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IF AT FIRST YOU DON'T TRY, DON'T EXPECT OTHERS TO HELP YOU

SUCCEED: HOW EFFORT AND EXCUSES INFLUENCE REACTIONS TO

POORLY PERFORMING TEAMMATES

A DISSERTATION

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A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

BY

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Abstract

This lab experiment using psychology undergraduate students as participants investigated how the timing of low effort behaviors and excuses influence the attributions, emotions, and behavioral intentions a teammate makes towards a poor performer. Whereas most research has focused on internal causes of poor performance, this study empirically examined how teammates respond when an external cause of poor performance, task difficulty, exists. The temporal nature of the effort construct was also tested to see how two different reasons for reducing effort, low motivation and helplessness, influence teammate reactions. Results revealed the importance of displaying effort, even when faced with a seemingly impossible task. Effort directly influenced attributions, emotions, and behavioral intentions with teammates reacting more favorably when poor performers displayed adequate effort rather than low effort. The timing of low effort also mattered with teammates reacting more negatively to poor performers demonstrating low motivation, who always displayed low effort, compared to helpless poor performers, who reduced effort only when the difficulty of the task was realized. Excuses reduced negative teammate reactions. Practical and theoretical implications are discussed in terms of the importance of psychological safety and prosocial behaviors to team-based work environments.

Introduction

We have all been there, tasked with a difficult, seemingly impossible assignment pondering how to proceed. Although conventional wisdom tells us "if at first you don't succeed, try, try again," reality often seems to suggest any effort is hopeless and conceding is the only sensible option (Palmer, 1840, p. 223). Although the decision to display effort may not improve our own poor performance in this difficult situation, it may influence how others respond. Specifically, in today's complex and dynamic work environment, individual work is frequently replaced by project teams (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001), and the poor performance of one member can lead to diverse reactions from others, ranging from helping to admonishing behaviors (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggar & Neubert, 2004, 2008). Whereas admonishing behaviors could be detrimental to the team in the long-term, prosocial behaviors toward poor performers can not only facilitate positive interpersonal relationships important for effective teamwork (Conway, Rogelberg, & Pitts, 2009; Mossholder, Richardson, & Settoon, 2011) but can also improve performance and productivity (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), making it a desirable behavior in organizations (Borman, 2004; Stone-Romero, Alvarez, & Thompson, 2009). Therefore, a better understanding of why teammates react differently towards poor performers can prove beneficial, highlighting ways to increase the likelihood of more prosocial behaviors from others.

Accordingly, the broad objective of this study was to better understand how others react to a poor performer experiencing a difficult situation. To investigate this issue, an attributions-emotions framework was employed (LePine & Van Dyne, 2001;

Weiner, 1985). Whereas previous research has demonstrated how a poor performer's internal characteristics (i. e., ability, effort) affect another teammate's attributions, emotions, and ultimately behavior towards a poor performer (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggar & Neubert, 2004; 2008), this study extends the literature by examining effects in a context that centers around an external cause of poor performance, task difficulty. The need to examine how others respond to a poor performer experiencing situational constraints is critical given that external obstacles are common causes of poor performance in organizations (McCarthy, 1978) but are difficult to detect (Ross, 1977). Additionally, the frequent failure to recognize external causes of another's poor performance can lead to teammates responding with harsh disciplinary actions and failing to remove these external obstacles (Bernardin, Hagan, Kane, & Villanova, 1998; Jones & Nisbett, 1972; Liden et al. 1999; Martinko & Gardner, 1987; Mitchell & Wood, 1980). By better understanding how teammates respond to poor performers in difficult situations, interventions can be utilized to increase the likelihood of the prosocial reactions necessary for facilitating effective team interactions and performance (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

The specific purpose of this study was to examine how the instability of a poor performer's effort during a difficult performance situation influences others' reactions. Whereas past research has typically treated effort as a static construct (Harkrider & Day, 2011; Jackson & LePine, 2003), Mohammed, Hamilton, and Lim (2009) recognize that all human actions occur in time, advocating for more research addressing the temporal nature of constructs. Because individuals can display low effort for a variety of reasons (e.g., low motivation, social loafing, helplessness), the expression of low effort behaviors

may change throughout a team assignment, depending on the reason for withdrawing effort. Thus, the relationships between poor performance and teammate reactions may differ depending on the reason, and therefore the timing, of the low effort behaviors. As such, the present investigation addresses the dynamic nature of the effort construct by testing whether the timing of a poor performer's low effort behaviors influences teammates' reactions.

This investigation has important implications for both those faced with difficult situations as well as teams. With regard to individuals, this study provides insight into when continuing to "try, try again" is most beneficial (Palmer, 1840, p. 223). Because most individuals will experience seemingly impossible tasks throughout their careers, guidance for how to best navigate these situations to increase the chances of sympathetic emotions and cooperative behaviors from teammates is helpful. Additionally, individuals may have little control over the difficult situations but can control their own effort, offering a potential solution for reducing negative consequences for poor performance in these situations.

Besides individual implications, these findings may also provide insightful information for potential team interventions to increase the likelihood of prosocial reactions towards poorly performing teammates. For example, if continuous effort is important, teams that create psychologically safe environments in which failure is viewed as a valuable learning experience rather than an interpersonal threat may help encourage effort despite individuals recognizing they will likely not reach high levels of effectiveness (Cannon & Edmondson, 2001; Edmondson & Roloff, 2009). Because of the benefits gained from developing a better understanding of teammates' reactions to poor

performers as well as the needs to address external causes of poor performance and the temporal nature of constructs, the present investigation was guided by the attributions-emotions-behavioral intentions model shown in Figure 1.

