees to think critically, solve problems, and exercise creativity in their daily job), interpersonal development (the ability of employees to expand and develop communication and pedagogical skills), and cultural orientation (the capacity of the

employees to understand and adjust to both formal workplace culture and informal social norms and mores of the work environment)

In addition, Eraut (2004) developed a typology of learning outcome at work using eight categories: (1) task performance, (2) awareness and understanding, (3) personal development, (4) teamwork, (5) role performance, (6) academic knowledge and skills, (7) decision making and problem solving, and (8) judgment.

### **Foundations of Workplace Learning**

Critical characteristics and functions of workplace learning vary in different foundational areas, such as education, psychology, sociology, and economics. These four perspectives have contributed to clarifying the role, learning process, social context, and importance of learning in the workplace.

#### **Education**

Workplace learning is associated with the educational perspective through both adult/continuing and vocational education in the workplace. Above all, continuing or lifelong education has been related to interests of new learning opportunities and needs for acquiring new skills and knowledge in a changing society (Laursen & Salter, 2006). Workplace learning reflects properly the philosophy of these lifelong education concepts in terms of providing learning environments and opportunities, and overcoming the traditional assumption of an institutionalized education system. Practically, workplace learning plays an important role in accomplishing continuing education in that workplace learning seeks to enhance the personal and work-related knowledge and skills of individuals, helping them to achieve their full potential (Jarvis, 2004).

In addition, vocational education contributes to enhancing the role and importance of workplace learning. The philosophy of vocational education has been strongly influenced by Snedden and Dewey (Lewis, 1994). Based on Snedden's social efficiency and Dewey's democratic ideal, the purposes of vocational education include enhancing individuals' motivation so that they learn more; providing career exploration and planning; and establishing pathways for continuing education and lifelong learning connected to business and industry (Lewis, 1994). Workplace learning can play a significant role in making a connection between vocational education and real work practice, reinforcing or revising previous knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and consequently emphasizing skills and knowledge required to perform individual responsibilities in an organizational context.

Moreover, the purpose of education is to provide a fundamental understanding of workplace learning. Individual fulfillment, civic participation, and vocation are three main purposes of education (Winch, 2002). Vocationally, education for work aims at individual fulfillment through employment and social well-being through economic prosperity. In particular, autonomy is important for individual aims. The autonomous person is independent, self-chosen, knowledgeable, and self-mastered for the purpose (Winch, 2002). Thus, workplace learning could be a vehicle for autonomous employees in that they can experience the process of carrying out personal and organizational objectives and accomplishments during employment.

### **Psychology**

Workplace learning from a psychological perspective has emphasized the learning process, learning-related concepts, and fundamental understanding of workplace learning.

Above all, psychology provides explanations of diverse learning processes in the workplace in terms of learning theory. Behavioral learning theory illustrates the connection between demands from organizations or workplace contexts and employees' behaviors (e.g., how organizational demands influence employees' learning motivation) (Huberty & Kramlinger, 1990; Rogers, 2002). Cognitive learning theory can explain the dynamics of employees' perceptions during skill acquisition (e.g., how employees apply new knowledge to their jobs) (Huberty & Kramlinger, 1990; Rogers, 2002). Humanist learning theory emphasizes employees' reflection from their experiences and employees' autonomy in an organizational context (e.g., how employees use their abilities to fulfill their learning goals) (Huberty & Kramlinger, 1990; Rogers, 2002).

In addition, psychology offers learning-related concepts to describe the complexities of workplace learning, such as self-efficacy, problem-solving, reflection, motivation, and confidence. For instance, Billett (2000) emphasized that problem solving activities in the workplace are central to understanding how employees' cognitive structures are extended and reinforced. These problem-solving activities provide learning through reinforcement that strengthens employees' organizational knowledge and their confidence in doing tasks when these activities are routine in the workplace.

Furthermore, the psychological approach provides fundamental interpretations in understanding workplace learning in different fields. For example, management studies about the relationships between individuals and organizational learning have been focused on two points (Maier, Prange, & Rosenstiel, 2001): (1) organizational learning is used as an analogy of individual learning, and (2) individual learning is a basis for organizational learning. The psychological approach to learning processes contributes to

enhancing the understanding of these two views. If the analogy between individual and organizational learning is accepted, the learning processes investigated in psychology can give clues about which factors might be salient in organizational learning as well. If individual learning is regarded as a basis of organizational learning, learning processes studied in psychology might indicate ways to promote organizational learning.

### **Sociology**

The contribution of sociology to workplace learning lies in its depiction of learning as a social process involving social relations. Workplace learning from a sociological perspective has highlighted how employees construct their understanding and learn through social interactions within the workplace as a specific social and cultural setting (Blaka & Filstad, 2007; Rogers, 2002). The following focuses on social context and participation.

First, the sociological approach conceptualizes the workplace as a social context for learning and assumes that workplace learning has a function in socialization. Gherardi and Nicolini (2001) provided several examples of social contexts in the workplace. In an educational context, individuals learn various skills to improve their expertise. However, in interpersonal contexts, people learn about their own affective states and those of others. This context encompasses socialization in the appropriate social relationships within a community. In this case, the organization is a social structure providing the contexts of socialization.

From the sociological perspective, workplace learning is regarded as one of the functions of the organizational system that engenders change on some occasions and conversation on others (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2001). In other words, the main function of

workplace learning is to reflect on diverse dynamics in the organization. Through workplace learning, employees can adjust to changed circumstances and develop different abilities to create new approaches in a given situation. For organizations, workplace learning plays a functional role in maintaining the advantages of organizational social systems through the operation and modification of the system.

Second, as workplace learning is a social and cultural process, it occurs through participation in activities within organizational practices, such as communities of practice (Billett, 2001; Raelin, 2000). Individual learning is combined with social learning and is a product of participation in social practices. That is, learning is the result of gaining new knowledge about a given context, person, or relationship (Davidson & James, 2007). Individuals and the work community create mutual relationships through social and cultural processes. Participation in these processes gives insight into how learning occurs and skills are developed (Blaka & Filstad, 2007).

Specifically, communities of practice support workplace learning through participation and social relations. A community of practice is defined as a group that maintains a joint enterprise through members' negotiations, establishes the mutual relationships among members, and has shared communal resources (Wenger, 2000). In a community of practice, employees find value, create knowledge, and develop mutual consensus in their interactions (Blaka & Filstad, 2007). Over time, they develop a unique perspective and common knowledge, practices, and a sense of identity. The notion of a community of practice suggests that working and learning are not distinct activities but are closely bound with each other in local practice (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2001). From this perspective, workplace learning is viewed as a process of distribution among participants.

Their collective expertise is transformed through their own actions and those of other participants.

### **Economics**

The economics perspective plays a meaningful role in strengthening the importance of workplace learning in terms of the knowledge economy and high performance work. First, a knowledge economy enhances organizations' workplace learning needs. The growth of knowledge economy causes the expansion of knowledge-based jobs. A knowledge economy is defined as having "production and services based on knowledge-intensive activities that contribute to an accelerated pace of technical and scientific advance, as well as equally rapid obsolescence; a knowledge economy heavily relies on intellectual capabilities" (Powell & Snellman, 2004, p. 201). That is, a knowledge economy can be characterized as "a high value-added economy where knowledge is a key to economic success and where skills and learning are valued and productively employed" (Ashton & Sung, 2002, p. 8).

With the impact of the new economy, information technology and technical progress have led to technology-driven change. It results in knowledge-based jobs that consequently have increased the demand for highly skilled labor. Technological change contributes more to the productivity of highly educated employees than to that of less-educated employees. Productivity gains in turn lead to an increase in the demand for highly educated employees (Powell & Snellman, 2004). Thus, most organizations decide to procure potential employees that they need or develop and improve the capabilities of current employees to adapt to economic and technical change. In the case of developing current employees, workplace learning can be an appropriate choice to provide learning

opportunities and to implement learning-related activities for employee development. In short, a knowledge economy provides the background to why workplace learning is required in organizations.

In addition, the spread of high performance work practices is a source of the growing importance of workplace learning. Organizations with high performance work practices have created opportunities for all employees to develop their skills (Ashton & Sung, 2002). The growth of these organizations has been facilitated by both the spread of the knowledge economy and the use of information technology. In high performance work practices, organizations encourage employees to maximize the improvement of the organization's performance. For employees, this means that work provides an opportunity for more involvement in the process of production and service. Employees also must acquire the social and problem-solving skills required for management, in addition to the technical skills required for their immediate work tasks (Ashton & Sung, 2002). This creates the conditions for higher levels of learning and skill formation and for learning to become a continuous process. Therefore, workplace learning has an influence on sustaining and improving high performance work practices of organizations. Table 2 displays the key characteristics of workplace learning based on the four foundations mentioned above.

Table 2

*Summary of Foundations of Workplace Learning*

Foundation	Perspectives of Workplace Learning
Education	Employees learn continuously and accomplish personal goals in the workplace.
Psychology	Employees learn through participating in learning processes and responding to the complexities of the workplace.
Sociology	Employees learn from social contexts and participation in the workplace.
Economics	Employees learn to improve their abilities in the knowledge economy and high performance work practices.

This study on workplace learning focuses on how individual perceptions of organizational and personal characteristics influence the sociological aspects of workplace learning. Although there are diverse sociological characteristics of workplace learning, this study pays attention to organizational socialization through workplace learning. According to Morton (1993), organizational socialization occurs on three levels: learning the job, learning about the work group (coworkers), and learning about the organization. That is, workplace learning is regarded as a learning process occurring when employees perform their jobs, including understanding social contexts through doing tasks, acquiring job knowledge within contexts, recognizing organizational values and structures, and establishing relationships with coworkers. This view implies that workplace learning is a process of building community in the workplace (Rylatt, 2001),

of individual growth in activities and contexts of work (Fenwick, 2001), and of organizational socialization (Rie & Wiswell, 2000).

Moreover, this sociological approach to workplace learning is consistent with one of eight conceptual orientations to individual-collective relations in learning by Fenwick (2008). In Fenwick's (2008) *Individuals in Community*, the sixth perspective is on the relationship between individual and collective learning and focuses on how individuals learn and acquire knowledge and skills through their actions within community.

In this context, learning is regarded as the effects of social, cultural, and cognitive contexts and the involvement of relational dynamics. Additionally, workplace learning plays a leading role in organizational socialization (Copeland & Wiswell, 1994). From the learning perspective, organizational socialization is viewed as a process of sharing and disseminating job knowledge, culture, norms, and procedures in organizations (Ostroff & Koslowski, 1992).

### **Factors Influencing Workplace Learning**

There are many studies that have explored factors influencing workplace learning (e.g., Berg & Chyun, 2008; Clarke, 2005; Ellinger, 2005, Sambrook, 2005). Based on the review of literature on workplace learning, the constructs of this study have contextual characteristics and personal characteristics impacting workplace learning as a socialization process. Two constructs reflecting contextual characteristics are organizational learning culture and managerial effectiveness. The other two constructs reflecting personal characteristics include goal orientation and psychological empowerment. More detailed information on these four constructs is described below.

## **Organizational Learning Culture**

Organizational learning culture has been an influential contextual factor enhancing positive outcomes in the HRD field (Egan, Yang, & Bartlett, 2004; Marsick & Watkins, 2003). Organizational learning culture is a term for learning organization that relates to organizational culture (Wang, 2005). Organizational culture refers to a complex set of shared assumptions, values, behavioral norms, and symbols that define the way in which an organization conducts its business and achieves its goal (Barney, 1986) and differentiates one group from another (Zheng, Qu, & Yang, 2009). In an organizational culture, which a learning organization possesses, learning plays a critical role in maintaining organizational functions and success (Marquardt, 2002). A learning climate and a culture in an organization influence employees' learning as employees face, work through, and resolve problems and challenges (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005). This learning culture also contributes to creating a supportive environment for desired outcomes (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). Thus, a learning organization can be defined as a place where people are continually learning to learn (Senge, 1990), an environment in which organizational learning creates a collective meaning and value (Confessore & Kops, 1998), and an organization skilled at leading behaviors to reflect new knowledge and insights (Garvin, 1993).

Watkins and Marsick (1993, 1997) suggested a framework for organizational learning culture through seven dimensions of the learning organization: continuous learning, inquiry/dialogue, team learning, embedded system, empowerment, system connection, and strategic leadership. This framework provides a theoretical base that integrates the seven dimensions based on their interdependent relationships, as well as the

primary concepts and definitions of the learning organization culture (Egan et al., 2004).

Table 3 summarizes the seven dimensions of the learning organization.

Table 3

*Characteristics of a Learning Organization (Marsick & Watkins, 2003)*

Dimension	Definition
Continuous Learning	“Learning is designed into work so that people can learn on the job; opportunities are provided for ongoing education and growth” (p.139).
Inquiry and Dialogue	“People gain productive reasoning skills to express their views and the capacity to listen and inquire into the views of others; the culture is changed to support questioning, feedback, and experimentation” (p.139).
Team Learning	“Work is designed to use groups to access different modes of thinking; groups are expected to learn together and work together; collaboration is valued by the culture and rewarded” (p.139).
Embedded System	“Both high- and low-technology systems to share learning are created and integrated with work; access is provided; systems are maintained” (p.139).
Empowerment	“People are involved in setting, owning, and implementing a joint vision; responsibility is distributed close to decision making so that people are motivated to learn toward what they are held accountable to do” (p.139).
System Connection	“People are helped to see the effect of their work on the entire enterprise; people scan the environment and use information to adjust work practices; the organization is linked to its communities” (p.139).
Strategic Leadership	“Leaders model, champion, and support learning; leadership uses learning strategically for business results” (p.139).

Research on organizational learning culture could be categorized into conceptualization and theory-building (Marsick & Watkins, 1990, 1996, 1999, 2003; Örtenblad, 2004; Sun & Scott, 2003), the relationships among organizational learning culture and specific outcomes (Bates & Khasawneh, 2005; Dirani, 2009; Egan et al., 2004; Ellinger, Ellinger, Yang, & Howton, 2003; Kontoghiorghes, Awbre, & Feurig, 2005; Song & Kolb, 2009), and validation studies on the Dimensions of the Learning Organization Questionnaire (DLOQ) (Hernandez, 2003; Song, Joo, & Chermack, 2009; Yang, Watkins, & Marsick, 2004). Examples of specific outcomes relating to organizational learning culture are adaptation to change and innovation (Kontoghiorghes et al., 2005), interpersonal trust (Song, Kim & Kolb, 2009), organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Dirani, 2009), performance (Ellinger et al., 2003), the process of knowledge conversion (Song & Kolb, 2009), and transfer of learning and turnover intention (Egan et al., 2004).

Moreover, a corporate culture conducive to learning is one of the contextual factors affecting the probability that learning will occur in organizations (Fiol & Lyles, 1985). Critical elements to create organizational cultures impacting workplace learning include access to knowledge and information for learning, opportunities to practice skills for learning, the availability of support and feedback for learning, and the availability of rewards sustaining learning within the organizational structure (Ashton, 2004a). In addition, Skule (2004) emphasized a high degree of exposure to changes and demands, managerial responsibilities, extensive professional contacts, superior feedback, and management support for learning as organizational conditions and factors promoting learning at work.

**Organizational learning culture and managerial effectiveness.** The predictors of managerial effectiveness include personality, experience, managerial capabilities (including learning behaviors and business knowledge) and managerial roles (including managing relationships, information and action) (Leslie, Dalton, Ernst, & Deal, 2002). Thus, the relationships between the organizational learning culture and managerial effectiveness can be explored in terms of managerial capabilities and roles.

One characteristic of organizational learning culture is flexible information acquisition and interpretation (Skerlavaj, Stemberger, Skrinjar, & Dimovski, 2007). This trait of organizational learning culture influences managerial capabilities and roles. For example, organizational learning culture has a positive influence on the better interpretation of information of managers and employees, as well as greater behavioral changes (Skerlavaj et al., 2007). In addition, managers with a strong organizational learning culture are more likely to share information with employees (Skerlavaj et al., 2007). In short, organizational learning culture is positively related to managers' learning behaviors and information management which are a part of managerial effectiveness (Leslie et al., 2002).

Meanwhile, managers of learning organizations reflect organizational values, through nurturing and developing the knowledge capital of the organization (Watkins & Marsick, 1996). These managers also need to facilitate employees' learning, motivate others to learn, and encourage effective communications (Ellinger, Watkins, & Bostrom, 1999). Therefore, the organizational culture and structure may affect the role of managers. In this study, managerial effectiveness refers to the degree to which a leader fulfills work

role expectations (Spreitzer, 1995). The criteria of managerial effectiveness are influenced by different organizational contexts (Hamlin, 2004):

*Hypothesis 1: Higher organizational learning culture leads to higher managerial effectiveness.*

**Organizational learning culture and psychological empowerment.** The relationships between seven dimensions of the learning organization (Watkins & Marsick, 1993, 1997) reflecting the characteristics of organizational learning culture and psychological empowerment are positively related. Learning culture factors influencing psychological empowerment include teamwork (group effectiveness, intragroup trust, mutual influence, and worth of group), leadership (leader approachability and support), organic structure, communication/network systems, and resources (access to information, sharing information) (Chiles & Zorn, 1995; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Randolph, 1995; Sparrowe, 1994; Spreitzer, 1996).

These identified antecedents of psychological empowerment are consistent with the seven dimensions of learning organization reflecting organizational learning culture. In continuous learning cultures, supervisors and employees feel comfortable providing and receiving feedback (Feldman & Ng, 2008). Consequently, employees in these feedback cultures are more motivated to seek out additional developmental opportunities (London & Smith, 1999) and mutual collaborative and participatory processes with coworkers (Zimmerman, 1995). Through experiencing these processes, employees can improve group problem-solving and decision-making skills, which may contribute to developing empowered members in organizations. This assumption between

organizational learning culture and psychological empowerment leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2: Higher organizational learning culture leads to higher psychological empowerment.*

### **Goal Orientation**

Goal orientation refers to individual goal preferences in achievement situations (Dweck, 1986; Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). In other words, goal orientation is a conceptualized framework for how individuals interpret and respond to achievement settings (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Farr, Hofmann, & Ringenbach, 1993). Goal orientation is recognized as an individual difference variable in organizational studies (Payne et al., 2007), as well as a motivational variable expected to affect the allocation of effort during learning (Fisher & Ford, 1998). Goal orientation can be categorized into learning (task or mastery) orientation and performance (ego or social) orientation (Farr et al., 1993). *Learning goal orientation* refers to a desire to develop one's competence by acquiring new knowledge and skills and mastering new situations. Those with learning orientations have adaptive response patterns, thus leading to positive outcomes. They also think that ability can be changeable and developed (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Fisher & Ford, 1998).

On the contrary, *performance goal orientation* refers to a desire to receive positive evaluations from others and to avoid unfavorable judgments about one's ability through demonstrating one's competence to others. People with performance orientation believe that ability is a fixed, uncontrollable, personal attribute, and, therefore, they can consider withdrawing from the activity if the task requires extra effort (Button et al.,

1996; Dweck, 1986). More recently, performance goal orientation has been explained as two dimensions: prove (approach) and avoid (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1994; VandeWalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001). *Prove* performance goal orientation refers to the desire to prove one's competence and to gain positive judgments from other people. *Avoid* performance goal orientation is the desire to avoid showing one's incompetence and to avoid negative evaluations from others.

Originally, goal orientation was researched by educational psychologists such as Eison (1979), Nicholls (1975), and Dweck (1975), focusing on achievement motivation in classroom settings. From the 1990s, researchers in the field of organizational psychology and management began to pay attention to the implications of goal orientation in the workplace (e.g., Button et al., 1996; Farr et al., 1993; Payne et al., 2007; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). For example, Payne and her colleagues (2007) found that goal orientation plays a significant role in human resource and organizational issues, such as recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisal, organizational change, leadership, and team building. In particular, Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) suggested that goal orientation influences how employees approach, interpret, and establish their relationships with their supervisors.

In terms of learning and performance, several researchers have focused on the relationships between goal orientation and learning-related activities in the workplace, such as learning outcomes (e.g., Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Ford, Smith, Weissbein, Gully, & Salas, 1998; Hertenstein, 2001; Kozlowski, Gully, Brown, Salas, Smith, & Nason, 2001; Martocchio & Hertenstein, 2003; Maurer, 2002; Towler & Dipboye, 2001), mentoring (e.g., Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Sosik, Godshalk, & Yammarino,

2004), and motivation (e.g., Chiaburu & Marinova, 2005; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1994).

Specifically, learning goal orientation has contributed to learning, self-efficacy, and performance in the workplace (e.g., Fisher & Ford, 1998; Kozlowski et al., 2001; Martocchio, 1994; Stevens & Gist, 1997; Winters & Latham, 1996).

**Learning goal orientation and managerial effectiveness.** Learning goal-oriented employees have a strong motivation to develop their competence (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003) and are willing to engage in challenging activities to foster learning and to improve themselves (Button et al., 1996). They recognize a manager/leader as a valuable source of work-related knowledge and experience that can help employees develop ability and self-improvement. (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). In mentoring, protégés with high level learning goal orientations viewed mentors (leaders) as role models and facilitators of competency development and managerial aspirations (Egan, 2005; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Therefore, employees with learning goal orientation will be likely to pay attention to their managers' behaviors and roles to learn how better to deal with recurring problems when performing their jobs (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). For example, managers' behaviors, such as having employees set development objectives, encouraging them to pursue developmental opportunities, and providing diagnostic feedback for improving their performance, could be recognized as supportive actions to learning goal-oriented employees (VandeWalle, 2001).

Additionally, learning goal-oriented employees will have high expectations of their leaders who are supposed to perform the roles in the workplace because these employees have a tendency to work hard (VandeWalle,

1997) and are willing to do extra tasks (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). In this context, managerial effectiveness refers to the degree to which a manager fulfills work role expectations (Spreitzer, 1995). This assumption of the connection between learning goal orientation and managers' roles leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3: Higher learning goal orientation leads to higher managerial effectiveness.*

**Learning goal orientation and psychological empowerment.** Learning goal orientation has been positively related to intrinsic motivation (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). Employees with learning goal orientation view high performance as an indicator of mastery (Dweck & Leggett, 1988) and recognize achievement settings as opportunities to develop their competence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). They also are more likely to be involved in problem solving (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998) and to exhibit higher levels of task performance (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). In addition, learning goal orientation has been positively associated with self-efficacy (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Kozlowski et al., 2001; Martocchio & Hertenstein, 2003; Phillips & Gully, 1997) and work locus of control (Button et al., 1996; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). In the same motivational context, psychological empowerment is defined as intrinsic task motivation in which individuals feel a sense of control in relation to their work, including meaning, competence (self-efficacy), self-determination, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995). This theoretical relationship between

learning goal orientation and psychological empowerment leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 4: Higher learning goal orientation leads to higher psychological empowerment.*

**Performance goal orientation and managerial effectiveness.** Performance goal-oriented employees are likely to have stronger psychological satisfaction from work experiences. They make an effort to outperform others and to demonstrate their superior abilities (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). For example, individuals with a performance goal orientation are concerned with achieving positive evaluations of their current abilities and performance from important others (Coad & Berry, 1998). Performance goal-oriented employees perceive ability to be a fixed attribute. This tendency makes them view much effort as a sign of low ability (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999). From this perspective, leaders' higher rank in the workplace means their abilities are superior to those of the subordinates (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). Consequently, employees with performance goal orientation may regard their leaders' behaviors and roles as the results of leaders' higher ability and superiority.

Performance-goal orientation may have a positive influence on the perception of managers' roles when managers provide appropriate tasks and feedback, enhancing the strengths of performance-goal orientation, considering performance goal orientation has a positive relationship with the comparison to others' goals (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999) and publicly achieved success (Ford et al., 1998). This assumption leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 5: Higher performance goal orientation leads to higher managerial effectiveness.*

**Performance goal orientation and psychological empowerment.** In contrast with learning goal orientation, performance goal orientation has been negatively associated with intrinsic motivation (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). High performance goal-oriented employees tend to show negative emotional reactions to negative performance feedback and choose lower subsequent goals (Cron, Slocum, VandeWalle, & Fu, 2005). They also are reluctant to try new approaches for fear of insufficient outcomes and consequently negative evaluations of their abilities and performance from others (Coad & Berry, 1998). Employees with performance goal orientation have fewer opportunities from leaders to engage in decision-making and have greater autonomy for carrying out their tasks due to their extrinsic work motivation (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). This finding leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 6: Higher performance goal orientation leads to lower psychological empowerment.*

### **Managerial Effectiveness**

Managerial effectiveness refers to the degree to which a manager or leader fulfills work role expectations (Spreitzer, 1995). Effectiveness is a result of the extent to which the manager's job behaviors are congruent with employees' expectations, based on role theory (Tsui, 1984). According to Katz and Kahn (1978), role theory assumes that each focal position in the organizational structure is presented with a set of role expectations.

Managers' roles in organizations are associated with their effectiveness (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1975; Tsui, 1984) because their roles are related to task behaviors (Scott, Mitchell, & Birnbaum, 1981). In addition, behavioral complexity theory emphasizes that effective managers possess an ability to deal with paradox and contradiction that occurs when they perform multiple roles simultaneously (Hart & Quinn, 1993; Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997; Hooijberg & Quinn, 1996).

Moreover, managers need to have diverse skills and abilities to improve managerial effectiveness. For example, Hellervik and Davis (1984) suggested eight major factors for successful managerial performance and effectiveness: administrative skills, leadership skills, interpersonal skills, communication skills, personal adaptability, personal motivation, occupational/technical knowledge, and cognitive skills. Therefore, managerial effectiveness includes "the ability to perform the multiple roles and behaviors that circumscribe the requisite variety implied by an organizational or environmental context" (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1996, p. 536).

In terms of managerial behavior, Mintzberg (1973) identified three categories of managers' roles affecting their effectiveness and performance: interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decision roles. Interpersonal roles are about how a manager interacts with other people, such as supporting employees' needs and maintaining relationships with diverse people and groups. Informational roles include how a manager exchanges and processes information, such as seeking to acquire information and share the information with insiders and outsiders in organizations. Decision roles involve how a manager use information in decision making, such as exploring interventions of problems, resolving conflicts, allocating resources, and negotiating with other interest groups.

Based on Mintzberg's (1973) three categories, Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1998) suggested ten roles of effective managers: figurehead, leader, liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesperson, entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator.

Meanwhile, Hamlin (2004) suggested a generic model of managerial effectiveness, based on the behavioral criteria of managerial effectiveness extracted from three previous empirical studies. This model consists of six positive criteria and five negative criteria for managerial effectiveness. In particular, six positive criteria indicating behaviors/ characteristics of effective managers and leaders are: (1) effective organization and planning/proactive management, (2) participative and supportive leadership/proactive team leadership, (3) empowerment and delegation, (4) genuine concern for people/looks after the interests and development needs of staff, (5) open and personal management approach/inclusive decision making, and (6) wide communication and consultation keep people informed.

In terms of a social approach, Cammock, Nilakant, and Dakin (1995) developed a lay model of managerial effectiveness. This model consists of two factors: the conceptual factor (the manager's role as direction setter, problem solver and decision maker) and the interpersonal factor (the manager's role as facilitator of the efforts of others). According to Cammock and his colleagues (1995), most effective managers maintain the big picture and a broad vision of the different areas of the organization, establish an appropriate balance and flexibility between all related areas, keep contact with other managers, and are concerned with the overall work effectiveness of employees. In short, a primary essence from these models of managerial effectiveness (Cammock et al, 1995; Hamlin,

2004; Quinn, 1984) is that managerial effectiveness is closely linked with complex aspects of leaders and managers' roles.

Research on managerial effectiveness has focused on clarifying predictors influencing managerial effectiveness and exploring their relationship with organizational outcomes. Alternative expressions of managerial effectiveness include managerial activities (Luthans, Welsh, & Taylor, 1988), managerial behavioral competencies (Hamlin, 2004), and managerial work (Martinko & Gardner, 1990). Examples of factors relating to managerial effectiveness include social perception (Lord, 1985), organizational tasks and requirements (Brown & Posner, 2001), self-regulation (Ashfor & Tsui, 1991), self-control process (Davis & Lutans, 1980), performance (Hart & Quinn, 1993), change (Spreitzer, de Janasz, & Quinn, 1999), and employees' creativity (Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993). For instance, Redmond et al. (1993) found that manager behaviors influence subordinate creativity, such as problem construction and feelings of self-efficacy. They noted that managers influence subordinate behaviors through role modeling, goal definition, reward allocation, and resource distribution. To facilitate the attainment of organizational goals, leaders have a direct impact on subordinate creative performance.

**Managerial effectiveness and workplace learning.** The relationships between managerial effectiveness and workplace learning can be found in terms of managers' roles for enhancing employees' learning or learning-related activities in the workplace. For example, Ellinger (2005) emphasized the roles of managers as a positive organizational contextual factor influencing employees' informal learning in the workplace. These managers and leaders' roles include: (1) creating informal learning opportunities, (2) serving as developers (coaches or mentors), (3) visibly supporting and

making space for learning, (4) encouraging risk taking, (5) instilling the importance of sharing knowledge and developing others, (6) providing positive feedback and recognition, and (7) serving as role models.

In addition, scholars have emphasized managers' responsibility and support of workplace learning (Ashton, 2004; Raelin, 2000; Savolainen, 2000; Skule, 2004).

Effective managers play a critical role in gaining and sustaining the top management support of workplace learning (Raelin, 2000) and in the promotion of learning in the workplace through supports and commitment of practical activities (Savolainen, 2000).

Eraut et al. (2002) also noted the impact of managers on learning in the workplace. A manager is the key person who establishes a learning climate in which employees seek advice and help each other learn naturally. Through coping with diverse demands from an organization and employees, managers direct, based on the goals of the work, the amount of learning, and the degree of challenge on the job. This affects employees' confidence and motivation, which ultimately influences employees' workplace learning (Eraut et al., 2002). Additionally, Eraut and his colleagues (2002) identified managers' role in workplace learning as staff developer (how managers provide feedback and conduct the appraisal), role model (how managers handle people and situations or use their expertise), and creator of a learning climate (how managers affect the climate in the workplace).

*Hypothesis 7: Higher managerial effectiveness leads to higher workplace learning.*

### **Psychological Empowerment**

Psychological empowerment focuses on how employees experience their work, based on the belief that employees have specific roles in the organization (Spreitzer,

2007). This perspective is different from management practices-centered or relational empowerment to share power and delegation of responsibility with employees at all levels through creating the conditions that enhance power in the workplace (Liden & Arad, 1996; Rudolph & Peluchette, 1993). Psychological empowerment is defined as intrinsic task motivation in which individuals feel a sense of control in relation to their work, including meaning, competence (self-efficacy), self-determination, and impact (Spreitzer, 1995, 2007). Definitions of psychological empowerment are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

*Definitions of Psychological Empowerment*

Author(s)	Definition
Conger & Kanungo (1988)	“A process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification [and removal] of conditions that foster powerlessness” (p. 474).
Spreitzer (1995)	“A motivational construct manifested in four cognitions: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact” (p. 1444).
Spreitzer (2007)	“A set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel a sense of control in relation to their work” (p. 6).
Thomas & Velthouse (1990)	“A set of cognitions or states influenced by the work environment that helps create an active-orientation to one’s job” (p.11).
Wallach & Mueller (2006)	“The extent to which individuals believe in their capacity to perform work tasks with skill, execute choices that matter, influence administrative outcomes, and derive meaning from their work” (p. 98).

In particular, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) emphasized psychological empowerment as intrinsic motivation, as illustrated in four cognitions, including impact, competence (self-efficacy), meaning, and self-determination. Based on the suggestion of Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Spreitzer (1995) analyzed these four dimensions of psychological empowerment. Table 5 summarizes the characteristics of the four dimensions that are related to each of the specified outcomes. Sometimes, one dimension has a stronger relationship to the outcomes than other dimensions. For example, meaning is more strongly related to job characteristics than competence in the service industry context (Linden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000).

Table 5

*Four Dimensions of Psychological Empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1443)*

Dimension	Description
Meaning	“The value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990); a fit between the requirements of a work role and beliefs, values, and behaviors (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980)”
Competence (self-efficacy)	“An individual's belief in one's capability to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987); agency beliefs, personal mastery, or effort-performance expectancy (Bandura, 1989)”
Self-determination	“An individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989); autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviors and processes (e.g., making decisions about work methods, pace, and effort) (Bell & Staw, 1989;”

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Spector, 1986)”

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Impact “The degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989); the converse of learned helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1985)”

---

Research on psychological empowerment has been conducted in different fields, including health (e.g., Arneson & Ekberg, 2005), nursing (e.g., Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian, & Wilk, 2001), service (e.g., Corsun & Enz, 1999), social work (e.g., Peterson & Speer, 2000), management (Siegall & Gardner, 2000), and organizational psychology (e.g., Linden et al., 2000). Except for the theory building of psychological empowerment, most studies focused on the relationships between psychological empowerment and other variables, such as interpersonal relationships (Linden et al., 2000), interpersonal trust (Moye, Henkin, & Egley, 2004), job satisfaction (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004), learning (Siu, Laschinger, & Vingilis, 2005), leadership (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003), organizational climate (Mok & Au-Yeung, 2002), organizational commitment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004), and reflection (Cyboran, 2005). Recently, research exploring the mediating effects of psychological empowerment between the organizational context and subsequent outcomes has increased (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Avolio et al., 2004; Carless, 2004; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Linden et al., 2000; Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004).

**Psychological empowerment and workplace learning.** Psychological empowerment plays an important role in recognizing influence channels in the workplace, increasing reliance on horizontal structures and peer networks, and improving attachment between employees and organizations (Kanter, 1989; Koberg et al., 1999; Pfeffer, 1994).

In addition, psychological empowerment has critical elements for workplace learning, such as awareness of sociopolitical environments, knowledge of how to acquire resources, development of skills and knowledge, and participation in important organizational tasks (Zimmerman, 1995).

Four dimensions of psychological empowerment are also related to learning-related activities in the workplace. First, meaning is closely linked with value fulfillment and satisfaction at work (Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Thus, meaning may influence engagement in a meaningful job in an organization and satisfaction with positive learning experiences on the job. Second, competence (self-efficacy) is related to intrinsic motivation (Harackiewicz, Sansone, & Manderlink, 1985). Gist and Mitchell (1992) found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance measures, such as learning and adaptability.

Third, self-determination also enhances individuals' motivation to learn and work (Locke & Schweiger, 1979). Employees with self-determination are more likely to feel capable when they take work-related actions and are able to respond to the demands of each unique situation (Linden et al., 2000). Fourth, impact is about the initiative to engage in behaviors to influence desired outcomes (Strecher, DeVellis, Becker, & Rosenstock, 1986). Individuals who believe that they can impact organizational outcomes will be more likely to try hard in their work (Ashforth, 1989). This point may imply that impact can influence learning occurring in the workplace when employees work hard.

Consequently, empowering processes are a set of experiences by which individuals: (1) learn to see a closer correspondence between their goals and how to

achieve them, gain access to and control resources, and (2) have opportunities to influence the decisions and important results (Zimmerman, 1995). Therefore, psychological empowerment may influence employees' learning in the workplace, such as how employees get/use job knowledge, the values of the organizations, and which coworkers are able to answer employees' questions correctly. This assumption leads to the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 8: Higher psychological empowerment leads to higher workplace learning.*

### **Summary**

This chapter provides an overview of key concepts and constructs in the current study through a literature review and eight hypotheses.

Workplace learning can be explained by diverse definitions, forms, characteristics, and constructs. Critical characteristics and functions of workplace learning differ according to foundational areas, such as education, psychology, sociology, and economics. The current study focuses on how individual perceptions of organizational and personal characteristics influence workplace learning as a learning process occurring when employees perform their jobs, including understanding social contexts through doing tasks, acquiring job knowledge within the contexts, recognizing organizational value and structure, and establishing relationships with coworkers.

Organizational learning culture is an extended term for a learning organization that relates to organizational culture. This culture reflects diverse dimensions of the learning organization and influences organizational structure and value, which ultimately

affects the role of leadership. In addition, organizational learning culture has been positively related to psychological empowerment.

Goal orientation is categorized into learning and performance orientations.

*Learning goal orientation* refers to a desire to develop one's competence by acquiring new knowledge and skills and mastering new situations. *Performance goal orientation* refers to a desire to receive positive evaluations from others and to avoid unfavorable judgments about one's ability through demonstrating one's competence to others. Goal orientation, as individual preferences in achievement situations, may influence managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment in the workplace.

Managerial effectiveness refers to the degree to which a manager fulfills work role expectations. Effective managers perform multiple roles and behaviors based on conflicting and diverse demands. Managerial effectiveness has a positive influence on employees' learning in the workplace through managers' learning-committed behaviors, such as creating learning opportunities, sharing knowledge, and demonstrating role models.

Psychological empowerment is intrinsic task motivation in which employees feel a sense of control in relation to their work, including meaning, competence (self-efficacy), self-determination, and impact. Psychological empowerment plays an important role in recognizing influence channels in the workplace, increasing reliance on horizontal structures and peer networks, and improving attachment between employees and organizations.

Figure 1 illustrates the hypotheses model based on the literature review.