Differing Reasons to Not Try, Try Again

According to Heider (1958), people act as "naïve" psychologists, searching for causes to explain why the behavior of another occurred. These causal explanations, or attributions, can differ along dimensions such as (a) locus, distinguishing between internal attributions caused by personal factors and external attributions caused by situational factors, and (b) controllability (Burger & Forsyth, 1998; Martinko, Douglas, & Harvey, 2006). To explain how these attribution dimensions ultimately affect the actor's behavior, Weiner (1985) hypothesized a motivational model, suggesting an event happens followed by the observer's search for a causal explanation, which in turn affects emotions and ultimately behaviors (Weiner, 1980). Because past research has found the locus and controllability dimensions are better predictors of emotion and helping behavior than other dimensions (e.g., stability), only these two dimensions were examined in the present study (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggar & Neubert, 2004).

Considering that people make attributions when there is an important, unexpected, or negative outcome and that these attributions influence emotions and behaviors (Weiner, 1985), attribution theory provides a useful framework for understanding why teammates respond differently to poorly performing teammates, offering help to some and admonishing others. For example, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) used this framework to suggest a poor performer's individual characteristics would affect teammates' attributions for another's poor performance and in turn affect their emotions and

behaviors towards that poor performer. Jackson and LePine (2003) found support for this model by having undergraduates read vignettes which described a poor performer lacking either ability or motivation. When poor performance was described as lack of ability, participants attributed the cause as low in controllability, felt sympathetic, and were more likely to compensate and help the poor performer. When low motivation caused the poor performance, participants attributed the behavior as highly controllable, felt little sympathy, and were more likely to reject the poor performer. Subsequent studies showed similar results when participants watched videos of poor performers or actually experienced poor performers in classroom groups (Taggar & Neubert, 2004, 2008).

Whereas most research has compared the effects of different internal causes of a teammate's poor performance without consideration of situational factors (e.g., Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggar & Neubert, 2004), Harkrider and Day (2011) examined how an internal cause, *amount of effort*, influenced teammates' reactions in the face of a difficult, if not impossible situation with and without the presence of information regarding the situation's difficulty. Results revealed the importance of displaying effort, with lower effort leading to increased internal and controllable attributions, anger emotions, and admonishing behavioral intentions from teammates despite an external cause of poor performance also existing (Gilbert & Malone, 1995; Jones & Nisbett, 1972). Furthermore, information showing the situational difficulty tended to exacerbate the negative effects of low effort.

Although these findings suggest poor performers should continue trying despite difficult performance situations, the operationalization of amount of effort only tested teammates' reactions when the poor performer continuously displayed low effort (i.e.,

before and during the performance episode). This *low motivation* operationalization is congruent with all of the studies found in my search of the literature examining how a poor performer's lack of effort influences other's reactions (Rudolph, Roesch, Greitemeyer, & Weiner, 2004; Weiner, 1980, 1985), emphasizing low effort behaviors are consistent throughout an entire task or experience. In fact, some researchers have even labeled low effort as "low conscientiousness," suggesting temporal stability to low effort behavior throughout a team experience (e.g., LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Taggart & Neubert, 2008).

Although a poor performer may consistently exert low effort, this stable view of effort fails to recognize individuals experiencing an impossible task in a team situation can withdraw effort for a variety of reasons, resulting in variations in the timing of one's low effort behaviors and potentially altering the effects on teammates' reactions. Therefore, the present investigation sought to better understand the temporal nature of the effort construct and whether the different reasons for reducing effort in this situation can alter teammates' reactions. Should individuals continually "try, try again" (Palmer, 1840, p. 223), or are there certain times in which displaying low effort is more important for instilling sympathy and cooperation from teammates?

Besides low motivation, a second reason why individuals exert little effort is because they feel helpless. Whereas low motivation behaviors may be constant throughout a team experience, low effort caused by *helplessness* may occur only during a difficult task (Maier & Seligman, 1976). Specifically, Martinko and Gardner's (1982) model of organizationally-induced helplessness recognizes that reduced effort can occur when cues from the environment, such as a difficult task, suggest success is impossible.

Especially when the context appears beyond one's control (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978), individuals frequently respond by decreasing their efforts, believing that they are unable to change the situation with their own behavior (Maier & Seligman, 1976; Martinko et al., 2006; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008). The goal-setting literature provides additional evidence of helplessness, showing that individuals frequently reduce their effort when goals are perceived as impossible to accomplish (Locke, 1968; Stedry & Kay, 1966). Similarly, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory suggests individuals experience little motivation when one's effort is not expected to achieve a desired level of performance. Overall, helplessness provides another reason why teammates may exert low effort, reducing their effort only during times when a situation appears beyond one's control.

Despite the timing of low effort behaviors or the presence of an external cause for poor performance, greater internal, controllable attributions generally occur when poor performers display low effort (Taggar & Neubert, 2004; Weiner, 1980). Even when it is not salient, low effort is a common conclusion for another's poor performance (Mitchell & Kalb, 1982). This is especially true because of the fundamental attribution error, a bias to ignore external causes of another's poor performance (Gilbert & Malone, 1995; Jones & Nisbett, 1972; Ross, 1977). Displaying effort despite a difficult task, however, may cause teammates to make more external, uncontrollable attributions because the presence of effort dismisses a common internal, controllable cause (Weiner, 1985). Thus, it is predicted that teammates will make greater internal, controllable attributions when poor performers display lower effort compared to poor performers displaying adequate effort.

Attributions may also differ depending on the timing of the low effort. Although any display of low effort introduces an internal, controllable cause, teammates should make greater internal, controllable attributions when the poor performer displays low motivation, exhibiting low effort behavior throughout a team project, compared to helplessness, exhibiting low effort only when the difficulty of the task is realized, because the timing of low effort behaviors caused by feelings of helplessness corroborates the difficulty of the task. In such a case, the poor performer only withdraws effort because trying seems pointless, thus highlighting another external, uncontrollable cause of poor performance, task difficulty, and slightly reducing the internal, controllable attributions. Therefore, the following hypotheses concerning the timing of effort and attributions were tested.

H1: Teammates will attribute poor performance to more internal and controllable attributions when the poor performer demonstrates low rather than adequate effort.

H2: Teammates will attribute poor performance to more internal and controllable attributions when the poor performer demonstrates low effort because of low motivation (throughout a team experience) rather than helplessness (only when the difficulty of the task is realized).

Effort Levels and Excuses

When faced with a difficult, seemingly impossible task, individuals may not only reduce their effort, but they may also offer an excuse, or a self-serving explanation, to help reduce one's personal responsibility and mitigate the damages to one's image (Moss, Valenzi, & Taggart, 2003; Schlenker, Pontari, & Christopher, 2001). In fact, excuses are

a common method for making external causes of poor performance more salient, leading to reductions in blame as well as attributional shifts along the locus and controllability dimensions (Martinko et al., 2006; Pontari, Schlenker, & Christopher, 2002; Schlenker, 1997; Wood & Mitchell, 1981). Besides shifting teammates' attributions to more external, uncontrollable reasons, excuses can also cause teammates to experience more positive emotions and intentions to help the poor performer (Weiner, Amirkhan, Folkes, & Verette, 1987).

Despite the benefits of excuses, researchers recognize excuses can also have negative consequences (Pontari et al., 2002). Especially when the excuse is not believable, excuses can actually lead to more internal, controllable attributions, negative perceptions of the excuse-maker's character, and more anger (Schlenker et al., 2001; Weiner et al., 1987). For example, Harkrider and Day (2011) found that teammates felt more sympathetic when poor performers provided an excuse for the poor performance (i.e., "the task was extremely difficult and not covered in training") and also displayed adequate effort; however, when the teammate displayed low effort, excuses backfired, causing teammates to feel even more anger because the external excuse was easily discredited by a salient, internal cause of poor performance—low effort.

Whereas Harkrider and Day (2011) used extremely salient low effort behaviors (e.g., poor performer abandons the team project for an extended period of time), the present study extended the literature by testing whether excuses would still backfire if the low effort behaviors were less extreme. Because work is frequently distributed and then completed at a later time in project teams (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006), many teammates may not have the opportunity to observe their teammates throughout an entire team

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experience and will unlikely observe extreme low effort behaviors such as abandonment of the team project. By incorporating less extreme low effort behaviors, the present investigation extended the literature by providing a stronger test for how excuses may actually work in project teams and whether excuses would still backfire when less salient low effort behaviors were observed.

Although Harkrider and Day (2011) suggest individuals should exert effort when providing an excuse for poor performance, the relationship between effort levels and excuses may actually depend on the timing of the low effort behaviors. Specifically, excuses blaming poor performance on a difficult task should backfire, leading to more internal and controllable attributions, when the poor performer consistently displays low effort throughout the entire team experience. This low motivation provides a salient, internal cause for poor performance throughout the team experience which may discredit the excuse (Tyler & Feldman, 2007). Teammates are unlikely to believe an external excuse when an internal explanation for the poor performance has been salient the entire team experience before the difficult task was even introduced, causing teammates to make even greater internal and controllable attributions (Harkrider & Day, 2011).

Whereas low effort caused by low motivation may cause excuses to backfire, excuses may actually help reduce internal, controllable attributions when low effort is caused by helplessness. Many studies have shown excuses are most effective at shifting attributions when they are corroborated (Pontari et al., 2002; Schlenker et al., 2001). As poor performers initially exert effort and only begin to decrease efforts once the difficulty of the task is realized, the timing of the low effort may be viewed as corroborating evidence that the task is in fact difficult. As such, the low effort may be viewed not as a

cause of poor performance but as caused by the difficult task. Finally, teammates should make the greatest uncontrollable, external attributions when the poor performer exerts adequate effort because the excuse helps highlight the external cause of poor performance, task difficulty (Tyler & Feldman, 2007).

 H3: The effect of excuses on attributions will depend on the timing of a poor performer's low effort behaviors such that when a poor performer displays:

 (a) Low motivation, excuses will backfire leading to greater internal and controllable attributions than when no excuse is provided.

(b) Helplessness, excuses will help leading to less internal and controllable attributions than when no excuse is provided.

(c) Adequate effort, excuses will help leading to the least internal and controllable attributions.