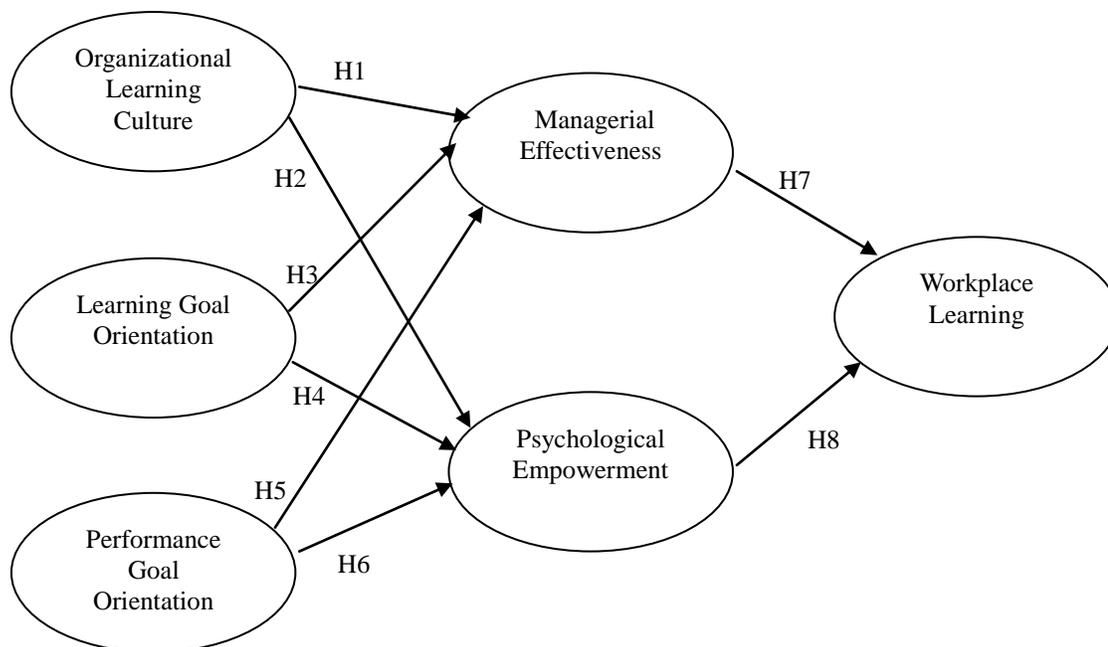


Figure 1. Hypothesized model

Eight hypotheses proposed in this study are as follows:

*Hypothesis 1: Higher organizational learning culture leads to higher managerial effectiveness.*

*Hypothesis 2: Higher organizational learning culture leads to higher psychological empowerment.*

*Hypothesis 3: Higher learning goal orientation leads to higher managerial effectiveness.*

*Hypothesis 4: Higher learning goal orientation leads to higher psychological empowerment.*

*Hypothesis 5: Higher performance goal orientation leads to managerial effectiveness.*

*Hypothesis 6: Higher performance goal orientation leads to lower psychological empowerment.*

*Hypothesis 7: Higher managerial effectiveness leads to higher workplace learning.*

*Hypothesis 8: Higher psychological empowerment leads to higher workplace learning.*

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODS**

This chapter presents the methods used in this study. The target population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis will be discussed. A survey study was conducted to explore the relationships among organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, and employees' workplace learning. Structural equation modeling (SEM), using multivariate correlational statistics, was used. The collected data was analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistical approaches.

#### **Population and Sample**

The population for this study was employees in for-profit organizations located in Korea. Temporary and new employees with less than one year work experience were excluded because they have had fewer opportunities to experience their organizational context, such as learning culture, leadership, and psychological empowerment, which are the focus of this study.

Multiple organizations contacted by the researcher were selected through convenience sampling. Convenience sampling, as the most common sampling method in quantitative studies, involves the selection of sample members based on easy availability and accessibility (Passmore & Baker, 2005). After exploring 20 organizations in Korea based on personal contacts, the final target organizations were selected. The number of organizations that participated in this study was ten.

Subjects for this study were Korean employees who: (1) were not an executive, (2) had worked at the company for more than one year, and (3) agreed to complete the

survey. After the target organizations were determined, an invitation letter and an internal announcement for research participation were distributed by the Human Resource (HR) manager of each company to all eligible employees in the company. In the last section in the survey, respondents were asked to include their demographic information, including gender, age, education, hierarchical position in the organization, and tenure in the current organization. Six hundred survey questionnaires were distributed, and 382 were collected. The final response rate was 61% (365), after 17 unusable responses (4.5%) were identified.

Table 6

*Demographic Information*

		Total		Male		Female	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Total		365	100.0	210	57.5	155	42.5
Age	Less than 29	46	12.6	8	2.2	38	10.4
	30-39	228	62.5	126	34.5	102	27.9
	40-49	85	23.3	71	19.5	14	3.8
	More than 50	6	1.6	5	1.4	1	0.2
Education	High school	19	5.2	4	1.1	15	4.1
	Two-year college	45	12.3	5	1.4	40	10.9
	Four-year college	218	59.7	147	40.2	71	19.5
	High than Master degree	83	22.7	54	14.8	29	7.9
Position	(Deputy) Senior Manager	95	26.0	83	22.7	12	3.3
	Manager/Assistant Manager	151	41.4	102	27.9	49	13.5
	Non-management Employee	119	32.6	25	6.8	94	25.8
	Job Types	Marketing/Sales	60	16.4	31	8.5	29

	IT	13	3.6	9	2.5	4	1.1
	Administration	64	17.5	56	15.3	8	2.2
	R&D	14	3.8	9	2.5	5	1.4
	Engineering	4	1.1	3	0.8	1	0.2
	Education/HRD	108	29.6	77	21.1	31	8.5
	Consulting	12	3.3	6	1.6	6	1.6
	Telemarketing	34	9.3	3	0.8	31	8.5
	Others	56	15.3	16	4.4	40	10.9
Tenure	1-2.9 years	80	21.9	40	10.9	40	10.9
	3-4.9 years	62	17.0	32	8.8	30	8.2
	5-6.9 years	48	13.2	35	9.6	13	3.6
	7-9.9 years	69	18.9	34	9.3	35	9.6
	More than 10 years	106	29.0	69	18.9	37	10.1

Demographic information on the final sample is presented in Table 6. There were slightly more male (57.5%), than females (42.5%). Most respondents were in their 30's (62.5%) and in a manager or assistant manager position (41.4%). In terms of educational level, 59.7% of the respondents had graduated from a 4 year college and 22.7% from graduate school. Responses from the department of Education/HRD formed almost 30%. The length of the employment with the current organization was distributed across the categories.

### **Instrumentation**

The instruments in this study included the Dimensions of Learning Organization Questionnaire (DLOQ) and surveys on goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, workplace learning, and demographics. The DLOQ and the goal orientation components used previously translated Korean versions. The other components were prepared for use in Korean using appropriate translation-back-

translation procedures because all items used in this study have been developed in the United States. The questionnaire used a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This instrument consisted of six parts and had 64 questions for participants.

### **Organizational Learning Culture**

To measure the organizational learning culture, seven items from the refined version of DLOQ (Yang et al., 2004) were used. Yang and his colleagues' (2004) shortened version has 21 items focusing on seven dimensions, including continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, team learning, empowerment, embedded system, system connection, and strategic leadership. Coefficient alphas for the seven dimensions with 21 items ranged from .68 to .83 (Yang et al., 2004). With regard to validity, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed that the seven factor structure fit the data reasonably well (RMSEA < .08; CFI > .90) (Ellinger, Ellinger, Yang, & Howton, 2002).

Recently, several studies have explored the validity of the DLOQ in different cultural contexts, including the United States, China, Colombia, South Korea, and Taiwan (Ellinger et al., 2002; Hernandez, 2000; Lien, Hung, Yang, & Li, 2006; Song et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2004; Zhang, Zhang, & Yang, 2004). The results of these studies have provided sufficient evidence of DLOQ as a reliable instrument to measure the dimension of learning organization culture, including internal consistency of each construct's reliability (coefficient alphas range from .71 to .91) (Song et al., 2009). Specifically, Song et al. (2009) provided evidence that the Korean version of the DLOQ is a better model fit than the versions for other countries.

This study used the seven items representing each of the seven sub-constructs because organizational learning culture is regarded as a single construct with unidimension in this study. The seven items representing each of the seven sub-constructs were those identified from the DLOQ based on the validation results of Marsick and Watkins (2003). The Korean version of the DLOQ (Lim, 2003) was used in this study. Previous studies using these seven items in Korean reported that coefficient alphas ranged from .81 to .83 (Joo, 2010; Joo & Lim, 2009; Joo & Park, 2010). A sample item is, “In my organization, people spend time building trust with each other.”

### **Goal Orientation**

To measure performance and learning goal orientations, this study will use the instrument developed and validated by Button et al (1996). They used two eight-item sets (total of 16 items) to assess two types of goal orientation. The reliabilities of performance and learning goal orientations were .73 and .79, respectively (Button et al., 1996). Based on the research finding that two dimensions (performance and learning) reveal goal orientation in the best way, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed that the two goal orientations yielded an acceptable fit ( $RMSEA=.05 < .08$ ;  $CFI=.92 > .90$ ) (Button et al., 1996).

A sample item from the performance orientation is, “I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things I do poorly.” For learning orientation, a sample item is, “I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.” The Korean version of goal orientation (Joo & Park, 2010) was used. The reliabilities of performance and learning goal orientations in the Korean version were .81 and .86, respectively (Joo & Park, 2010).

### **Managerial Effectiveness**

A managerial effectiveness instrument, developed by Denison and his colleagues (1995), was used to assess the effectiveness of managerial leaders in terms of subordinates' perspectives. Based on Quinn's (1984) model of leadership roles, effectiveness items measure performance standards, comparison to peers, performance as a role model, overall success, and effectiveness as a manager. Managerial effectiveness has five items, for which coefficient alphas in previous studies ranged from .83 to .93 (Denison et al., 1995; Spreitzer, 1995). Items in the original version were expressed in a noun phrase, such as, "meeting of managerial performance standards." This study used a paraphrased descriptive sentence, such as, "My supervisor meets managerial performance standards" for consistency with other items.

### **Psychological Empowerment**

Psychological empowerment was measured by the twelve items that Spreitzer (1995) integrated into separate scales adapted from Tymon (1988), Jones's (1986) self-efficacy scale, Hackman and Oldham's (1980) autonomy scale, and Ashforth's (1989) helplessness scale. The twelve items consist of four subscales: meaning (3 items), competence (3 items), self-determination (3 items), and impact (3 items). Coefficient alphas for the four subscales ranged from .81 to .88 (Spreitzer, 1995). The CFA showed a good fit ( $AGFI = .93 > .90$ ,  $RMSR = .04 < .05$ ,  $NCNFI = .97 > .90$ ). Sample items are: "The work I do is very important to me" (Meaning), "I am confident about my ability to do my job" (Competence), "I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my work" (Self-determination), and "I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department" (Impact). In this study, these four dimensions were used to explain the

characteristics of psychological empowerment as one construct. Thus, the four dimensions were not analyzed separately when statistical techniques were applied.

### **Workplace Learning**

The Workplace Adaptation Questionnaire (WAQ) is the instrument used to measure employees' workplace learning, developed by Morton (1993) and revised by Reio (1997). Workplace learning in this research is considered to be "a process of formally and informally communicating and transmitting an organization's technical knowledge, culture, norms, and procedures" (Reio & Wiswell, 2000, p. 9), focusing on the learning associated with the socialization process in organizations.

The original WAQ consisted of four subscales with 22 items, including job knowledge (8 items), acculturation to the organization (5 items), establishing relationships (6 items), and satisfaction with learning experiences (4 items). The first three subscales were designed to measure perceptions of workplace learning related to the socialization process. Coefficient alphas for the four subscales ranged from .82 to .96 (Reio & Callahan, 2004; Reio & Sutton, 2006; Reio & Wiswell, 2000). This study used only the 19 items of the first three subscales that assess the learning process at work, excluding satisfaction with learning experiences.

*Job knowledge* assessed the extent to which employees have mastered their job tasks. *Acculturation to the organization* measured the degree to which employees have learned the norms, values, and culture of the organization. *Establishing relationships* assessed the employees' ability to identify coworkers who could provide relevant information and who know how to get things done (Reio & Wiswell, 2000). Sample items are: "I can complete most of my tasks without assistance" (job knowledge), "I know what

is really valued in my organization to get ahead” (acculturation to the company), and “I know which of my coworkers are likely to be able to answer my questions correctly” (establishing relationships). In this study, these three dimensions were regarded as characteristics among the social aspects of workplace learning. Thus, the three dimensions were not interpreted separately when the result were analyzed.

### **Demographic Variables**

The instrument for this study included additional items to measure six demographic variables to describe the sample, including age, education, gender, hierarchical position, job type, and tenure, solely for the purpose of describing the respondents. Table 7 summarizes the information of each instrument, including the constructs, authors, number of items, and reliability coefficients from previous research.

Table 7

#### *Research Instrument Components*

Construct	Authors	Items	$\alpha$
Organizational Learning Culture	Lim (2003) (a Korean translation of 7 items selected from the 21 items of Yang et al., 2004)	7	.81 - .83
Performance and Learning Goal Orientations	Joo and Park (2010) (a Korean translation of Burton et al., 1996)	16	.81 - .86
Managerial Effectiveness	Denison et al. (1995)	5	.83 - .93
Psychological Empowerment	Spreitzer (1995)	12	.81 - .88
Workplace Learning	WAQ (Morton, 1993; Reio,1997)	19	.82 - .96
Demographic Variables		6	
Total number of Items		64	

## **Translation**

The three instruments for managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, and workplace learning were translated into Korean by the translation and back-translation procedure. This procedure was conducted as follows. First, I translated the instruments into Korean. Second, the Korean version was reviewed by one Korean professor and three Korean Ph.D. candidates in the HRD program at US universities for content/face validity. Third, the Korean version was revised based on their suggestions for improving the clarity, accuracy, and appropriateness for the Korean culture. Fourth, the revised Korean version was translated into English by one Korean professor in the US who is bilingual in English and Korean. Next, the back-translated English version was compared with the original English version. Any discrepancies were addressed and the instrument modified, as necessary to assure translation accuracy.

## **Reliability and Construct Validity**

The reliability of all instruments in this study was calculated to examine internal consistency among the items of each section of the instrument using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Table 8 presents the information of the reliability of all instruments in this study. All coefficients exceed the minimum requirement of .70 and are close to those found in previous studies.

Table 8

*Reliability of Measurement Instruments*

Question Numbers	Construct	Items	Reliability ( $\alpha$ )	
			previous studies	this study
1-7	Organizational Learning Culture	7	.81 - .83	.81
8-23	Performance and Learning Goal Orientations	16	.81 - .86	.78 - .88
24-35	Psychological Empowerment	12	.81 - .88	.81 - .91
36-40	Managerial Effectiveness	5	.83 - .93	.94
41-59	Workplace Learning	19	.82 - .96	.83 - .86

Table 9

*Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

Construct	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	NNFI	RMR	RMSEA
Organizational Learning Culture	19.996	4	5.00	.991	.986	.019	.034
Performance and Learning Goal Orientations	596.957	103	5.80	.894	.936	.059	.095
Psychological Empowerment	148.889	48	3.10	.962	.948	.037	.076
Managerial Effectiveness	23.127	5	4.63	.989	.979	.001	.060
Workplace Learning	655.558	149	4.40	.942	.918	.040	.097

*Note.* CFI = comparative fit index; NNFI=Non-Normed Fit Index; RMR = root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to estimate the validity of the constructs in the instrument, including organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, and workplace learning.

Construct validity can be accomplished by examining convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hinkin, 1995). The results of construct validity are provided in Table 9. The results indicate that all measurements have construct validity. Table 10 shows the factor loadings as a result of an overall CFA. All of the factor loadings were over .45.

Table 10

*Factor Loadings of the Overall CFA*

	Organizational Learning Culture	Performance Goal Orientations	Learning Goal Orientations	Psychological Empowerment	Managerial Effectiveness	Workplace Learning
OC1	.52					
OC2	.69					
OC3	.65					
OC4	.64					
OC5	.55					
OC6	.56					
OC7	.70					
PG1		.63				
PG2		.71				
PG3		.72				
PG4		.46				
PG5		.49				
PG7		.68				
LG1			.70			
LG2			.61			
LG3			.74			
LG4			.76			
LG5			.68			
LG6			.64			
LG7			.80			
LG8			.58			
PE1				.84		
PE2				.84		

PE3	.90		
PE4	.60		
PE5	.83		
PE6	.75		
PE7	.78		
PE8	.73		
PE9	.64		
PE10	.69		
PE11	.87		
PE12	.89		
ME1		.79	
ME2		.84	
ME3		.87	
ME4		.94	
ME5		.93	
WL1			.59
WL2			.67
WL3			.64
WL4			.73
WL5			.68
WL7			.61
WL8			.62
WL9			.72
WL10			.67
WL11			.70
WL12			.79
WL13			.74
WL14			.72
WL15			.84
WL16			.67
WL17			.78
WL18			.66
WL19			.65

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### Data Collection

The data were collected using a paper and pencil survey. As the request of the researcher, HR managers or the researcher's contact agents signed the research support consent form (Appendix B) after understanding the information about this study.

Before conducting the survey, this study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Minnesota. Based on the approval of the study by IRB

and the agreement to participate in the study from interested organizations, potential participants in each organization received the information about the researcher and the study purposes, procedures, benefits, and risks. Those who agreed to participate in the study gave their consent by completing the survey and submitting it to their HR manager.

During the process of data collection, participants' privacy and anonymity were protected. The researcher ensured that the participants' responses were anonymous. In addition, participants voluntarily responded without any pressure or financial benefits. Survey data were gathered without any personal identifiers and were stored anonymously in a file box in the researcher's place.

### **Data Analysis**

Descriptive statistics, a correlation matrix, and structural equation modeling (SEM) were used to test the proposed conceptual model and research hypotheses, as proposed in Chapter 2.

#### **Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix**

Means and standard deviations were determined for each item in the instrument. A correlation matrix was provided, and tests were run to determine if multicollinearity exists. Generally, a correlation between .20 and .35 is a weak positive relationship, a correlation between .35 and .65 is a moderate positive relationship, a correlation between .65 and .85 is a good positive relationship, and .85 and above shows a high positive relationship (Cohen & Manion, 1994).

#### **Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)**

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a multivariate statistical approach to test theories about hypothesized causal relationships among variables (Gall, Gall, & Borg,

2005) and represents a melding of factor analysis and path analysis into one comprehensive statistical methodology (Kaplan, 2008). Basically, SEM is a regression model with observed and latent variables (Lee, 2007). An observed or measured variable refers to a variable that can be observed directly and is measurable. A latent variable is variable that cannot be directly observed and is a hypothesized concept that can be inferred from observable variables (Burnette & Williams, 2005).

Generally, SEM consists of two parts: the measurement model and the structural model (Kaplan, 2008). The measurement model indicates the relation of the observed variables to the latent variables; latent variables are formed from observed variables. The structural model specifies the causal relations of the constructs to one another based on the hypotheses (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Thus, the measurement model is CFA, whereas the structural model is a multiple regression or a path analysis (Corral-Verdugo, 2002).

In the measurement model, CFA was used to estimate the convergent and discriminant validity of indicators of the six constructs: organizational learning culture, learning and performance goal orientations, managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, and workplace learning. CFA estimates the quality of the factor structure and designated factor loadings by statistically testing the fit between a proposed measurement model and the data (Byrne, 2009). In other words, CFA is used to test how well the measured variables represent a smaller number of constructs (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2005). Researchers need to assess the adequacy of measurement models with CFA before testing the structural model (Yang, 2005).

In the next step, the structural model representing the hypothesized structural relationships among latent variables were evaluated. The hypothesized model was tested through a comparison with alternative models. The best structural model was selected based on the results of the overall goodness-of-fit indices. Following Bollen's (1989) and Schumacker and Lomax's (2010) recommendation, this study will employ five goodness-of-fit indices, including chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The AMOS 18.0 program was used to conduct the SEM.

### **Summary**

This chapter describes the methods of the study, including population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. Subjects of this study were Korean employees who are not executives, have worked at the company more than one year, and agree to complete the survey.

Five components were included in the instrument. Organizational learning culture and goal orientation measures were used previously validated Korean versions. Other measures for managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, and workplace learning were translated into Korean, reviewed for face validity, and back-translated to insure accuracy of translation. The reliability and validity of all instruments were examined.

The data were collected using a self-administered paper-and-pencil survey questionnaire. For data analysis, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to

test the proposed conceptual model and research hypotheses. Additionally, descriptive statistics and a correlation matrix are provided.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis and consists of three parts: descriptive statistics of survey items and correlations among the key constructs; examination of six measurement models for validity and an overall measurement model; and, finally, the hypothesized structural model is tested and compared with two alternative models to select the best model.

#### Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

This study used 59 questions plus six demographic items. The 59 questions consist of 7 items for organizational learning culture, 8 items for performance goal orientation, 8 items for learning goal orientation, 12 items for psychological empowerment, 5 items for managerial effectiveness, and 19 items for workplace learning. Means and standard deviations are shown for each item in the questionnaire in Appendix D.

Through correlations, the relationships were examined among the main constructs. Table 11 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliabilities of the six constructs used.

Table 11

*Descriptive Statistics, Inter-correlations, and Cronbach's Alphas for the Main Constructs*

Construct	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. OC	3.60	.59	(.81)					
2. PG	3.83	.52	.28**	(.78)				
3. LG	4.10	.53	.37**	.17**	(.88)			
4. PE	3.65	.53	.41**	.23**	.43**	(.88)		
5. ME	3.50	.86	.41**	.13*	.16**	.23*	(.94)	
6. WL	3.77	.46	.50**	.30**	.38**	.59**	.39**	(.91)

*Note.*  $n=365$ . Reliability estimates are in parentheses. OC= organizational learning culture, PG=performance goal orientation, LG=learning goal orientation, PE=psychological empowerment, ME=managerial effectiveness, WL=workplace learning.  $*p < .05$ ,  $**p < .01$ .

The correlation between psychological empowerment and workplace learning was the highest ( $r = .59$ ). Performance goal orientation was positively correlated with psychological empowerment ( $r = .23$ ), although performance goal orientation was hypothesized to have a negative relationship with psychological empowerment in hypothesis 6.

### **Assessing the Measurement Models**

As a precursor to structural equation modeling (SEM), the measurement model is specified to define the relationships between the latent variables and the observed variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), measurement models were assessed to evaluate these relationships. There were six latent variables in this study: organizational learning culture (OC), performance goal orientation (PG), learning goal orientation (LG), psychological empowerment (PE), managerial effectiveness (ME), and workplace learning (WL). Six measurement models were examined through presenting factor loadings, overall model fit indices, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients.

### **Assessing Organizational Learning Culture**

The first measurement model has seven items, representing sub-dimensions of OC. Figure 2 presents the standardized estimates for the measurement model of OC.

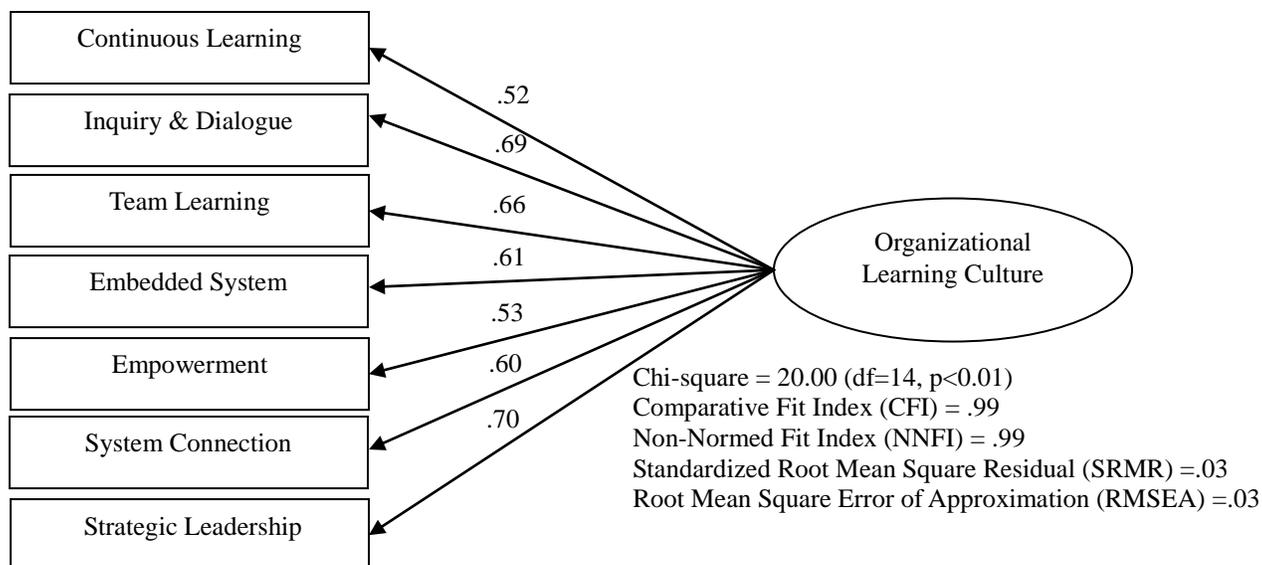


Figure 2. Measurement model of organizational learning culture

Factor loadings ranged from .52 to .70. This measurement model represents a good fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 20.00$ ;  $df = 14$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 5.00$ ;  $CFI = .99$ ;  $NNFI = .99$ ;  $SRMR = .03$ ;  $RMSEA = .03$ ). The Cronbach's alpha of the seven items was .81.

### Assessing Performance Goal Orientation

The second measurement model was for performance goal orientation, one dimension of goal orientation. Figure 3 presents the standardized estimates for the measurement model of PG with eight items. Factor loadings ranged from .38 to .69. This measurement model represents a poor fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 191.84$ ;  $df = 20$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 95.92$ ;  $CFI = .76$ ;  $NNFI = .66$ ;  $SRMR = .09$ ;  $RMSEA = .15$ ) because of the low factor loadings of PG 6 and 8. The Cronbach's alpha of the eight items was .78.

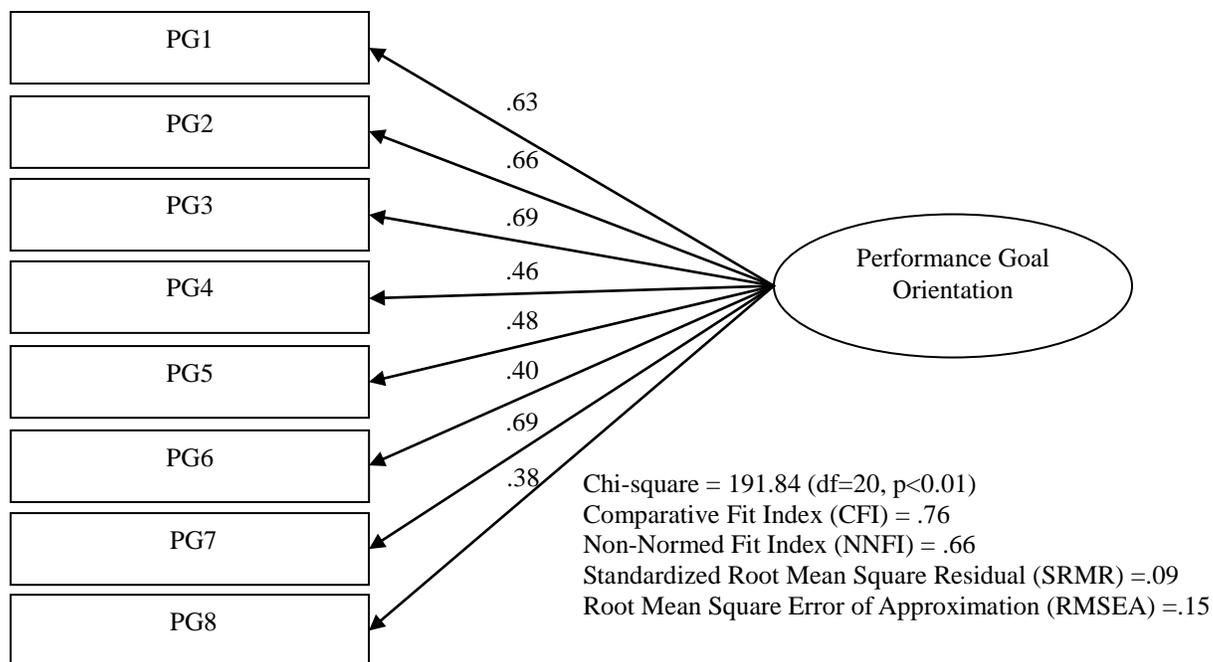


Figure 3. Measurement model of performance goal orientation

After deleting these two items (PG 6 and 8), with factor loadings less than .45, the respecified measurement model with six items in Figure 4 represents improvements in the overall fit indices ( $\chi^2 = 25.21$ ;  $df = 9$ ;  $\chi^2 / df = 2.80$ ; CFI = .97; NNFI = .94; SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .07). The Cronbach's alpha of the six items was .76.

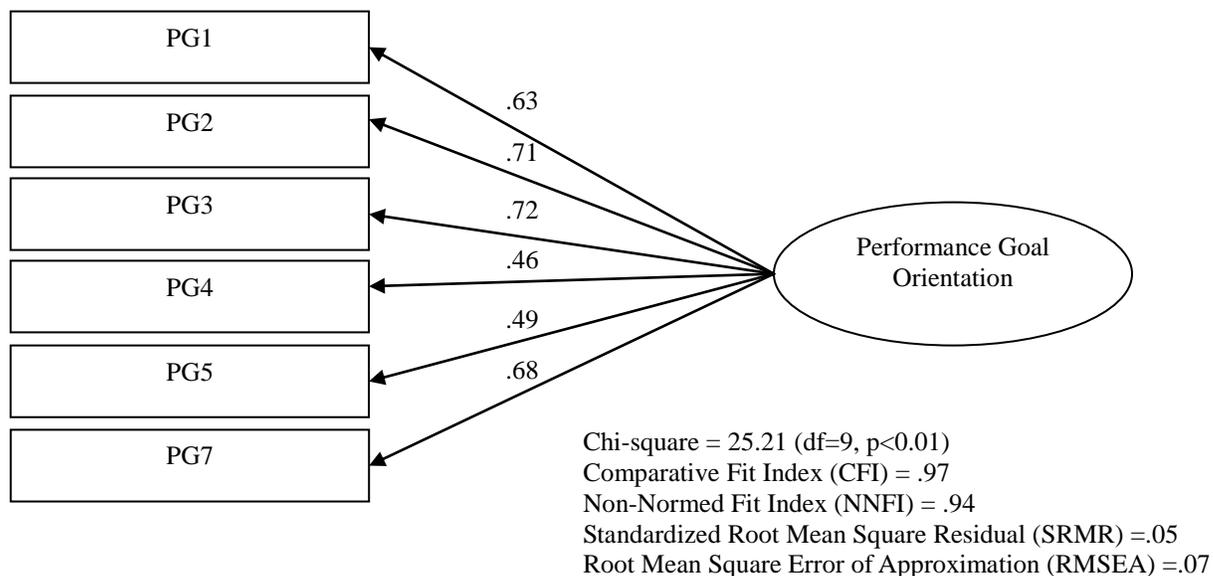


Figure 4. Respecified measurement model of performance goal orientation

### Assessing Learning Goal Orientation

The third measurement model was for learning goal orientation, another dimension of goal orientation. Figure 5 presents the standardized estimates for the measurement model of LG with eight items. Factor loadings ranged from .58 to .79. This measurement model represents an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 70.29$ ;  $df = 16$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 4.39$ ;  $CFI = .96$ ;  $NNFI = .93$ ;  $SRMR = .04$ ;  $RMSEA = .09$ ). The Cronbach's alpha of the eight items was .88.

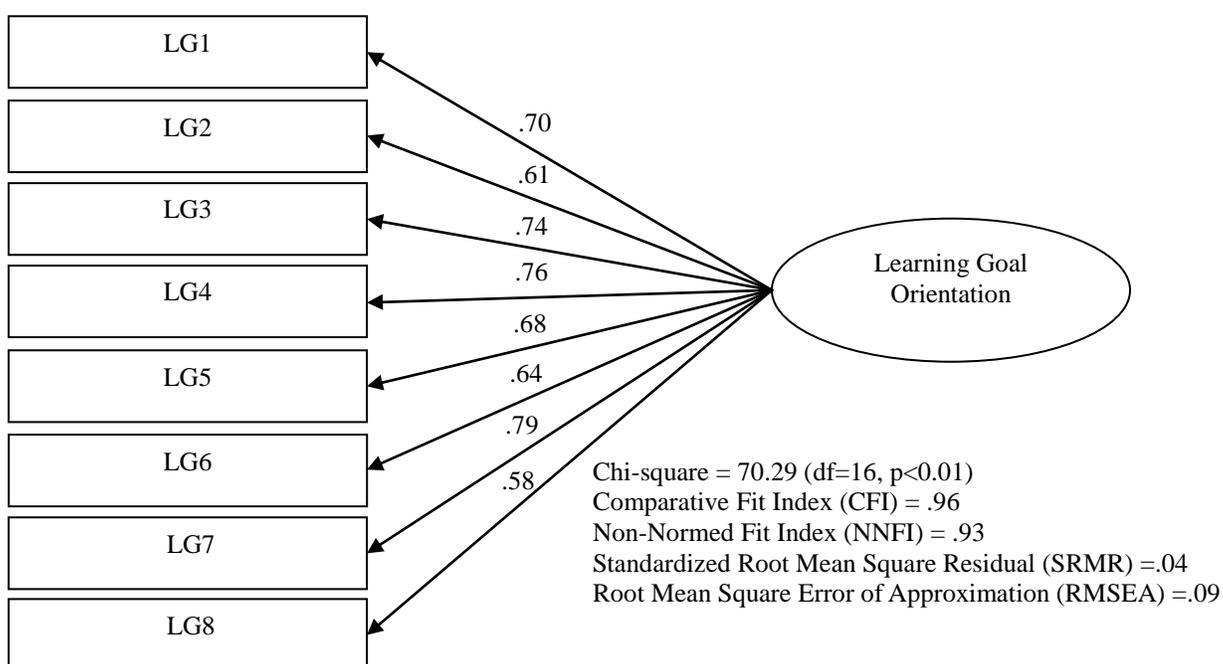
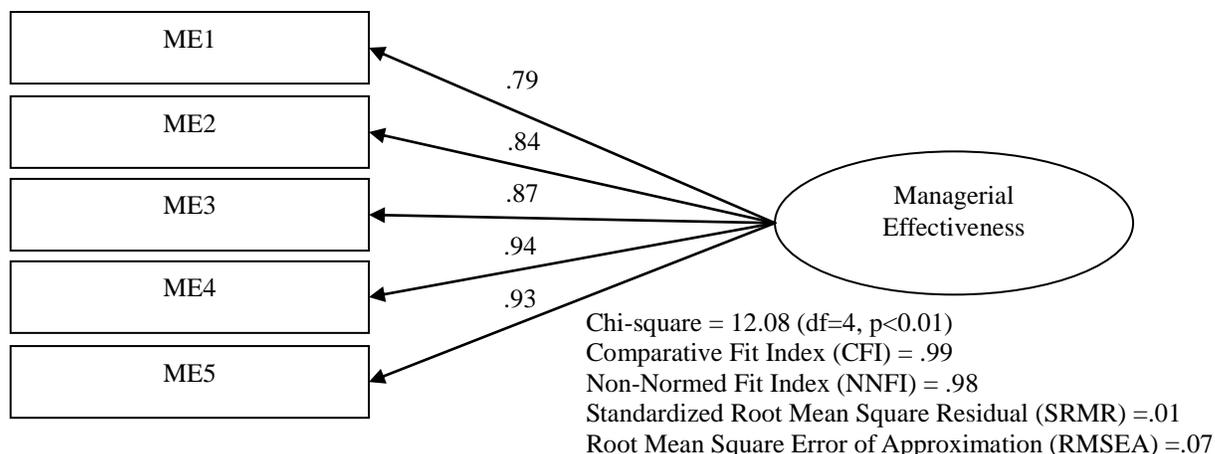


Figure 5. Measurement model of learning goal orientation

### Assessing Managerial Effectiveness

The fourth measurement model has five items of ME. Figure 6 presents the standardized estimates for the measurement model of ME. Factor loadings ranged from .79 to .94. This measurement model represents a good fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 23.13$ ;  $df = 5$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 3.02$ ;  $CFI = .99$ ;  $NNFI = .98$ ;  $SRMR = .01$ ;  $RMSEA = .07$ ). The Cronbach's alpha of the five items was .94, ensuring high internal consistency of the measure.



*Figure 6.* Measurement model of managerial effectiveness

### **Assessing Psychological Empowerment**

The fifth measurement model has 12 items of PE consisting of four sub-constructs. These sub-constructs included meaning, competence (self-efficacy), self-determination, and impact, measured by three items respectively. The Cronbach's alpha for the overall construct of PE was .88: .92 for meaning, .81 for competence, .83 for self-determination, and .89 for impact. Figure 7 presents the standardized estimates for the measurement model of PE. Factor loadings ranged from .68 to .92. This measurement model represents a good fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 148.89$ ;  $df = 48$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 3.10$ ; CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .08).

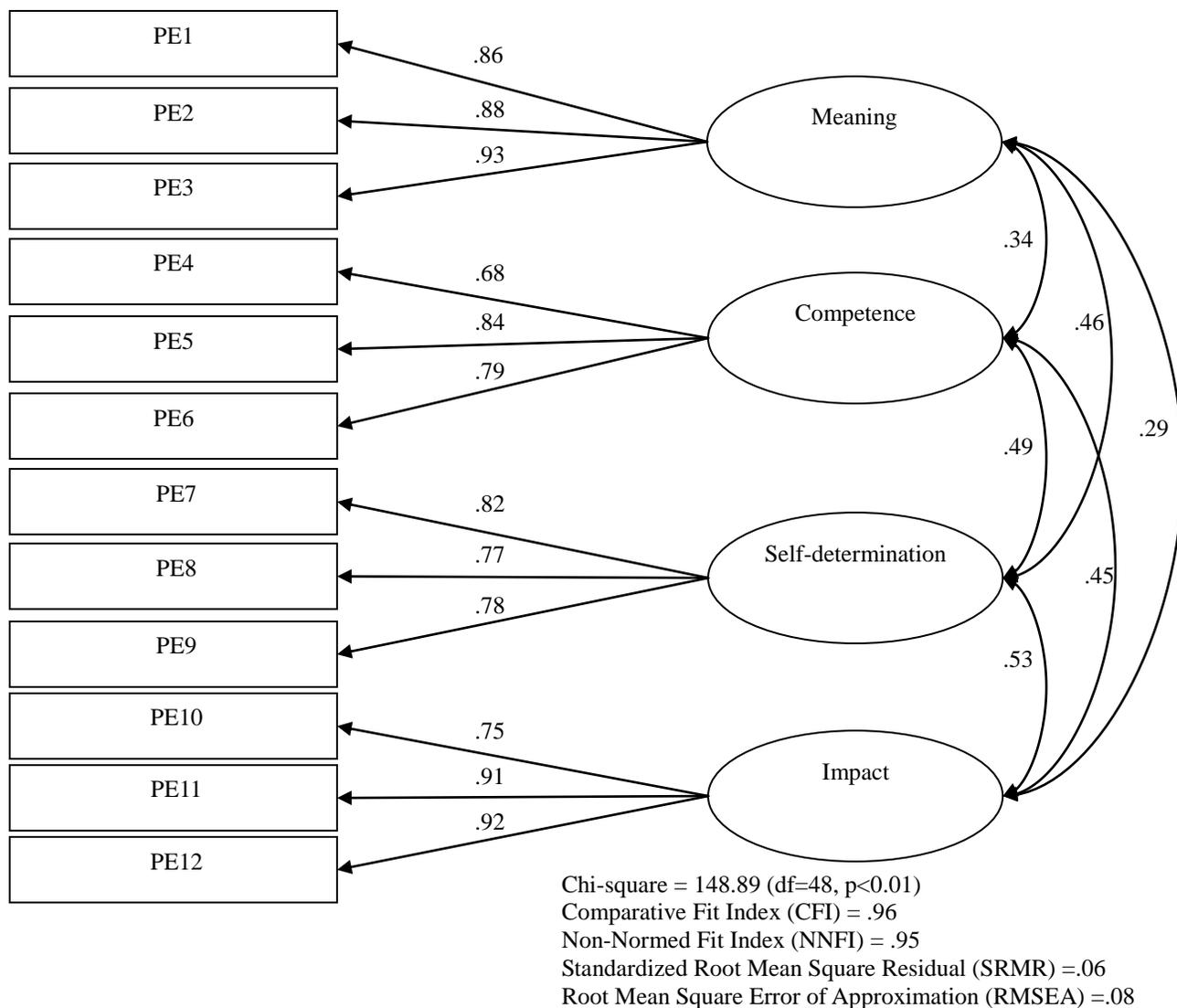


Figure 7. Measurement model of psychological empowerment

As some factor loadings of managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment were relatively high, the possibility of multicollinearity was examined. Multicollinearity can be severe if the tolerance (the proportion of variance that is not explained by other variables) values are less than .10, or if the variance inflation factor (VIF) values are higher than 10 (Kline, 2005; Lomax, 2001). Table 12 presents the collinearity diagnostics and indicates that multicollinearity did not occur in managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment.