<center>**Attributions, Emotions, and Behavioral Intentions**</center>

 Many researchers have demonstrated evidence supporting the attribution-emotion-behavior model in social situations in general (Meyer & Mulherin, 1980; Rudolph et al., 2004; Weiner, 1980, 1985; Weiner et al., 1987) as well as in team situations specifically (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggar & Neubert, 2004). In congruence with past research, I expected locus and controllability attributions (a) to be positively associated with anger and negatively associated with sympathy and (b) to mediate the influence of effort on emotions. Given that low motivation is expected to lead to the greatest controllable and internal attributions because of the salient, constant low effort behaviors throughout the team experience, teammates should feel the most anger and least sympathy towards the poor performer (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Rudolph et al.,

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2004; Weiner et al., 1987). Teammates should feel slightly less anger when low effort is caused by helplessness because the attributions are expected to be less internal and controllable. Finally, teammates should feel the most sympathy when the poor performer displays adequate effort, especially when an excuse is offered, because the excuse breaks the responsibility, making the task difficulty more salient and shifting the attributions to more external, uncontrollable factors (Weiner et al., 1987).

Ultimately, I expected to find a relationship between emotions and behavioral intentions (Jackson & LePine, 2003). Specifically, I hypothesized that sympathy would positively relate to intentions to cooperate with and reward the poor performer and negatively relate to intentions to admonish. Also, I hypothesized that anger would positively relate to intentions to admonish the poor performer and negatively relate to intentions to cooperate and reward (Taggar & Neubert, 2004). Finally, I expected emotions to mediate the relationship between attributions and behavioral intentions (Rudolph et al., 2004; Weiner, 1986).

> **H4:** Internal and controllable attributions will be (a) negatively associated with sympathy and (b) positively associated with anger towards the poor performer.
>
> **H5:** Attributions will mediate the effects of effort on emotions felt towards the poor performer.
>
> **H6:** Emotions will correlate with behavioral intentions such that (a) sympathy will positively relate to cooperative and reward intentions and negatively relate to admonishing intentions whereas (b) anger will positively relate to admonishing intentions and negatively relate to cooperative and reward intentions.

H7: Teammate's emotions will mediate the relationship between attributions and the teammate's behavioral intentions to cooperate, admonish, or reward the poor performer.

Method

Participants

Two-hundred undergraduate students (M_{age} = 19.28, SD_{age} = 2.69, 76.7% female, 70.9% White) from the University of Oklahoma participated in this study to fulfill an Introductory Psychology research requirement. To create dyadic teams, each participant was paired with a same-sex confederate. Because seven participants did not follow directions and four stated they knew the true nature of the experiment, their data were removed from analyses, leaving a final sample of 189.

Design and Procedures

A 3 (effort timing: low motivation vs. helplessness vs. adequate effort) × 2 (excuses: no excuse vs. excuse) between-subjects, randomized design was used to test whether the timing of a poor performer's low effort during a difficult performance situation as well as excuses influence teammates' reactions towards a poor performer. In every condition an external cause of poor performance, task difficulty, existed. *Task difficulty* was operationalized as a mismatch between the training and the final task (Microsoft PowerPoint® presentation), causing the final task to be very difficult, if not impossible to effectively accomplish. Therefore, the responsibilities assigned to the confederate were extremely difficult and not covered in training.

Dyadic teams consisting of one participant and one confederate (i.e., poor performer) were told the purpose of the study was to understand how role specialization

influences teamwork behaviors. Specifically, they were to play the role of interns for a shoe company and create a Microsoft PowerPoint® presentation describing a new product (see Appendix A). All participants believed they were part of the specialized roles condition, each being randomly assigned by a coin toss to a specific role. The participant was always assigned the Text & SmartArt role whereas the confederate was always assigned the difficult Graphs role (see Appendix B). After completing pre-measures, teammates received 10 minutes of training on their own role as well as 5 minutes of training on their partner's specialty. The information explaining the confederate's role, however, was simplistic and did not match the requirements of the confederate's task, providing situational information from the environment concerning the task difficulty.

Next, the proctor provided a packet of product information and specific requirements for the presentation (see Appendix C). The participant was instructed to create three Text & SmartArt slides using text information describing the new product found in the product packet, and the confederate was instructed to create three difficult Graph slides. Specifically, the confederate's task included (1) a bar graph showing projected sales by month *with error estimates* included, (2) a pie graph of projected sales by region *with a breakdown by demographics* for the Northeast region specifically, and (3) a graph of one's choice depicting projected overall sales for each quarter *as well as what percentage of those sales will come from online sales versus physical stores.* The team worked for 15 minutes on their individual assignments before observing each others' progress and receiving individual feedback from the proctor. In all conditions the

confederate completed only one slide displaying a simple and incorrect bar graph without error estimates and received a poor evaluation from the proctor (see Appendix D).

Next, teammates completed manipulation check questions and questionnaires to assess their attributions, emotions, and behavioral intentions (see Appendix E). The team believed they had 15 minutes to finish the presentation together. To emphasize teamwork, teams were told (a) to work together during this time, (b) they would receive an overall group score, (c) unsatisfactory group scores would cause the team to lose a credit, and (d) exceptional group scores would result in one additional credit added to the two originally allotted. In all conditions, the study stopped after the questionnaires (see Appendix F).