Table 12

*Collinearity Diagnostics for Managerial Effectiveness and Psychological Empowerment*

Variable		Tolerance	VIF
Managerial Effectiveness	ME1	.351	2.845
	ME2	.297	3.365
	ME3	.255	3.916
	ME4	.153	6.548
	ME5	.171	5.833
Psychological Empowerment	Meaning	.586	1.705
	Competence	.664	1.506
	Self-determination	.623	1.605
	Impact	.705	1.418

**Assessing Workplace Learning**

The last measurement model has 19 items of WL consisting of three sub-constructs: job knowledge, acculturation to the organization, and establishing relationships, measured by 8, 5, and 6 items, respectively. The Cronbach's alpha for the overall construct of WL was .91: .83 for job knowledge, .85 for acculturation to the organization, and .86 for establishing relationships. Figure 8 presents the standardized estimates for the measurement model of WL. Factor loadings ranged from .47 to .84. This measurement model represents a good fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 417.05$ ;  $df = 140$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 2.98$ ; CFI = .91; NNFI = .89; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .07).

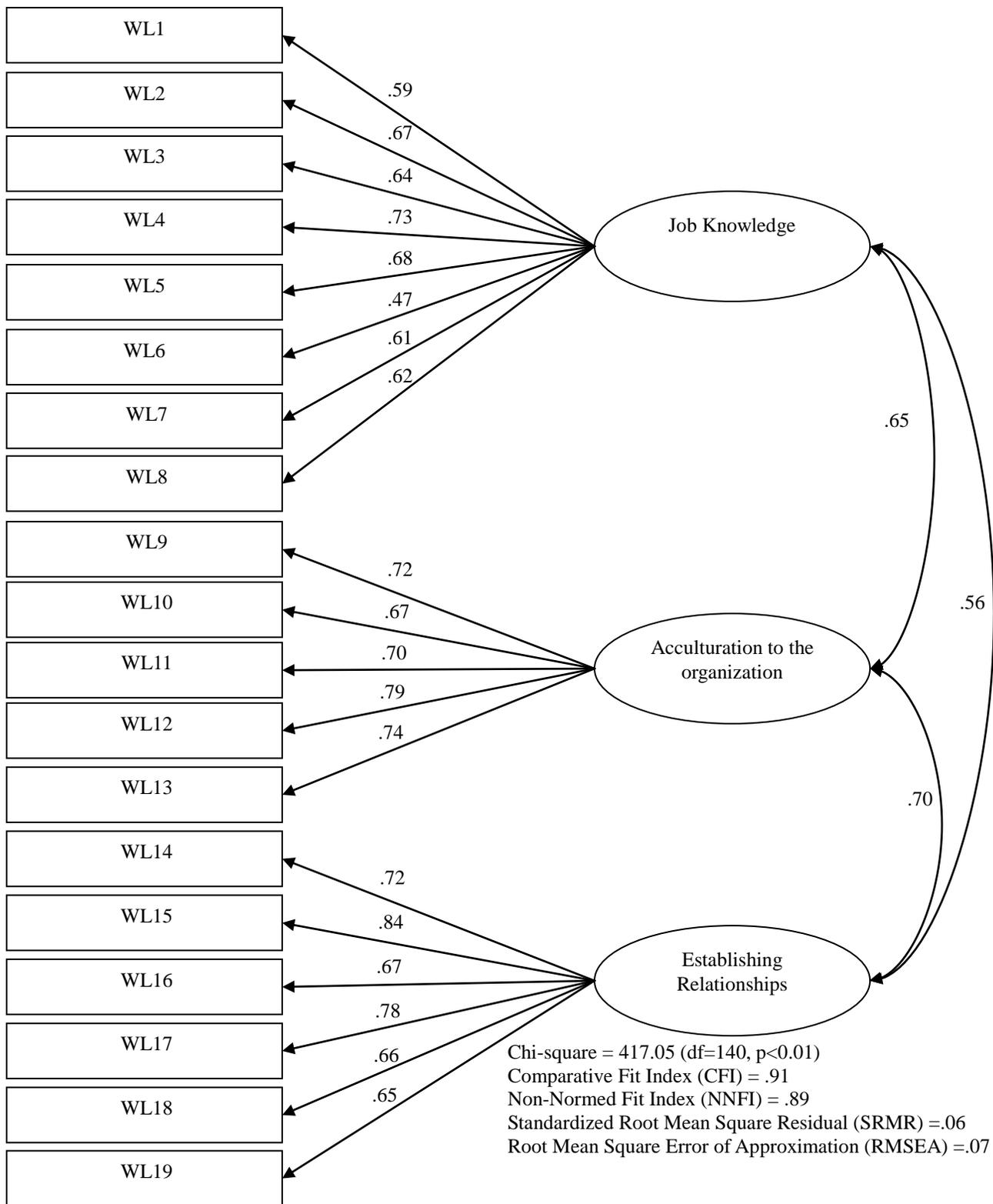


Figure 8. Measurement model of workplace learning

### **Assessing Overall Measurement Model**

The assessment of the measurement model of the six variables is presented in Figure 9. This measurement model represents an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 966.39$ ;  $df = 463$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 2.09$ ; CFI = .91; NNFI = .90; SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .06). The overall Cronbach's alpha was .83.

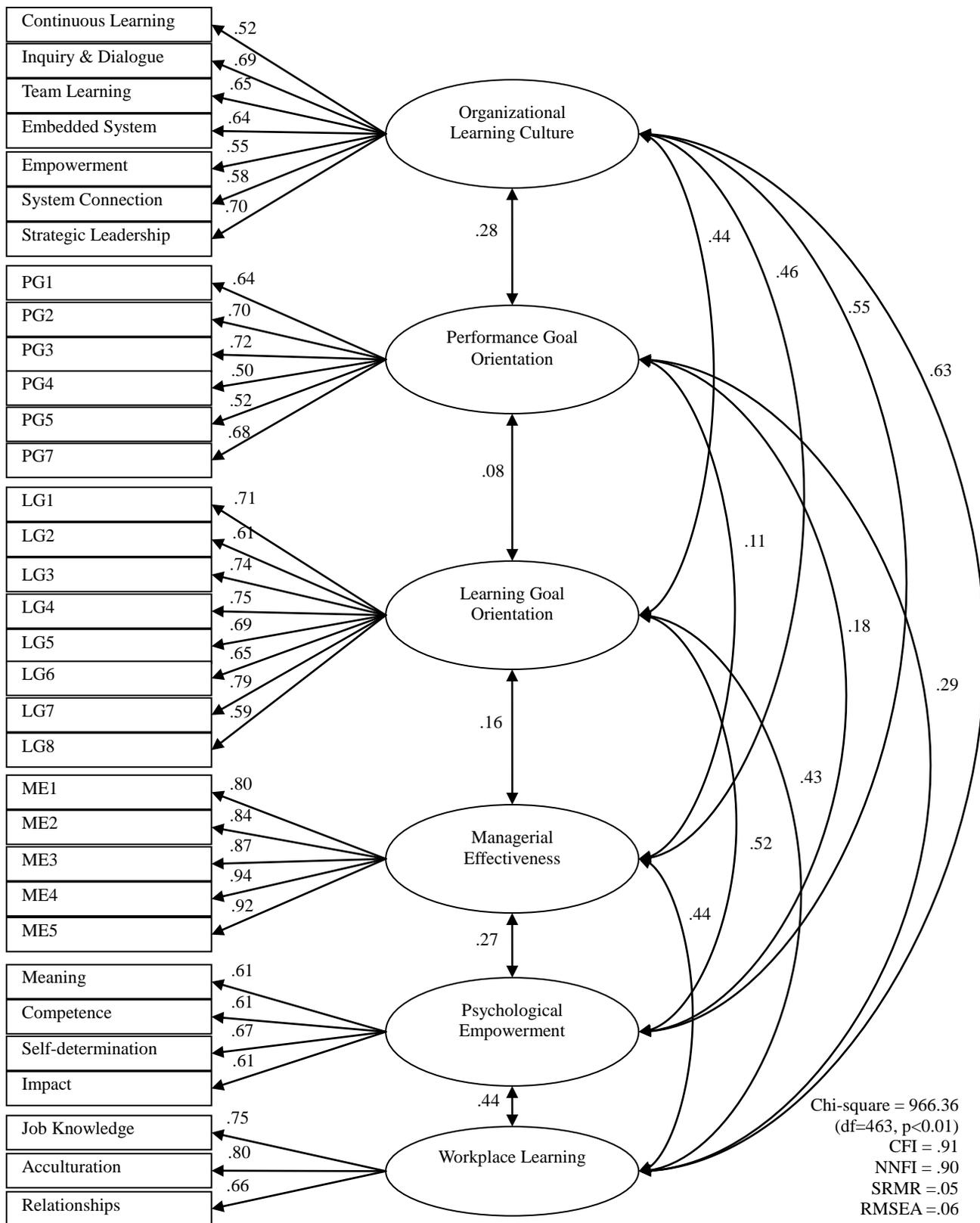


Figure 9. Overall measurement model

## Assessing Structural Models

Structural models represent the interrelationships among the six variables in this study. First, the hypothesized model suggested in chapter 2 was examined after removing two items in performance goal orientation. Second, two alternative models with added paths from the hypothesized model were investigated. Third, the final and best model was selected by comparing the hypothesized model with the alternative models.

### Hypothesized Model

This study was based on eight hypotheses that assume direct and indirect relationships between organizational/individual variables and employees' workplace learning. Figure 10 illustrates the strengths of the relationships among the constructs, showing path coefficients and overall model fit of the hypothesized structural model. The hypothesized model represents an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 940.47$ ;  $df = 443$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 2.12$ ;  $CFI = .91$ ;  $NNFI = .90$ ;  $SRMR = .08$ ;  $RMSEA = .06$ ).

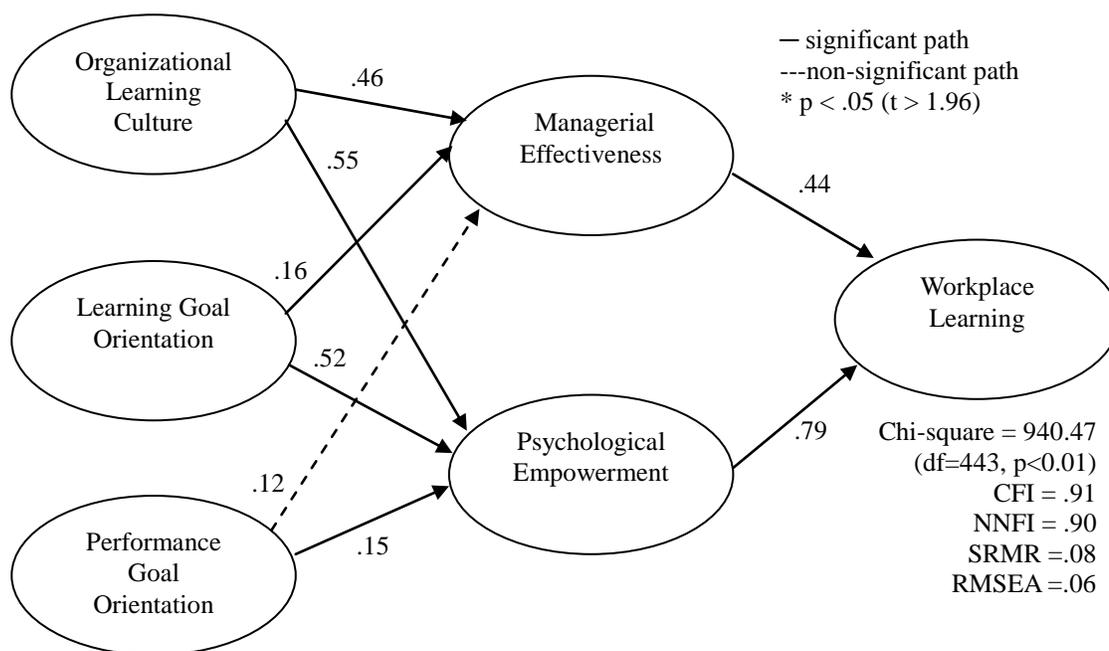


Figure 10. Hypothesized structural model

Statistically, the relationships between organizational learning culture and managerial effectiveness and between organizational learning culture and psychological empowerment were significant ( $t > 1.96$ ,  $p < .05$ ). While learning goal orientation significantly influenced managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment, the relationship between performance goal orientation and managerial effectiveness was not significant. In addition, managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment had a significant relationship with workplace learning. In terms of the squared multiple correlation (SMC), 77% of the variance in managerial effectiveness, 39% of the variance in psychological empowerment, and 55% of the variance in workplace learning were explained by this model.

### **Alternative Models**

Alternative model 1 in Figure 11 includes direct paths from organizational learning culture, and learning and performance goal orientation to workplace learning. Alternative model 1 represents an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 821.68$ ;  $df = 440$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 1.87$ ;  $CFI = .93$ ;  $NNFI = .92$ ;  $SRMR = .07$ ;  $RMSEA = .05$ ).

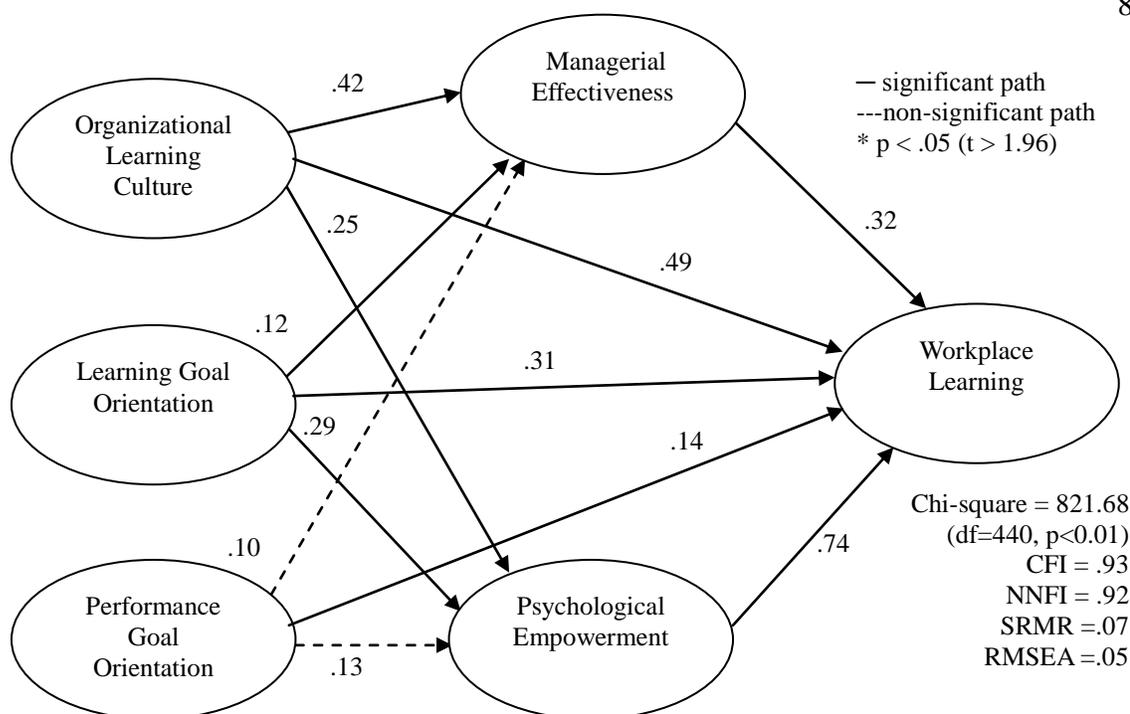


Figure 11. Alternative model 1

The relationships between performance goal orientation and managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment were not significant. Regarding the SMC in this model, 75% of the variance in managerial effectiveness, 36% of the variance in psychological empowerment, and 44% of the variance in workplace learning were explained.

Alternative model 2 added a path from managerial effectiveness to psychological empowerment. This model in Figure 12 represents an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 926.11$ ;  $df = 442$ ;  $\chi^2 / df = 2.10$ ; CFI = .92; NNFI = .90; SRMR = .08; RMSEA = .06).

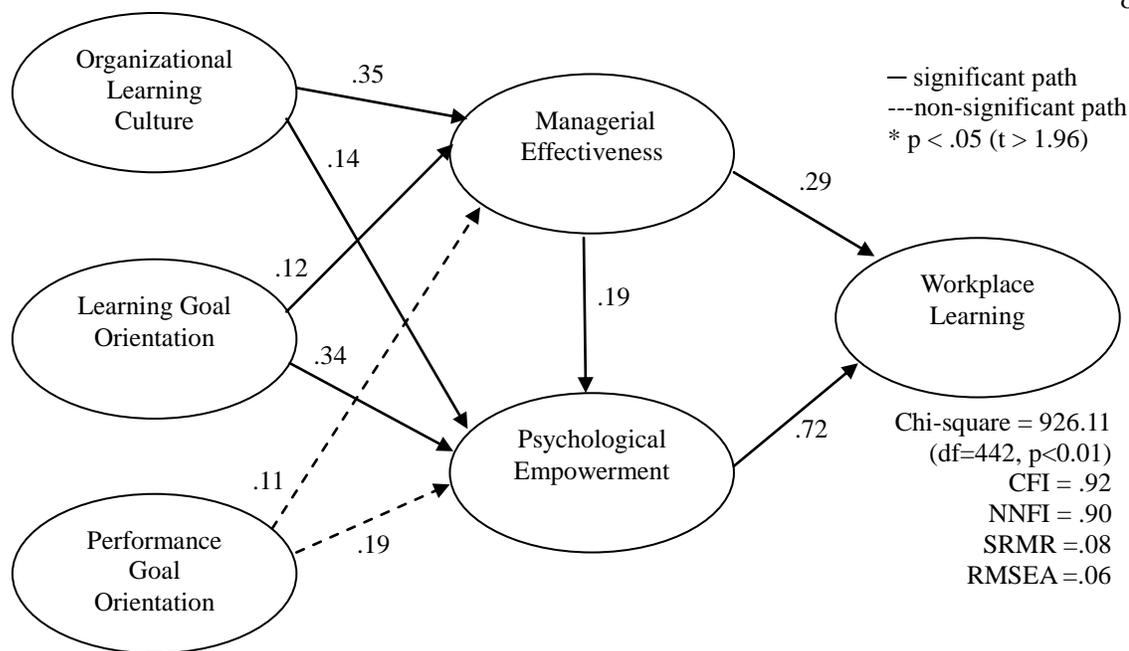


Figure 12. Alternative model 2

Like alternative model 1, the relationships between performance goal orientation and managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment in alternative model 2 were not statistically significant. In terms of the SMC, 72%, 33%, and 48% of the variances in managerial effectiveness, psychological empowerment, and workplace learning were accounted for, respectively.

### Model Comparison

To select the final model, the hypothesized model and the two alternative models were compared based on goodness-of-fit, including chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ), CFI, NNFI, SRMR, and RMSEA. Table 13 summarizes the fit indices in the three models.

Table 13

*Model Comparison*

Model	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta df$	CFI	NNFI	SRMR	RMSEA	# of Paths
Hypothesized	940.47	443			.91	.90	.08	.06	8
Alternative 1	821.68	440	118.79	3	.93	.92	.07	.05	11
Alternative 2	926.11	442	14.16	1	.92	.90	.08	.06	9

In comparing the chi-square statistics among the models, there was a large difference between the hypothesized model and alternative model 1 ( $\Delta\chi^2=118.79$ ;  $\Delta df=3$ ), with alternative model 1 showing a better fit, while the difference in the chi-square value between the hypothesized model and alternative model 2 was 14.16. In the other model fit indices, alternative model 1 indicated a better fit in overall model fit ( $\chi^2 = 821.68$ ;  $df = 440$ ;  $\chi^2 / df = 1.87$ ;  $CFI = .93$ ;  $NNFI = .92$ ;  $SRMR = .07$ ;  $RMSEA = .05$ ). Thus, alternative model 1 was selected as the final model.

**Hypothesis Testing**

Based on the results from the SEM, the eight hypotheses offered in chapter 2 were examined. These hypotheses were investigated through the path coefficients and the total effect sizes of the constructs. The higher the gamma ( $\gamma$ ), the stronger the relationship. To be statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ), the t-value should be greater than +/- 1.96. Table 14 summarizes the results of testing the hypotheses.

Table 14

*Hypothesis Testing: Effects of Path Estimates*

Hypothesis	Direct Effects	Results
H1: Organizational Culture → Managerial Effectiveness	.47 * (5.88)	Supported
H2: Organizational Culture → Psychological Empowerment	.55 * (5.63)	Supported
H3: Learning Goal Orientation → Managerial Effectiveness	.16 * (2.67)	Supported
H4: Learning Goal Orientation → Psychological Empowerment	.52 * (6.14)	Supported
H5: Performance Goal Orientation → Managerial Effectiveness	.12 (1.82)	Not Supported
H6: Performance Goal Orientation → Psychological Empowerment	.15 * (2.06)	Not Supported
H7: Managerial Effectiveness → Workplace Learning	.44 * (6.32)	Supported
H8: Psychological Empowerment → Workplace Learning	.79 * (7.60)	Supported

*Note.* \* $p < .05$  ( $t > 1.96$ ),  $t$ -values are in parentheses.

*Note.* H6 predicted negative impact, but the result was positive (.15\*).

Hypothesis 1 stated that higher organizational learning culture leads to higher managerial effectiveness. This hypothesis was supported, based on a strong path coefficient ( $\gamma = .47$ ;  $t = 5.88$ ). Hypothesis 2, which predicted that higher organizational learning culture leads to higher psychological empowerment, was supported.

Organizational learning culture had a sizable impact on psychological empowerment ( $\gamma = .55$ ,  $t = 5.63$ ). Hypothesis 3, which stated that higher learning goal orientation leads to

higher managerial effectiveness, was supported ( $\gamma = .16$ ,  $t = 2.67$ ) though the size of the relationship was small. Hypothesis 4, which predicted that learning goal orientation positively influenced psychological empowerment, was also supported ( $\gamma = .52$ ,  $t = 6.14$ ). Hypothesis 5, which predicted a positive influence of performance goal orientation on managerial effectiveness, was not supported. The influence of performance goal orientation on managerial effectiveness was non-significant ( $\gamma = .12$ ,  $t = 1.82$ ). Hypothesis 6, which stated that higher performance goal orientation leads to lower psychological empowerment, was supported ( $\gamma = .15$ ,  $t = 2.06$ ), though the relationship was small. The impact was positive, contrary to hypothesis 6 that stated a negative impact. This result is consistent with the correlation between performance goal orientation and psychological empowerment ( $r = .23$ ). Hypothesis 7, higher managerial effectiveness leads to higher workplace learning, was supported ( $\gamma = .44$ ;  $t = 6.32$ ). Hypothesis 8, stating that there would be a positive impact of psychological empowerment on workplace learning, was supported ( $\gamma = .79$ ;  $t = 7.60$ ).

### **Summary**

This chapter reports results of the data analyses. First, descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of the survey items and constructs, and correlations among the key constructs were presented. The correlation between psychological empowerment and workplace learning was the highest ( $r = .59$ ). Second, six measurement models were assessed through confirmatory factor analysis. Performance goal orientation was respecified because of the low factor loadings on PG 6 and 8. The overall measurement model represents an acceptable fit to the data.

Third, the hypothesized structural model and two alternative models were compared to select the best model to fit the data. A final model (alternative 1) was selected based on the goodness-of-fit. Finally, six of the eight hypotheses were supported. Compared with learning and performance goal orientation, organizational learning culture had more impact on managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment. Additionally, managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment positively influenced workplace learning.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of this research, discussion of the findings, theoretical and practical implications, and recommendations for future research.

#### Summary

In knowledge-based jobs and environments, workplace learning can be understood as a means for managing the relationships between organizational and individual capabilities through the connections between individual improvement and organizational purposes. In addition, workplace learning can be viewed as a way to promote workplace communication processes that emphasize the importance of social and cultural conditions specific to the work environment and the situational nature of working and learning in organizations. Studies on workplace learning have been conducted to explore diverse factors influencing workplace learning, as well as to clarify the contributions and roles of workplace learning in organizations.

#### Purpose and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of organizational learning culture, learning and performance goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment on employees' workplace learning. The main research question to guide this study was, How do organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment impact employees' workplace learning? Specific questions answered included:

1. Does organizational learning culture impact managerial effectiveness?
2. Does organizational learning culture impact psychological empowerment?

3. Does goal orientation impact managerial effectiveness?
  - 3-1. Does learning goal orientation impact managerial effectiveness?
  - 3-2. Does performance goal orientation impact managerial effectiveness?
4. Does goal orientation impact psychological empowerment?
  - 4-1. Does learning goal orientation impact psychological empowerment?
  - 4-2. Does performance goal orientation impact psychological empowerment?
5. Does managerial effectiveness impact employees' workplace learning?
6. Does psychological empowerment impact employees' workplace learning?

To investigate these research questions, eight hypotheses were proposed in this study as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Higher organizational learning culture leads to higher managerial effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2: Higher organizational learning culture leads to higher psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 3: Higher learning goal orientation leads to higher managerial effectiveness.

Hypothesis 4: Higher learning goal orientation leads to higher psychological empowerment.

Hypothesis 5: Higher performance goal orientation leads to higher managerial effectiveness.

Hypothesis 6: Higher performance goal orientation leads to lower psychological

empowerment.

Hypothesis 7: Higher managerial effectiveness leads to higher workplace learning.

Hypothesis 8: Higher psychological empowerment leads to higher workplace learning.

### **Procedures**

A paper-and-pencil-based survey questionnaire with 59 items (excluding six demographic questions) was designed and translated into Korean, with back translation. The reliability of this measurement, based on data collected, was acceptable within a range of .78 to .94. The results of confirmatory factor analysis indicated that all measurements had construct validity. One subscale, performance goal orientation, required that two items be removed. Subjects of this study were Korean employees who were not executives, had worked at the company for more than one year, and agreed to complete the survey. After approval of the study by IRB, 600 survey questionnaires were distributed to ten organizations. An invitation letter and an internal announcement for research participation were distributed by the Human Resource manager of each company to all eligible employees in the company. Of the 600 surveys distributed, 382 were collected. The final response rate was 61% (365), after 17 unusable responses (4.5%) were identified. For data analysis, correlation analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) techniques were used to test the research hypotheses.

### **Findings**

First, the correlation analyses found that all of the correlation coefficients were positive and significant. The correlation between psychological empowerment and workplace learning was the highest. Although performance goal orientation was

hypothesized to have a negative relationship with psychological empowerment in hypothesis 6, it was found that performance goal orientation was positively correlated with psychological empowerment ( $r = .23, p < .01$ ),

Second, six measurement models were assessed through confirmatory factor analysis. Performance goal orientation was respecified because of the low factor loading of PG 6 and 8. The overall measurement model represents an acceptable fit to the data ( $\chi^2 = 966.39$ ;  $df = 463$ ;  $\chi^2 / df = 2.09$ ;  $CFI = .91$ ;  $NNFI = .90$ ;  $SRMR = .05$ ;  $RMSEA = .06$ ).

Third, the hypothesized structural model and two alternative models were compared to select the best model to fit the data. A final model (alternative 1) was determined based on the goodness-of-fit ( $\chi^2 = 821.68$ ;  $df = 440$ ;  $\chi^2 / df = 1.87$ ;  $CFI = .93$ ;  $NNFI = .92$ ;  $SRMR = .07$ ;  $RMSEA = .05$ ).

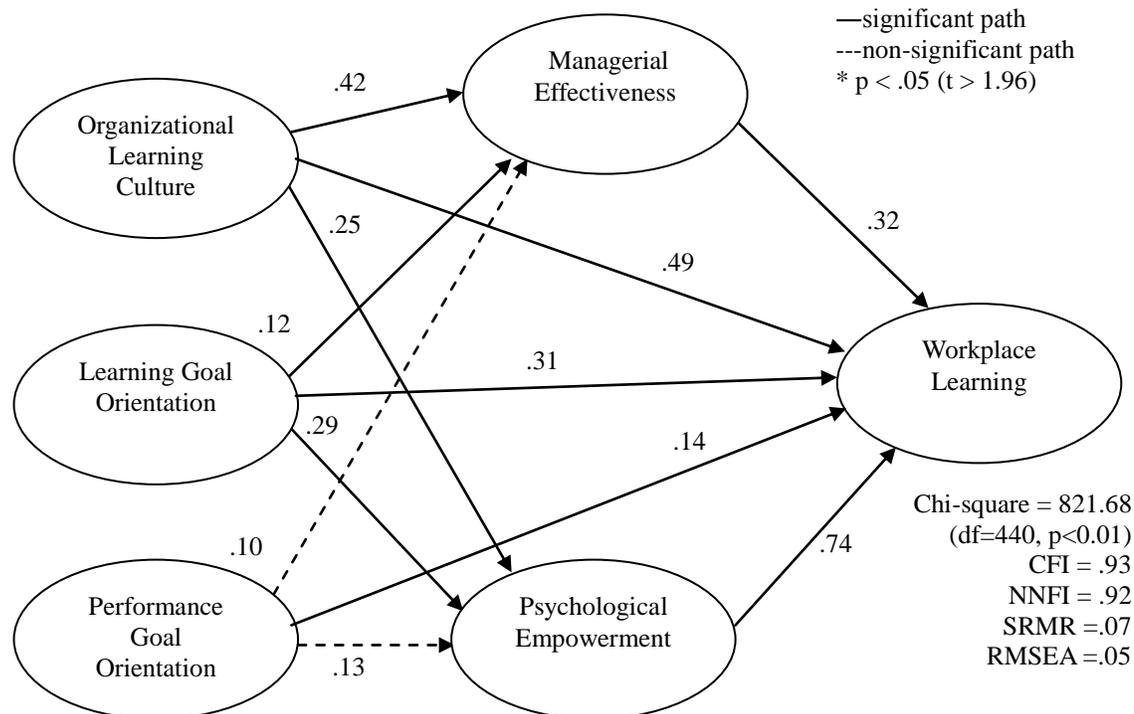


Figure 13. A final model (alternative model 1)

Finally, six of eight hypotheses were supported. Performance goal orientation was not significantly related to managerial effectiveness and was not negatively related to psychological empowerment. Compared with learning and performance goal orientation, organizational learning culture had more impact on managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment. Additionally, managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment positively influenced workplace learning.

### **Discussion**

The results of this study are discussed in terms of organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment based on the relationships with other constructs and workplace learning.

#### **Organizational Learning Culture**

In this study, organizational learning culture directly influenced managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment. This result is related to characteristics of organizational learning culture, including continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, team learning, empowerment, embedded system, system connection, and strategic leadership (Marsick & Watkins, 2003). In particular, strategic leadership as one dimension of organizational learning culture was closely related to managerial effectiveness. *Leaders model* under strategic leadership and *performance as a role model* under managerial effectiveness can be understood similarly in terms of the role expectations of managers. Consequently, a higher organizational learning culture leads to higher managerial effectiveness, such as managerial responsibilities (Skule, 2004), managerial capabilities, and roles (Leslie et al., 2002).

In addition, organizational learning culture was found to be positively related to psychological empowerment. This finding is consistent with the findings of previous studies that described organizational culture as a contextual factor influencing psychological empowerment (Chiles & Zorn, 1995; Siegall & Gardner, 2000). For instance, an organization's macro-level culture (such as communication of organizational information) affects employees' self-reported empowerment (Chiles & Zorn, 1995). Moreover, empowered characteristics of organizational learning culture (that lead employees to be involved in taking responsibility and making decisions and to be motivated to learn what they should do) (Marsick & Watkins, 2003) are closely related to psychological empowerment as intrinsic task motivation in which employees feel a sense of control in relation to their work (Spreitzer, 1995, 2007).

Alternative model 1 (final model) demonstrated that organizational learning culture had a direct influence on workplace learning. This result supports previous studies that organizational learning culture plays an important role in facilitating and enhancing workplace learning (Ashton, 2004a; Fiol & Lyles, 1985). One component of workplace learning in this study was acculturation to the organization (the degree to which employees have learned the norms, values, and culture of the organization). Organizational learning culture can encourage employees to engage in this acculturation process through inquiry, dialogue, and system connection. In addition, two dimensions of organizational learning culture, learning on the job (continuous learning) and learning/working together (team learning), were connected with acquiring job knowledge and establishing relationships with coworkers for workplace learning in this study.

## **Learning Goal Orientation**

The result of this study indicated that learning goal-oriented employees were more likely to recognize higher managerial effectiveness. Learning goal orientation is useful when employees perceive that managers provide supervisory encouragement for updating behaviors. Employees with a learning orientation need to perceive supervisory support to be motivated to learn and perform in new contexts (Potosky, 2010). They could accept performance standards and overall success criteria for work, and emulate the role model of their managers, because learning goal orientation is positively related to mutual trust and respect between employees and their supervisors (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). In addition, learning goal-oriented employees are more likely to ask supervisors for feedback about their performance when they have been performing above average (Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002).

Learning goal orientation directly influenced psychological empowerment as intrinsic motivation as hypothesized. This result is in accord with the findings of previous studies that learning goal orientation was positively related to intrinsic motivation (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003). In particular, self-efficacy, one dimension of psychological empowerment, has been positively influenced by learning goal orientation (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Martocchio & Hertenstein, 2003; Phillips & Gully, 1997; Potosky, 2010). Learning goal orientation helps maintain high levels of self-efficacy and enhances self-efficacy, given a specific context of situational demands (Payne et al., 2007).

The positive relationships between learning goal orientation and workplace learning were presented in alternative model 1. Learning goal orientation improved

openness to learning opportunities. Employees with learning goal orientation focus on new knowledge acquisition and skill development through challenging tasks and adaptive behaviors (Hirst, Van Knippenberg, & Zhou, 2009). In addition, they are engaged in knowledge creation activities and solution-oriented activities (Porter, 2005) that, consequently, are associated with job knowledge and learning experiences in the workplace.

### **Performance Goal Orientation**

In this study, performance goal orientation was not significantly related to managerial effectiveness. The positive relationship between performance goal orientation and managerial effectiveness was assumed based on the favorable perception of managers' roles when managers provide appropriate tasks and feedback, enhancing the strength of performance goal orientation. However, performance goal-oriented employees would not give importance to managers' roles, comments, and standards if managers do not contribute to their positive evaluations, publicly achieved success, good image, or performance improvement. Moreover, employees with performance goal orientation could ignore intentionally negative evaluation and feedback from managers because of their tendency to avoid unfavorable judgments (Tuckey et al., 2002).

On the other hand, performance goal orientation was positively related to psychological empowerment. This result is not consistent with the common findings in prior research that performance goal orientation has been negatively associated with intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy (Colquitt & Simmering, 1998; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Potosky, 2010). The reason for the positive relationships between performance goal orientation and psychological empowerment might be

explained by the fact that performance goal-oriented employees are more likely to demonstrate their superior abilities (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004) and to prove their competence (VandeWalle et al., 2001). These tendencies of employees with high performance goal orientation would have a positive influence on enhancing psychological empowerment, in particular, self-efficacy, which reflects employees' confidence in their own capability to perform their jobs. Another reason can be found in characteristics of the sample in this study. The rate of long-term workers employed over seven years was 47.9 % in the total sample. Their diverse experiences in work context and positive evaluation of their abilities and performance from others in the organization could play a significant role in enhancing meaning, competence, and impact of their work in terms of psychological empowerment.

The final model (alternative 1 model) in chapter 4 presented the positive relationship between performance goal orientation and workplace learning. Performance goal orientation can contribute to better performance and achievement in the learning context. For example, students with performance goal orientation were doing better than others and demonstrating their abilities and competence because they were trying to outperform others (Harackiewicz, Barron, & Elliot, 1998; Pintrich, 2000). In addition, the Korean cultural context in which most people highly preferred earning a positive reputation from others could influence the positive relationship between performance goal orientation and workplace learning. To establish or maintain good evaluations, performance-oriented employees could be concerned with performing their job tasks better and actively engaging in learning activities in the workplace.

## **Managerial Effectiveness**

The results of this study indicated that higher managerial effectiveness leads to greater workplace learning, supporting previous studies and hypothesis 7. Managerial behaviors are perceived as effective when they include encouraging employees for training, learning, and self-development; showing appreciation to subordinates who express interest in improving their work knowledge; communicating to employees all changes in policies, objectives, and rules in the organization; making them aware of how the changes affect employees; and facilitating good exchanges of updated information among teams or employees (Patal, Hamlin, & Iurac, 2010). These behaviors are closely related to workplace learning in this study, focusing on mastering job tasks and knowledge, learning organizational norms and values, and establishing relationships to get relevant information.

In addition, a relatively large portion of managers in the sample (67.4%) could have something to do with the positive relationships between managerial effectiveness and workplace learning. The correlation between managerial effectiveness and workplace learning in managers ( $r = .45, p < .01$ ) is higher than the correlation in non-management employees ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ). In particular, the correlation in managers and assistant managers ( $r = .46, p < .01$ ) is higher than the correlation in senior managers ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ). In this study, managers recognized more the influence of managerial effectiveness on workplace learning, which is consistent with previous studies emphasizing managers' responsibility and support of workplace learning (Boud & Middleton, 2003; Eraut et al., 2002; Savolainen, 2000).

Although the relationship between managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment was not hypothesized, alternative model 2 displayed managerial effectiveness as having a direct influence on psychological empowerment. This result is associated with managers and leaders playing an important role in: (1) establishing a moral value system (House, 1977), which is related to the meaning dimension of psychological empowerment; (2) enhancing employees' feelings of self-efficacy (Bass, 1990; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), which is consistent with the competence dimension of psychological empowerment; and (3) inspiring subordinates to act on personal decisions (Shamir et al., 1993), which can be matched to the self-determination dimension of psychological empowerment.