Effort timing. Whereas an external cause existed in every condition, an internal cause, effort level, was manipulated such that confederates either demonstrated adequate effort throughout the entire study or low effort at different times during the study. To not confound the timing of the low effort behaviors with the amount of behaviors, four specific behaviors were always performed by the poorly performing confederate in each of the low effort conditions; only the timing of these behaviors differed. Specifically, the confederate (a) texted on a phone, (b) fumbled in a backpack rather than focus on the assigned task, (c) played on a social media website, and (d) placed his or her head down on the desk rather than completing the task. Two behaviors, texting and social media, were admonished verbally by the proctor.

Low motivation was defined as lack of effort when completing activities (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggart & Neubert, 2004). Thus in the Low Motivation condition, these four low effort behaviors occurred throughout the entire experiment (Jackson & LePine,

2003; Taggart & Neubert, 2004), with two occurring before and two occurring during the time allotted to create the presentation.

Helplessness was defined as a reduction in effort due to beliefs that goal accomplishment is impossible (Martinko & Gardner, 1982) and achievement is beyond an individual's control (Abramson et al., 1978). For the Helplessness condition, the four low effort behaviors only occurred during the time allotted for creating the presentation, after the instructions revealed a difficult, if not impossible task for the confederate by outlining three very complex graphs to create.

In the Adequate Effort condition, the confederate did not display these four low effort behaviors. Instead, the confederate displayed as much effort as one would expect from a typical participant (based on piloting). See Table 1 for the specific procedures and timing of low effort behaviors.

Excuse. Situational information from the poor performer about the task difficulty was manipulated by the confederate either providing or not providing an excuse for their poor performance. In the Excuse condition, the confederate offered the excuse, "this was really hard and these graphs were not covered in the training," once right before the confederate played the presentation for the teammate and proctor and again immediately after the proctor provided the negative feedback. In the No Excuse condition, the confederate did not offer an excuse at any time.

Measures

Pre-measures. Participants completed a demographics and PowerPoint experience questionnaire. Additionally, preferences for teamwork were assessed with a three item measure (e.g., I generally prefer to work as part of a team) using 5-point Likert

scales (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). See Appendix K for specific questions.

Nevertheless, analyses did not reveal any significant effects concerning these measures

and the tests of the proposed hypotheses.

Manipulation checks. A questionnaire assessed whether teammates recognized

the confederate's poor performance, difficult task, and effort levels. Liking towards the

task and the teammate were also assessed using 5-point Likert scales. To conceal the true

purpose, teammates also rated their own level of performance, task difficulty, and effort

level. After participants were debriefed, a single item assessed whether the participant

recognized an excuse from the confederate (0 = *no excuse offered*, 1 = *excuse offered*).

See Appendix L for the manipulation checks.

Attributions. To measure attributions towards the poor performer, participants

completed five questions measuring the internal dimension ($\alpha = .90$) and five questions

measuring the controllability dimension ($\alpha = .90$) adapted from the Causal Dimension

Scale II (McAuley, Duncan, & Russell, 1992). This measure used 9-point Likert scales

such that higher scores indicated higher levels of internal or controllable attributions. To

help conceal the true nature of the experiment, participants also completed another

adapted Causal Dimension Scale II to assess what caused their own performance (see

Appendix G).

Emotions. A 15-item self-report adapted from Reisenzein (1986) and Struthers,

Weiner, and Allred (1998) asked participants to what extent they felt five sympathy (e.g.,

sympathy, understanding), five anger (e.g., irritated, mad), and five filler (e.g., happy)

emotions towards their teammate (1 = *not at all*, 10 = *extremely*). Internal consistencies

were .86 for sympathy and .95 for anger (see Appendix H).

Behavioral intentions. To assess behavioral intentions towards the poor performer, participants responded to what extent they would engage in four cooperative (e.g., collaborate with my teammate to complete the presentation) and five admonishing (e.g., tell my teammate to take this project more seriously) behaviors to improve their teammate's performance using 5-point Likert scales (1 = *highly unlikely*, 5 = *highly likely*). Items were adapted from Jackson and LePine (2003) as well as Taggar and Neubert (2004). Internal consistencies were .75 for cooperate and .89 for admonish. The participants also reported the extent they would want to engage in certain behaviors to improve their own performance, again to help conceal the true purpose of the study (see Appendix I).

To assess reward intentions, participants allocated the amount of credit they would reward themselves as well as their teammate. Participants selected any number from zero to three hours on half-point increments. Two credits is the number of credits participants expected to receive at the start of the study (see Appendix J).

Results

Manipulation Checks

Overall, only 4.8% of participants did not enjoy the presentation task and only 5.9% strongly disliked the confederate. Manipulation checks revealed the majority of participants recognized the confederate's poor performance with 87.8% reporting the confederate's slides were not "good" and only 5.9% reporting the confederate's task was extremely easy. The low effort manipulation check revealed a significant difference between effort levels such that participants in the low effort conditions (low motivation and helplessness) reported significantly less effort from the confederate ($M = 2.06$, $SD =$

0.86) than participants in the adequate effort condition ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 0.95$), $t(186) = -10.14$, $p < .01$, $d = -1.52$. Although the amount of low effort was held constant, participants reported significantly less effort when the confederate displayed low motivation throughout the team experience ($M = 1.87$, $SD = 0.80$) than when the low effort was displayed only after the difficulty of the task was realized ($M = 2.24$, $SD = 0.88$), $t(123) = -2.45$, $p < .05$, $d = -0.44$. The excuse manipulation check revealed participants were significantly more likely to report that the confederate offered an excuse for poor performance in the excuse condition ($M = .76$, $SD = 0.43$) compared to the no excuse condition ($M = .04$, $SD = 0.20$), $t(187) = -14.56$, $p < .01$, $d = -2.15$. There were no significant correlations between any of the dependent variables and gender, ethnicity, preference for teamwork, PowerPoint experience, or who acted as the confederate.

Correlations of Study Variables

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all study variables are presented in Table 2. Except for cooperative intentions, all correlations were significant in the predicted directions. Specifically, internal and controllable attributions, anger emotions, and admonishing intentions were all significantly positively correlated. Additionally, these variables were also significantly negatively correlated with sympathy emotions and reward intentions. Cooperative intentions were only significantly negatively correlated with anger and uncorrelated with the other dependent variables. These findings are consistent with the expected relationships between attributions, emotions, and behavioral intentions such that more internal and controllable attributions related to more anger and admonishing as well as less sympathy and rewarding.

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Effort Effects

  Attributions. Hypotheses 1 and 2 predicted a main effect for the timing of low effort such that internal and controllable attributions would be greatest when low motivation was displayed throughout the team experience, less when low effort only occurred when feeling helpless once the difficulty of the task was realized, and least when adequate effort was displayed by a poor performer. A 3 (effort timing) × 2 (excuse) analysis of variance (ANOVA) supported a significant main effect for effort timing on both locus, $F(2, 183) = 24.38$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .21$, and controllability, $F(2, 183) = 25.27$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .22$, attributions (see Table 3 for ANOVA results). In support of Hypothesis 1 and as shown in Table 4, teammates made significantly less internal attributions when the poor performer displayed adequate effort rather than low effort for either helplessness, $t(125) = -3.87$, $p < .01$, $d = -0.69$, or low motivation, $t(123) = -7.06$, $p < .01$, $d = -1.26$, reasons. Also in support of Hypothesis 1, teammates made significantly less controllable attributions when poor performers displayed adequate effort rather than helplessness, $t(125) = -3.86$, $p < .01$, $d = -0.69$, or low motivation, $t(123) = -6.82$, $p < .01$, $d = -1.22$. In support of Hypothesis 2, significantly greater internal and controllable attributions were made when the poor performer demonstrated low motivation compared to helplessness, $t(124) = 2.84$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.50$, and $t(124) = 2.98$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.53$, respectively. Overall, these results suggest the timing of low effort affects attributions.

  Emotions. Because attributions are expected to influence emotions and behavioral intentions, similar ANOVAs were conducted to test the main effect of effort timing on emotions and behavioral intentions. As shown in Table 3, results yielded significant effort timing main effects for both sympathy, $F(2, 183) = 20.41$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 =$

.18, and anger, $F(2, 183) = 19.81$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$. In congruence with Hypothesis 1,

teammates reported significantly greater sympathy when the poor performer

demonstrated adequate effort rather than helplessness, $t(125) = 4.46$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.79$, or

low motivation, $t(123) = 6.17$, $p < .0,1$ $d = 1.10$. Additionally, when poor performers

demonstrated adequate effort, teammates reported significantly less anger than when the

poor performer was helpless, $t(125) = -2.97$, $p < .01$, $d = -0.52$, or displaying low

motivation, $t(123) = -6.27$, $p < .01$, $d = -1.12$. Although there was no significant

difference between low motivation and helplessness with regards to sympathy,

teammates experiencing a low motivation poor performer felt significantly greater anger

than those teammates experiencing a helpless poor performer, $t(124) = 3.24$, $p < .01$, $d =$

0.58, supporting Hypothesis 2. As shown in Table 4, the greatest anger occurred when the

poor performer displayed low motivation, less anger with helplessness, and then the least

anger with adequate effort. The greatest sympathy was felt when poor performers

displayed adequate effort.

     Behavioral intentions. An effort timing main effect was also tested for three

behavioral intentions. Although the main effect was not significant for cooperative

intentions, $F(2, 183) = 2.38$, $p = .09$, $\eta^2 = .03$, there was a significant main effect for effort

timing on admonishing, $F(2, 183) = 31.63$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .26$, and reward, $F(2, 183) =$

14.91, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .14$, intentions. Following a similar pattern as attributions and

emotions and supporting Hypothesis 1, teammates reported significantly less

admonishing intentions when the poor performer displayed adequate effort rather than

helplessness, $t(125) = -5.24$, $p < .01$, $d = -0.93$, or low motivation, $t(123) = -7.94$, $p < .01$,

$d = -1.42$, and were significantly more likely to provide higher rewards than those with

helpless, $t(125) = 2.79$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.49$, or low motivation teammates, $t(123) = 5.66$, $p <$

.01, $d = 1.01$. Timing of the low effort behaviors also mattered. Teammates reported

greater admonishing, $t(124) = 2.56$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.46$, and less reward, $t(124) = -2.43$, $p <$

.05, $d = -0.44$, intentions when poor performers displayed low motivation compared to

helplessness, supporting Hypothesis 2.

Overall, these results suggest more favorable teammate reactions occur when poor

performers try during a difficult task, supporting Hypothesis 1. The timing of low effort,

however, also mattered, supporting Hypothesis 2. Poor performers who displayed low

effort only when feeling helpless once the difficulty of the task was realized experienced

more positive teammate reactions than those who lacked motivation, displaying low

effort throughout a team experience.