### **Psychological Empowerment**

This study found a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and workplace learning. In other words, employees who recognize the value of their work, perform tasks with confidence and autonomy and influence the process of work are more concerned with workplace learning, such as acquiring knowledge, understanding organizational norms, and establishing relationships with coworkers for resources and information. In addition, this finding supports workplace learning as being related to the process of “experiencing the meaning of the common work tasks” (Wenger, 1999, p. 5); confidence, motivation, and capability (Eraut et al., 2002); learning opportunities through a high level of work autonomy and decision-making process (Eraut, 2007); and self-efficacy that reflects motivation for development and subsequent application of learned skills on the job (Sookhai & Budworth, 2010).

Moreover, the results of the correlation and hypothesis testing present the strongest relationship found in this study to be between psychological empowerment and workplace learning. Job type could influence this relationship. For example, the correlation between psychological empowerment and workplace learning in administration ( $r = .67, p < .01$ ) is higher than the correlation in telemarketing ( $r = .35, p < .01$ ). Due to general functions of administration for all departments, employees in administration could rely more on their capabilities and autonomy to perform work activities in effective ways, so they are concerned with understanding diverse job knowledge, knowing organizational rules, and connecting to key people to get important information from multiple departments. On the other hand, employees in telemarketing could have more independence so they would focus on their own job knowledge to solve problems and issues, rather than on getting help from co-workers.

### **Implications**

Implications of this study for theory and practice in the field of HRD are discussed based on the findings.

#### **Theoretical Implications**

The theoretical contributions of this study can be summarized in terms of influential factors and social dimensions of workplace learning. First, this study attempted to clarify the relationships between diverse factors and workplace learning in the Korean context and suggested a conceptual model for these relationships. There are many studies that identified positive and negative factors influencing workplace learning (e.g., Berg & Chyung, 2008; Clarke, 2005; Ellinger, 2005; Sambrook & Stewart, 2000; Savolainen, 2000). For instance, factors enhancing workplace learning included

employees' attitudes and motivation, organizational culture and practice, managers' skills, work environment, and resource availability. However, these studies have focused on clarifying factors influencing workplace learning, rather than on explaining the degree to which factors have influenced workplace learning. Among diverse factors, this study selected organizational (organizational learning culture), managerial (managerial effectiveness), and personal (goal orientation and psychological empowerment) factors and explored how these factors impact employees' workplace learning. It was found that organizational learning culture, learning goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment positively impact workplace learning. In particular, as personal factors, learning goal orientation and psychological empowerment play an important role in enhancing workplace learning in the Korean context. This result is consistent with the finding of Choi (2009) that self-efficacy and learning goal orientation have a significant and positive impact on workplace learning of Korean managers in the banking sector.

Based on the findings and relationships among the identified constructs, this study can provide a fundamental base and additional information to establish or revise workplace learning models in the Korean context. For example, Cseh, Watkins, and Marsick (1999) reconceptualized an informal and incidental learning model in the workplace. In this model, motivational factors, such as goal orientation and psychological empowerment, could be added to explain how Korean employees understand the situation and what they have learned.

Second, this study emphasized the social aspects of workplace learning. The focus of this study was on how individual perceptions of organizational and personal

characteristics influence learning the job (mastering job knowledge), learning about coworkers (establishing relationships), and learning about the organization (acculturation to the organization) in terms of organizational socialization. In other words, this study regarded workplace learning as a social process and assumed that employees learn better when procedures, people, norms, and so on in the workplace are incorporated into the social context in which the learning takes place (Jensen, 2005). Thus, these social dimensions of workplace learning serve the personal integration in organizations and build up the sociality of individual employees in Korea.

Emphasis on employees' learning within specific social contexts would encourage researchers to pay more attention to context-relevant factors enhancing workplace learning. If one company has an organizational system that encourages employees to share their learning and to integrate learning and work, and emphasizes the role of managers to distribute useful information to employees, this context could influence the positive perceptions of employees about the learning environment. Researchers should be interested in how to use this context in order to motivate employees to engage in learning about the job, coworkers and the organization whenever the company or employees have this need. The positive impact of organizational learning culture and managerial effectiveness on workplace learning, could provide theoretical implications for workplace learning in specific social contexts. Specifically, Korean companies have emphasized a performance-oriented HRD approach and given priority more to organizational improvement and management interest than to employees' interests and development (Kim, Kwon, & Pyun, 2008).

## **Practical Implications**

The results in this study suggest several implications for Korean HRD practitioners in terms of developing HRD interventions. Above all, this study found multiple relationships between organizational, managerial, and personal factors and workplace learning. HRD practitioners could use diverse factors influencing workplace learning as interventions to solve organizational issues. For instance, HRD professionals can help employees pursue learning goal orientation when they experience and adapt to organizational changes. Employees with learning goal orientation would be motivated to learn and be able to adapt better to changing contexts. They may have more active attitudes to learn new job skills and changed organizational policies and procedures. Or they may be less reluctant to establish fresh relationships with co-workers. At this point, HRD practitioners in Korea should create a more conducive organizational climate and provide support to employees through a partnership with other departments and management. During these changes, Korean HRD professionals should help learning goal-oriented employees perceive the support (e.g., supervisory support) that fosters their efforts to learn and perform in a new organizational context. That is, Korean HRD practitioners could create appropriate environments to enhance and exhibit the preferences of learning goal orientation. In this manner, learning goal orientation, working together with organizational climate and supervisory support, can be viewed as one intervention for organizational change.

In addition, the results of this study demonstrated that managerial effectiveness and psychological empowerment in Korea have a positive influence on workplace learning. This point suggests that Korean HRD professionals should consider the roles of

managers and individual motivation for employees' learning and development.

Outstanding managers in organizations can be role models for employees who are interested in preparing for future careers and improving their performance. Through identifying the excellent points of selected managers in terms of performance and effectiveness and exploring how to sustain their excellence in given conditions, Korean HRD professionals can design and develop customized programs for employee development.

In terms of intrinsic motivation, psychological empowerment causes employees to take the initiative to influence desired outcomes and improve understanding about related issues in the community (Zimmerman, 1995). To deal with an important issue, such as organizational performance improvement, Korean HRD practitioners could provide more learning opportunities to employees to foster their motivation, confidence, and autonomy for conducting their work. Employees who are intrinsically motivated present inherent interest in their work, and they behave naturally to accomplish their work (Grant, 2008). At the same time, it is important to share with employees the belief that learning opportunities can be a vehicle for resolving both individual and organizational issues. Through diverse learning opportunities, such as new skill development programs, employees can have stronger confidence in their abilities and individual sense of control in relation to their work, which ultimately contributes to organizational performance improvement. Korean HRD professionals should understand which programs and interventions, e.g., workplace blended learning (Kim, Bonk, & Teng, 2009) and communities of practice (Chang, Chang, & Jacobs, 2009), work for leading employees to engage in continuous employee development.

### **Limitations of the Study**

There are several limitations in this study. First, the findings of this study cannot be generalized in diverse contexts. This study used convenience sampling for data collection in multiple organizations and was conducted in Korea. Moreover, 82.4% in the total sample had more than a four-year college degree. The findings may not be the same if research were to be conducted using a broader sample or randomly selected sample in different countries.

Second, the results of this study may be different according to job, organization, and employment types. In this study, employees in production and manufacturing were excluded. As the population for this study came from for-profit organizations, non-profit organizations and governmental institutions might produce different results. In addition, executives, temporary, and new employees with less than one year were excluded.

Third, the findings rely on only the responses of participants in this study. The results were analyzed based on their perceptions about the questions. The responses of participants may be influenced by individual characteristics, such as experience, knowledge, and motivation. Additionally, their responses may not be consistent with objective standards evaluating their job knowledge or understanding organizational norms or managerial effectiveness. Moreover, all instruments used in this study were originally developed in the US context. Although the translated instruments presented reasonable results of reliability and validity, there might be unobserved components influencing the findings in this study.

Finally, the social aspects of workplace learning in this study did not reflect diverse social dynamics in terms of a sociological approach. Although this study regarded

workplace learning as a social process, including learning about the job, coworkers, and the organization, other scholars may emphasize more interaction among employees, participation in collaborative projects, expansion of ideas, and power dynamics within workplace learning.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Based on this study, future research could be conducted to extend the findings and solve the limitations in this study. First, more comprehensive research, including other factors or interaction effects among related factors influencing workplace learning, could be conducted. In this study, the impact of organizational, managerial, and personal factors on employees' workplace learning was examined. The roles of organizational learning culture and managers, which reflect social and contextual characteristics in work environments, could be significant topics for workplace learning research. Although each factor described a relationship with workplace learning, interaction effects among these factors could influence workplace learning in a different way to explain new relationships. Moreover, four dimensions of psychological empowerment and three dimensions of workplace learning could be analyzed more to clarify different impact and results in a similar context with this study.

Researchers could explore other factors that were not included in this study to expand the range of this study. For example, organizational power (Koopmans, Doornbos, & Van Eekelen, 2006), use of technology (Sambrook, 2005), management value (Parding & Abrahamsson, 2010), rewards (Skule 2004), and work identity (Collin, 2009) could be included as additional factors influencing workplace learning.

Second, the different aspects and dimensions of workplace learning could be explored based on the findings of this study. Although this study focused on the social aspects of workplace learning, psychological or economics aspects of workplace learning may provide different explanations of workplace learning. For instance, research could concentrate on how employees' psychological factors contribute to dynamics in workplace learning. Researchers could explore the role of employees' dispositions in multiple workplace learning contexts and how these dispositions interact with the contexts, or explain how employees' motivation to learn transforms, or employees experience emotional changes when they apply new knowledge and skills to their job.

In addition, the economic aspects of workplace learning could be investigated in terms of goals and outcomes. Large Korean companies have focused on internal training and workplace learning to control organizational agenda, such as skill formation (Ashton, 2004b). Another possible research topic could be how workplace learning contributes to long-term productivity and innovation in order to enhance and maintain organizational competitiveness, and to survive, ultimately, the organization in the market competition.

Third, demographic differences influencing workplace learning should be examined. As already mentioned in the limitations, this study was conducted in a restricted sample and contexts. Position within the organization, the size/characteristics of the organization, and job/organization/ employment type would contribute to identifying characteristics of workplace learning in different demographic contexts. For instance, a dynamic interaction between formal and informal learning was emphasized in small businesses (Rowden, 2002), and innovation in new companies played an important role in the learning process (Fenwick, 2003).

In addition, these demographic differences could influence type of workplace learning. For example, workplace learning in health care organization facilitates related to effective problem-solving and decision-making in relation to clinical matters through reflection on practice and team activities (Clarke, 2006). This case could be quite different from the contexts of the current study. Occupations of research participants could be another factor influencing types of workplace learning. For instance, informal workplace learning activities among public school teachers include collaboration with others, sharing resources, trial and error, and reflection, while HRD practitioners preferred observing others, searching the Internet, and scanning professional magazines as informal workplace learning activities (Lohman, 2005).

Specifically, generation differences and organizational characteristics influencing workplace learning in Korean contexts should be considered. If the sample consists of much younger or older participants from those participants in this study, the results could be different. Moreover, the type of organizations, such as small-size, non-profit, governmental, and military organizations could provide different results and explanations about workplace learning and related factors.

Lastly, research on the effects of national culture on workplace learning and related factors should be conducted. High power distance in the Korean contexts has influenced relationships with supervisors and employees' motivation for working and learning (e.g., Lee, 2002; Suh, 2002). Because supervisory support in Korea could be more influential to most employees' activities, the degree to which employees have perceived managerial effectiveness could be different from employees in other countries influenced by lower power distance. In addition, national culture could impact

employees' motivational factors, such as the preferences for goal orientation and perceptions of psychological empowerment. For instance, high uncertainty avoidance culture in Korea could enhance the preference goal orientation and reduce the perception to which employees can influence work. How individual characteristics from different cultural contexts influence workplace learning could be investigated. Additionally, comparative cultural studies to compare the Korean context with other country contexts could be considered.

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APPENDIX A  
Survey Questionnaire  
(English and Korean Version)

## Workplace Learning Survey

### The Impact of Organizational Learning Cultures, Goal Orientation, Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment on Employee's Workplace Learning

Thank you for your participation. I am Sunyoung Park, a PhD candidate studying Human Resource Development at University of Minnesota. I am conducting a dissertation research on the impact on organizational and individual characteristics on employees' workplace learning.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment on employees' workplace learning. The information that you provide will be kept anonymously and confidentially and used in aggregated summaries only for research purpose.

The questionnaire should take you 10-15 minutes to complete. This questionnaire consists of six sections. There is no right or wrong answer in each question. It is very important that you respond to each and every statement. Only then I can include your opinions in the final analysis.

Please feel free contact me at [parkx347@umn.edu](mailto:parkx347@umn.edu) or at USA (000) 000-0000, if you have any questions and comments. Thank you.

Sincerely,  
Sunyoung Park  
Researcher

### I. Organizational Learning Culture

For each question, please indicate your level of agreement by checking the box that best reflects your perception of your organization.

- |  | 1 -----                  | 2 -----                  | 3 -----                  | 4 -----                  | 5                        |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|  | Strongly<br>Disagree     | Disagree                 | Neutral                  | Agree                    | Strongly<br>Agree        |
| 1. In my organization, people are rewarded for learning.   | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. In my organization, people spend time building trust with each other.   | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. In my organization, teams/groups revise their thinking as a result of group discussions or information collected. | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. My organization makes its lessons learned available to all employees.   | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. My organization recognizes people for taking initiative.  | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. My organization works together with the outside community to meet mutual needs.                                   | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. In my organization, leaders continually look for opportunities to learn.  | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|  | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### II. Goal Orientation

For each question, please indicate your level of agreement by checking the box that best reflects your perception of your organization.

- |   | 1 -----                  | 2 -----                  | 3 -----                  | 4 -----                  | 5                        |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|   | Strongly<br>Disagree     | Disagree                 | Neutral                  | Agree                    | Strongly<br>Agree        |
| 8. I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things I do poorly.                 | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. I am happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I won't make any errors. | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.                               | 1                        | 2                        | 3                        | 4                        | 5                        |
|   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

11. The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me. 1 2 3 4 5
12. I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes. 1 2 3 4 5
13. I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it. 1 2 3 4 5
14. I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past 1 2 3 4 5
15. I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people. 1 2 3 4 5
16. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me. 1 2 3 4 5
17. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things. 1 2 3 4 5
19. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me. 1 2 3 4 5
20. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task. 1 2 3 4 5
21. I try hard to improve on my past performance. 1 2 3 4 5
22. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me. 1 2 3 4 5
23. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work. 1 2 3 4 5

### III. Psychological Empowerment

For each question, please indicate your level of agreement by checking the box that best reflects your perception of your job in the organization.

	1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	
24. The work I do is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
25. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
26. The work I do is meaningful to me.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
27. I am confident about my ability to do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
28. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
29. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
30. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
31. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
32. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
33. My impact on what happens in my department is large.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
34. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				
35. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	1	2	3	4	5
	<input type="checkbox"/>				

#### IV. Managerial Effectiveness

For each question, please indicate your level of agreement by checking the box that best reflects your perception of your supervisor.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5  
 Strongly Disagree      Disagree      Neutral      Agree      Strongly Agree

36. My supervisor meets managerial performance standards. 1 2 3 4 5
37. My supervisor is a better manager than peers' managers 1 2 3 4 5
38. My supervisor is an excellent role model to me. 1 2 3 4 5
39. Overall, my supervisor is a successful manager. 1 2 3 4 5
40. Overall, my supervisor is an effective manager. 1 2 3 4 5

#### V. Workplace Learning

For each question, please indicate your level of agreement by checking the box that best reflects your perception of your learning in the workplace.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5  
 Strongly Disagree      Disagree      Neutral      Agree      Strongly Agree

41. I can complete most of my tasks without assistance. 1 2 3 4 5
42. I know how to perform my job in this organization. 1 2 3 4 5
43. I know the tasks I must perform on my job. 1 2 3 4 5
44. I can judge which projects are really important. 1 2 3 4 5

45. I know how to prioritize assignments. 1 2 3 4 5
46. Overall, I am pleased with the quality of my work performance 1 2 3 4 5
47. I know the "short cuts" I can take on my job. 1 2 3 4 5
48. I know what resources are available to help me do my job. 1 2 3 4 5
49. I know what is really valued in my organization to get ahead. 1 2 3 4 5
50. I know what the rules are for getting ahead in my organization. 1 2 3 4 5
51. I know what the reward systems are for my organization. 1 2 3 4 5
52. I know what the acceptable image is for my organization. 1 2 3 4 5
53. I know the informal rules, policies, and procedures of my organization. 1 2 3 4 5
54. I know which of my coworkers are likely to be able to answer my questions correctly 1 2 3 4 5
55. I know which of my coworkers are interested in helping me. 1 2 3 4 5
56. I know which of my coworkers are interested in mentoring me. 1 2 3 4 5
57. I know which of my coworkers to go to when I want to get something done. 1 2 3 4 5
58. I know which of my coworkers are respected around here. 1 2 3 4 5
59. I know who has the power to get things done around here. 1 2 3 4 5

<b>VI. Demographic Information</b>
------------------------------------

Following questions are to obtain demographic information about you.  
Please check the box that best describes you in each item.

60. What is your gender?

Male

Female

61. What is your age?

Under 29 years old

30 ~ 39 years old

40 ~ 49 years old

over 50 years old

62. What is your highest level of education?

High school diploma

Two-year college degree

Four-year college degree

Graduate school degree (Master, Doctor)

63. What is your management level?

Executive

Senior/Deputy Senior Manager

Manager/Assistant Manager

Non-management Employee

64. What is the type of your job in your organization?

Marketing/Sales

Information Technology/Internet

Production/Manufacturing

Administration/Management (*Planning, Finance/Accounting, Human Resource, Law/Auditing*)

Research and Development

Engineering

Education/Training

Telemarketing

Others (Please fill in: \_\_\_\_\_ )

65. How long have you worked for this organization?

1 ~ 2.9 years

3 ~ 4.9 years

5 ~ 6.9 years

7 ~ 9.9 years

Over 10years

## 업무 현장에서의 학습에 대한 연구

### Workplace Learning Survey

조직의 학습 문화, 목표 지향성, 관리적 효과성 및 심리적 임파워먼트가  
업무 현장에서의 학습에 미치는 영향  
The Impact of Organizational Learning Cultures, Goal Orientation,  
Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment  
on Employee's Workplace Learning

본 연구에 참여해 주셔서 감사합니다. 저는 미국 미네소타 대학교 (University of Minnesota) 인적자원개발 (Human Resource Development) 전공 박사과정에 있는 박선영입니다. 현재 조직적 특성과 개인적 특성이 업무 현장에서의 학습에 미치는 영향에 관한 박사 학위 논문을 준비 중에 있습니다.

이 연구는 조직의 학습문화, 목표 지향성, 관리적 효과성 및 심리적 임파워먼트가 업무 현장에서의 학습에 미치는 영향을 탐색하는 것을 목적으로 하고 있습니다. 귀하가 제공하는 정보는 연구 목적 상 취합된 형태로만 활용되며, 또한 익명으로 관리되고 비밀이 유지될 것입니다

설문서 작성에는 약 10~15분 정도 소요될 것입니다. 설문서는 6개 섹션으로 구성되어 있습니다. 각 문항마다 정답이나 오답이 있는 것은 아닙니다. 최종 분석에 귀하의 소중한 의견이 반영될 수 있도록 가능하면 모든 질문에 응답해 주시기 바랍니다.