Excuse Effects

Hypothesis 3, predicting an interaction between effort timing and excuses on

attributions, was not supported for either locus, $F(2, 183) = 0.75$, $p > .10$, or

controllability, $F(2, 183) = 0.15$, $p > .10$ (see Table 3). However, ANOVAs revealed a

significant excuse main effect for both locus, $F(1, 183) = 5.75$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$, and

controllability, $F(1, 183) = 9.33$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .05$, such that excuses led to significantly

less internal and controllable attributions than when no excuses were offered (see Table

4). This suggests excuses always helped reduce internal and controllable attributions.

Similar to attributions, an interaction between effort timing and excuses on

emotions was also not supported for sympathy, $F(2, 183) = 2.02$, $p > .10$, or anger, $F(2,$

$183) = 0.13$, $p > .10$. Significant main effects however revealed teammates reported

significantly more sympathy, $F(1, 183) = 4.14$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$, and less anger, $F(1, 183)$

= 4.75, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$, when poor performers offered excuses compared to not offering excuses. For behavioral intentions, teammates were significantly more likely to provide higher rewards when poor performers offered excuses compared to not offering an excuse, $F(1, 183) = 5.33$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .03$. No excuses main effects or interactions were found for cooperative or admonishing intentions. Again, excuses in general led to more positive emotional reactions and greater reward intentions from teammates regardless of the timing of low effort behavior.

Effort Timing → Attribution → Emotions Mediation

Procedures recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2004) were used to test Hypotheses 4 through 7. Hypothesis 4 addressed the relationship between two attributions, locus and controllability, and two emotions, sympathy and anger. Hypothesis 4a predicted internal and controllable attributions would be negatively associated with sympathy and this was supported for both internal and controllability attributions. Specifically, the direct effect results indicated that locus ($b = -.19$, $p < .05$, one-tailed) and controllability ($b = -.21$, $p < .05$, one-tailed) attributions were associated with sympathy in the predicted direction, after controlling for anger. Hypothesis 4b predicted internal and controllable attributions would be positively associated with anger. Support was found for internal but not controllability attributions. The direct effect results indicated that locus ($b = .36$, $p < .01$) but not controllability ($b = -.14$, $p > .10$) attributions were significantly associated with anger in the predicted direction, after controlling for sympathy. Overall, greater internal attributions were associated with less sympathy and more anger. The relationship between controllability attributions and emotions was only significant for sympathy, providing partial support for Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 5 predicted attributions would mediate the effects of effort on emotions. Overall, effort timing had a significant indirect effect on anger via locus attributions but the indirect effects on sympathy were not supported. As shown in Table 5, the indirect effect of effort timing via locus and controllability attributions on sympathy was not significant. Rather, effort timing had a significant direct effect on sympathy ($c' = 0.49$, $p < .05$). In support of Hypothesis 5, however, effort timing exhibited a significant indirect effect via locus attributions (95% CI: lower = -.63, upper = -.13) on anger in addition to a direct effect ($c' = -0.95$, $p < .01$). Thus, locus attributions partially mediated the effort timing–anger relationship.

Attribution → Emotions → Behavioral Intentions Mediation

Hypothesis 6 addressed the relationship between two emotions, sympathy and anger, and three behavioral intentions, cooperative, admonishing, and reward. Hypothesis 6a predicted sympathy would be positively associated with cooperative and reward intentions and negatively related to admonishing intentions. Hypothesis 6b predicted anger would be positively related to admonishing intentions and negatively related to cooperative and reward intentions. Overall, support for Hypothesis 6 was not found for cooperative intentions but was found for admonishing and reward intentions. Specifically, greater sympathy resulted in less admonishing and greater reward intentions whereas greater anger resulted in greater admonishing and less reward intentions. Neither sympathy nor anger emotions were significantly related to cooperative intentions. Specifically, for cooperative intentions, the direct effect results of locus shown in Table 6 and controllability shown in Table 7 did not yield significant associations with sympathy or anger after controlling for the other behavioral intentions. The results for admonishing

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intentions indicated that sympathy ($b = -.10$, $p < .01$) and anger ($b = .15$, $p < .01$) were both significantly associated in the predicted direction after controlling for the other behavioral intentions. For reward intentions, the direct effect results indicated that sympathy ($b = .05$, $p < .05$) and anger ($b = -.07$, $p < .01$) were both significantly associated in the predicted direction after controlling for the other behavioral intentions.

In terms of mediation, Hypothesis 7 predicted emotions would mediate the relationship between attributions and behavioral intentions and this was supported for admonishing and reward intentions but not cooperative intentions. Specifically, the total indirect effect of locus attributions on cooperative intentions via emotions (see Table 6) was not significant (95% CI: lower = -.03, upper = .00). Additionally, locus did not yield a direct effect ($c' = .05$, $p > .10$). Similarly, the total indirect effect (95% CI: lower = -.03, upper = .01) and direct effect ($c' = -.02$, $p > .10$) of controllability on cooperative intentions via emotions was not significant (see Table 7).

In support of the mediation proposed in Hypothesis 7, the total indirect effects of both locus (95% CI: lower = .05, upper = .14) and controllability (95% CI: lower = .04, upper = .13) attributions on admonishing intentions were significant with both sympathy and anger uniquely accounting for the relationship between both attributions and admonishing intentions (see Tables 6 and 7). Additionally, the direct effects of locus ($c' = .05$, $p > .10$) and controllability ($c' = .03$, $p > .10$) attributions on admonishing intentions were not significant. In support of Hypothesis 7, these results show the effects of locus and controllability attributions on admonishing intentions were fully mediated by emotions.