질문이나 의견이 있으시면, 연구자에게 이메일([parkx347@umn.edu](mailto:parkx347@umn.edu)) 이나 핸드폰(미국 000-000-0000)로 연락해 주시기 바랍니다. 감사합니다.

**I. 조직의 학습문화 (Organizational Learning Culture)**

귀하가 속한 조직의 학습문화에 대한 귀하의 생각을 가장 잘 반영하는 것을 선택해 주십시오.

- |   | 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5   |
|---|---|
|   | 전혀<br>그렇지 않다      그렇지<br>않다      중립이다      그렇다      매우 그렇다  |
| 1. 나의 조직에서는 학습에 대해 보상받는다.                                 | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. 나의 조직에서는 사람들이 서로 간의 신뢰 구축을 위해 시간을 투자한다.                | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. 나의 조직에서는 부서/팀이 집단 토론이나 수집된 정보의 결과에 따라 의견이나 결정사항을 수정한다. | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. 나의 조직에서는 학습을 통해 얻은 교훈을 모든 직원들이 활용할 수 있도록 한다.           | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. 나의 조직에서는 주도성과 추진력이 있는 사람이 누구인지 알고 인정해 준다.              | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. 나의 조직에서는 상호 필요에 따라 외부 커뮤니티(공중)와 협력한다.                  | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. 나의 조직에서는 리더들이 지속적으로 학습 기회를 찾는다.                        | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |

**II. 목표지향성 (Goal Orientation)**

귀하의 직무 수행에 관한 질문입니다. 귀하의 생각을 가장 잘 반영하는 것을 선택해 주십시오.

- |  | 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5   |
|--|---|
|  | 전혀<br>그렇지 않다      그렇지<br>않다      중립이다      그렇다      매우 그렇다  |
| 8. 나는 내가 잘 못하는 것들보다 내가 잘하는 것들을 하기를 좋아한다. | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. 나는 내가 실수하지 않을 그런 업무를 수행할 때 행복하다.      | 1 2 3 4 5<br><input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |

10. 내가 가장 즐기는 일은 내가 가장 잘하는 일이다.      1 2 3 4 5
11. 내가 어떤 일을 얼마나 잘하는지에 대한 다른 사람들의 의견은 나에게 중요하다.      1 2 3 4 5
12. 어떤 일을 실수 없이 할 때 나는 스스로 똑똑하다고 생각한다.      1 2 3 4 5
13. 내가 어떤 일을 하기 전에 내가 그 일을 성공적으로 할 수 있음을 확신하기를 바란다.      1 2 3 4 5
14. 나는 이전에 내가 잘했던 그런 일을 하고 싶다.      1 2 3 4 5
15. 나는 내가 대부분의 다른 사람들보다 무언가를 잘할 때 똑똑하다고 느낀다.      1 2 3 4 5
16. 도전적인 업무를 할 수 있는 기회는 내게 중요하다.      1 2 3 4 5
17. 내가 힘든 과업을 완수하지 못하는 경우, 다음 번에는 더 잘 하려고 할 것이다.      1 2 3 4 5
18. 나는 새로운 것을 배울 수 있게 하는 과업을 수행하기를 더 좋아한다.      1 2 3 4 5
19. 나에게 새로운 것을 배우는 기회는 중요하다.      1 2 3 4 5
20. 나는 어려운 과업을 수행할 때 최선의 노력을 기울인다.      1 2 3 4 5
21. 나는 과거에 비해 성과를 향상시키기 위해 열심히 노력한다.      1 2 3 4 5
22. 내 능력범위를 확장시키는 기회는 나에게 중요하다.      1 2 3 4 5
23. 나는 문제해결에 어려움을 느끼면 어떤 해법이 가능한지 보기 위해 다른 접근 방법으로 시도해보는 것을 좋아한다.      1 2 3 4 5

### III. 직무에 대한 인식 (Psychological Empowerment)

현재의 직무에 대해 귀하가 느끼고 있는 것을 가장 잘 반영하는 것을 선택해 주십시오.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

전혀                  그렇지                  중립이다                  그렇다                  매우 그렇다  
 그렇지 않다                  않다

- 24. 내가 하는 일은 나에게 매우 중요하다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 25. 나의 직무를 위해 하는 활동은 개인적으로 내게 의미있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 26. 내가 하는 일은 내게 의미있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 27. 나는 일에 대한 나의 능력에 대해 자신하고 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 28. 나는 내 업무를 수행하기 위한 능력이 충분히 있다고 스스로 인정한다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 29. 나는 내 업무에 필요한 기능(skills)을 모두 갖추고 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 30. 나는 업무수행 방법을 결정할 수 있는 충분한 자율성을 가지고 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 31. 나는 나의 일을 어떤 식으로 수행할지 스스로 결정할 수 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 32. 나는 내 업무에 있어서 상당한 수준의 독립성과 자유를 가지고 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 33. 우리 팀(부서)에서 내가 차지하는 영향력은 큰 편이다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 34. 나는 우리 팀(부서)에서 일어나는 일들을 통제할 수 있는 권한을 많이 가지고 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5
- 35. 나는 우리 팀(부서)에서 수행되는 일들에 대해 상당한 영향력을 가지고 있다.                  1   2   3   4   5

**IV. 관리적 효과성 (Managerial Effectiveness)**

귀하가 인식하고 있는 상사에 관한 질문입니다.  
 이에 대한 귀하의 느낌을 가장 잘 나타내고 있는 것을 선택해 주십시오

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

전혀                  그렇지                  중립이다                  그렇다                  매우 그렇다  
 그렇지 않다                  않다

- 36. 나의 상사는 일반적으로 요구되는 기준 이상의 성과를 낸다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 37. 나의 상사는 다른 관리자에 비해 좋은 관리자라고 말할 수 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 38. 나의 상사는 나에게 좋은 롤모델(role model)이 된다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 39. 전반적으로 나의 상사는 성공적인 관리자라고 할 수 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 40. 전반적으로 나의 상사는 효과적인 관리자라고 할 수 있다. 1 2 3 4 5

**V. 업무 환경내에서의 학습 (Workplace Learning)**

현재의 조직에서 귀하가 느끼고 있는 것을 가장 잘 반영하는 곳을 선택해 주십시오.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5  
 전혀                  그렇지                  중립이다                  그렇다                  매우 그렇다  
 그렇지 않다                  않다

- 41. 나는 외부의 도움없이 내가 맡은 대부분의 일을 끝낼 수 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 42. 나는 우리 조직에서 내가 맡은 일을 어떻게 해야 하는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 43. 나는 내 업무에서 반드시 수행해야 할 과업을 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 44. 나는 어떤 프로젝트가 정말 중요한지 판단할 수 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 45. 나는 여러가지 과업 중 어떻게 우선순위를 매겨야 하는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 46. 전반적으로 나의 업무 성과 수준은 만족할만 하다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 47. 나는 내 업무를 빨리 끝낼 수 있는 (쉽게 할 수 있는) 방법을 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 48. 나는 나의 업무를 수행하는데 도움이 되는 자원들이 무엇인지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5

- 49. 나는 우리 조직이 발전하기 위해 가장 가치를 두고 있는 것이 무엇인지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 50. 나는 우리 조직에서 성장하기 위해 필요한 룰이 무엇인지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 51. 나는 우리 조직을 위한 보상제도가 무엇인지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 52. 나는 우리 조직이 구현하고자 하는 이미지가 무엇인지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 53. 나는 우리 조직의 비공식적인 룰, 정책, 절차 등에 대해 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 54. 나는 어떤 동료가 내 질문에 대해 정확하게 대답해 줄 수 있는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 55. 나는 어떤 동료가 나를 돕고 싶어 하는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 56. 나는 어떤 동료가 나에게 조언을 주고 싶어 하는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 57. 나는 어떤 일을 하기 위해 내 주변 동료 중 누구를 찾아가야 할지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 58. 나는 내 주변 동료 중 누가 존경을 받고 있는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5
- 59. 나는 내 주위에서 업무를 완수하는데 필요한 권력을 누가 가지고 있는지 알고 있다. 1 2 3 4 5

**VI. 개인 인적사항 (Demographic Information)**

다음은 귀하의 인적 사항에 대한 질문들입니다. 응답 내용에 대해서는 익명성과 비밀이 유지되며, 취합된 결과만 활용될 것입니다. 해당 사항을 선택해 주십시오.

60. 귀하의 성별은 무엇입니까?

- 남성                       여성

61. 귀하의 연령은 다음 중 어디에 해당합니까?

- 29세 이하                       30 ~ 39세  
 40 ~ 49 세                       50세 이상



APPENDIX B

Research Support Consent Form

(English and Korean Version)

## Research Support Consent Form

### **The Impact of Organizational Learning Cultures, Goal Orientation, Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment on Employees' Workplace Learning**

I am a Ph. D. candidate majoring in Human Resource Development (HRD) at the University of Minnesota. I am conducting a study on "The Impact of Organizational Learning Cultures, Goal Orientation, Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment on Employees' Workplace Learning" for my dissertation.

You are being asked to support this study in terms of recruiting on-line survey participants among those who have worked at your company for at least one year.

#### **Background Information**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of organizational learning culture, goal orientation, managerial effectiveness, and psychological empowerment on employees' workplace learning. The main research question to guide this study is, "How do organizational learning culture, goal orientation, psychological empowerment, and managerial effectiveness impact employees' workplace learning?"

#### **Procedures**

If you agree to support this study, I would ask you to help with the followings:

1. Advertise this study to possible participants through sending invitation letters
2. Remind on-line survey participants to complete the survey after two weeks.

#### **Ethical Concerns: Voluntary Nature and Confidentiality**

Participation of your company and your employees is voluntary. All data will be treated as anonymous and private. Your company's and your employees' decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota or your employers. Any participants are free to withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

#### **Contacts and Questions**

The researcher conducting this study is Sunyoung Park. If any participants have questions, you can contact me as follows:

##### **South Korea**

- Address: #222, 4 tong 2 ban, Yeomgok-dong, Seocho-gu, Seoul, Korea (137-170)
- Phone Number: (Home) 00-000-0000 (Cellular) 000-0000-0000
- Email Address: [parkx347@umn.edu](mailto:parkx347@umn.edu)

##### **United States of America**

- Address: 1219 Gibbs Avenue, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA
- Phone Number: (Cellular) 000-000-0000
- Email Address: [parkx347@umn.edu](mailto:parkx347@umn.edu)

Or you may contact my advisor, Dr. Gary N. McLean at 000-000-0000, [mclea002@umn.edu](mailto:mclea002@umn.edu) or 330 Wulling Hall 86 Pleasant Street SE, Minneapolis, MN 55455, USA.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher or the advisor, **you are encouraged** to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455 USA; (612) 625-1650.

*You may keep a copy of this form for your records.*

### **Statement of Consent**

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I give my consent for participation in this study.

Company: \_\_\_\_\_

Department: \_\_\_\_\_

Title: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## 연구 지원 동의서 (Research Support Consent Form)

조직의 학습 문화, 목표 지향성, 관리적 효과성 및 심리적 임파워먼트가  
업무 현장에서의 학습에 미치는 영향

### (The Impact of Organizational Learning Cultures, Goal Orientation, Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment on Employees' Workplace Learning)

저는 미국 미네소타대학교에서 인적자원개발 (Human Resource Development)을 전공하고 있으며 현재 박사학위 논문을 진행하고 있습니다. 본 논문은 “조직의 학습 문화, 목표 지향성, 관리적 효과성 및 심리적 임파워먼트가 업무 현장에서의 학습에 미치는 영향”에 관해 연구하게 됩니다.

저는 귀사가 본 연구의 설문조사를 협조해 줄 것을 부탁드립니다.  
본 연구의 참가 대상자들은 최소 1년 이상 귀사에서 근무해온 종업원들입니다.

#### 연구 배경에 관한 정보 (Background Information)

본 연구의 목적은 조직의 학습 문화, 목표 지향성, 관리적 효과성 및 심리적 임파워먼트가 업무 현장에서의 학습에 미치는 영향을 검증해 보는 것입니다. 이 연구에서의 핵심 연구 문제는 “조직의 학습 문화, 목표 지향성, 관리적 효과성 및 심리적 임파워먼트가 업무 현장에서의 학습에 어떻게 영향을 미치는가”입니다.

#### 연구 지원 절차 (Procedures)

본 연구의 원활한 진행을 위하여 다음 사항에 대한 지원을 부탁드립니다.

1. 본 연구의 참가 대상자들 전원에게 인터넷 설문 참여를 요청하는 이메일을 전달해 주십시오.
2. 인터넷 설문 시작 2주 후, 추가적인 독려 메일을 참가 대상자들 전원에게 전달해 주십시오.

#### 윤리적 고려 (Ethical Concerns)

귀사와 그 종업원들이 본 연구에 자발적으로 참여하도록 되어 있습니다. 모든 자료들은 익명으로 사용되게 됩니다. 귀사나 종업원들의 참가 결정은 미네소타 대학이나 현재 고용주와의 관계에 어떠한 영향도 미치지 않을 것입니다. 참여를 결정한 후라도 연구 참가자들은 언제든지 도중에 참여를 그만 둘 수 있습니다.

#### 연락처와 문의사항 (Contacts and Questions)

본 연구의 연구자는 박선영입니다. 귀하께서는 아래의 전화번호나 이메일 주소를 통하여 연구자와 연락하실 수 있습니다

**한국**

- 주소: 서울시 서초구 염곡동 222번지 4 통 2반 (137-170)
- 전화번호: (집) 00-000-0000 (핸드폰) 000-0000-0000
- 이메일: [parkx347@umn.edu](mailto:parkx347@umn.edu)

**미국**

- 주소: 1219 Gibbs Avenue, St. Paul, MN 55108, USA
- 전화번호: (핸드폰) 000-000-0000
- 이메일: [parkx347@umn.edu](mailto:parkx347@umn.edu)

본 연구자의 지도교수인 Gary N. McLean 박사에게도 직접 연락할 수 있습니다.

- 주소: 330 Wulling Hall 86 Pleasant Street SE, Minneapolis, MN 55455, USA.
- 전화번호: 미국 000-000-0000
- 이메일: [mclea002@umn.edu](mailto:mclea002@umn.edu)

기타 다른 문의사항이 있어서 연구자나 연구자의 지도교수 이외의 다른 분과의 연락이 필요한 경우, 아래의 연락처를 통해 연락을 취하실 수 있습니다.

- 수신자: Research Subjects' Advocate Line
- 주소: D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455, USA
- 전화번호: 미국 (612) 625-1650.

귀하께서는 필요하시다면 이 동의서를 보관하고 계셔도 좋을 것입니다.

**연구 지원 동의 서약 (Statement of Consent)**

저는 위 내용을 모두 읽었으며, 본 연구의 배경과 그 필요성을 이해하였습니다. 따라서 본 연구의 원활한 진행을 위하여 필요한 홍보와 추천, 선발 등의 연구 지원 절차들에 적극 협조할 것을 약속합니다.

회사명: \_\_\_\_\_

부서: \_\_\_\_\_

직위: \_\_\_\_\_

성명: \_\_\_\_\_

서명: \_\_\_\_\_ 날짜: \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX C

IRB Approval Letter

The IRB: Human Subjects Committee determined that the referenced study is exempt from review under federal guidelines 45 CFR Part 46.101(b) category #2 SURVEYS/INTERVIEWS; STANDARDIZED EDUCATIONAL TESTS; OBSERVATION OF PUBLIC BEHAVIOR.

Study Number: 1005E82472

Principal Investigator: Sunyoung Park

Title(s):

The Impact of Organizational Learning Culture, Goal Orientation, Managerial Effectiveness, and Psychological Empowerment on Employees' Workplace Learning

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The IRB wishes you success with this research.

## APPENDIX D

### Descriptive Statistics for Survey Items

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation
Organizational Learning Culture (OC)	3.59	.59
Q1	3.44	.96
Q2	3.51	.89
Q3	3.76	.80
Q4	3.47	.88
Q5	3.74	.73
Q6	3.66	.87
Q7	3.58	.89
Performance Goal Orientation (PG)	3.83	.52
Q8	4.14	.83
Q9	3.70	.96
Q10	3.82	.92
Q11	3.94	.72
Q12	3.59	.78
Q13	4.12	.64
Q14	3.61	.91
Q15	3.75	.81
Learning Goal Orientation (LG)	4.10	.53
Q16	3.96	.81
Q17	4.19	.67
Q18	3.93	.79
Q19	4.22	.73
Q20	4.15	.70
Q21	4.06	.71
Q22	4.30	.66
Q23	3.97	.71
Psychological Empowerment (PE)	3.65	.53
Q24	4.15	.75
Q25	4.05	.80
Q26	4.10	.77
Meaning	4.10	.72
Q27	3.76	.72
Q28	3.61	.75
Q29	3.59	.78
Competence	3.65	.64
Q30	3.71	.77
Q31	3.80	.76
Q32	3.59	.86
Self-determination	3.70	.69
Q33	3.31	.86

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Q34	2.98	.98
Q35	3.11	.95
Impact	3.13	.84
Managerial Effectiveness (ME)	3.50	.86
Q36	3.50	.88
Q37	3.65	.96
Q38	3.32	1.03
Q39	3.51	.95
Q40	3.49	.97
Workplace Learning (WL)	3.77	.46
Q41	3.67	.73
Q42	3.94	.59
Q43	4.14	.60
Q44	3.96	.66
Q45	3.98	.65
Q46	3.51	.75
Q47	3.79	.69
Q48	3.63	.78
Job Knowledge	3.83	.46
Q49	3.68	.78
Q50	3.60	.78
Q51	3.65	.81
Q52	3.78	.85
Q53	3.44	.96
Acculturation to the Organization	3.63	.66
Q54	3.78	.81
Q55	3.89	.74
Q56	3.64	.86
Q57	3.87	.65
Q58	3.75	.77
Q59	3.88	.78
Establishing Relationships	3.80	.59

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APPENDIX E

Factor Loadings of All Items

	Organizational Learning Culture	Performance Goal Orientations	Learning Goal Orientations	Psychological Empowerment	Managerial Effectiveness	Workplace Learning
OC1	.52					
OC2	.69					
OC3	.65					
OC4	.64					
OC5	.55					
OC6	.56					
OC7	.70					
PG1		.63				
PG2		.66				
PG3		.69				
PG4		.46				
PG5		.48				
PG6		.40				
PG7		.69				
PG8		.38				
rPG1		.63				
rPG2		.71				
rPG3		.72				
rPG4		.46				
rPG5		.49				
rPG7		.68				
LG1			.70			
LG2			.61			
LG3			.74			
LG4			.76			
LG5			.68			
LG6			.64			
LG7			.80			
LG8			.58			
PE1				.84		
PE2				.84		
PE3				.90		
PE4				.60		
PE5				.83		
PE6				.75		
PE7				.78		
PE8				.73		
PE9				.64		
PE10				.69		
PE11				.87		
PE12				.89		

		172
ME1	.79	
ME2	.84	
ME3	.87	
ME4	.94	
ME5		.93
WL1		.59
WL2		.67
WL3		.64
WL4		.73
WL5		.68
WL7		.61
WL8		.62
WL9		.72
WL10		.67
WL11		.70
WL12		.79
WL13		.74
WL14		.72
WL15		.84
WL16		.67
WL17		.78
WL18		.66
WL19		.65

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