Similar to the results for admonishing intentions, neither locus ($c' = -.04$, $p > .10$)

nor controllability ($c' = -.02$, $p > .10$) attributions yielded significant direct effects on

reward intentions. In support of Hypothesis 7, locus yielded a significant indirect effect

on reward intentions via anger (95% CI: lower = -.04, upper = -.01) and sympathy (95%

CI: lower = -.04, upper = -.01). Controllability also yielded a significant indirect effect on

reward intentions via both anger (95% CI: lower = -.04, upper = -.01) and sympathy

(95% CI: lower = -.04, upper = -.01). As with admonishing, the effects of locus and

controllability attributions on reward intentions were fully mediated by emotions.

Discussion

The present study investigated how the timing of low effort behaviors and excuses

influence the attributions, emotions, and behavioral intentions a teammate makes towards

a poor performer. Whereas most research has focused on internal causes of poor

performance (Taggar & Neubert, 2008), this study empirically examined how teammates

respond when an external cause of poor performance, task difficulty, exists. This study

also tested the temporal nature of the effort construct rather than treating low effort as

simply a static trait (Jackson & LePine, 2003). Finally, the effects of excuses offered by

poor performers on teammate reactions were investigated. The following sections review

the findings with respect to the importance of effort, the timing of effort, and excuses.

Lastly, limitations as well as implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Effort Really Matters

When deciding how to respond to a poorly performing teammate, effort really

matters. Regardless of whether the low effort occurred because of low motivation

(displayed throughout the team experience) or helplessness (displayed only once a

seemingly impossible task is realized), teammates consistently reacted more negatively to poor performers who were not trying. Specifically, when poor performers displayed adequate effort, teammates made significantly greater external and uncontrollable attributions, felt more sympathy and less anger, and intended to engage in less admonishing and greater rewarding behaviors than when poor performers withdrew effort. Additionally, effort directly influenced not only attributions, but also emotions and behavioral intentions. Although poor performers may not have control over their difficult assignments, they do have control over their effort (Burger & Forsyth, 1998), and even if this effort may not improve their own performance, it may have important implications for team outcomes (Larson, 2010).

For example, task performance of the group could suffer if poor performers reduce their effort. Tasks with high interdependence, requiring adaptability, or workload need cooperation and coordination to achieve effective performance (Porter et al., 2003; Salas, Rosen, Burke, & Goodwin, 2009). If individuals facing difficult circumstances reduce their effort, teammates may be more likely to engage in the admonishing behaviors detrimental to group success in these dynamic environments.

Besides task performance, member satisfaction influences team effectiveness (Hackman, 1987). A poor performer's low effort can cause teammates to experience increased anger which could lead to decreased satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Therefore, individuals should exert effort even when faced with difficult tasks in order to reduce the chances of the admonishing behaviors detrimental to team performance as well as increasing members' positive emotions necessary for facilitating satisfaction.

Timing of Low Effort Matters

Although trying results in more positive reactions from teammates, the timing of low effort also matters. Compared to poor performers displaying low motivation throughout a team experience, those that only withdrew effort when feeling helpless once the difficulty of the task was realized received more favorable reactions. Specifically, teammates made significantly more external and uncontrollable attributions, felt less anger, and intended to engage in less admonishing and greater rewarding behaviors towards helpless poor performers compared to poor performers lacking motivation. Additionally, even though the amount of low effort was held constant by the study protocol, manipulation checks revealed the timing of the low effort behaviors altered the amount of low effort perceived by teammates such that low motivation teammates were viewed as displaying more low effort behaviors than helpless poor performers.

These findings highlight the importance of examining the temporal nature of constructs (Mohammed et al., 2009). Whereas most research treats low effort as a stable trait (Jackson & LePine, 2003), the ability for individuals to control their own effort levels suggests low effort may change depending on the specific situation (Pinder, 2008). For some individuals, merely participating in a team environment can reduce effort. When individuals' contributions are not essential for group success (Kerr, 1983) or when they cannot be identified (Karau & Williams, 1993; Williams, Harkins, & Latane, 1981), individuals frequently withdraw effort entirely, resulting in motivational process losses (Larson, 2010; Price, Harrison, & Gavin, 2006). Others may simply lack motivation because of the task in general (Delson, 2001). In congruence with past research that has relied on a stable conceptualization of low effort, poor performers who lacked motivation throughout the team task experienced the most negative teammate reactions (Rudolph et

al., 2004; Taggar & Neubert, 2008), despite an external, uncontrollable cause (task difficulty) also existing (Harkrider & Day, 2011).

Besides showing low motivation towards a team experience in general, some individuals may only reduce effort when environmental cues suggest task success is impossible (Martinko & Gardner, 1982), the difficult context is beyond an individual's control (Abramson et al., 1978), and expectancies between effort and desired levels of performance seem non-existent (Vroom, 1964). Similarly, self-regulation theory suggests effort will cease when individuals attribute failure to uncontrollable factors, such as a difficult task, because employing different strategies is not believed to result in improved performance (Zimmerman, 2002). Although teammates responded negatively when poor performers reduced effort as a result of helplessness, reactions were significantly less negative than when effort was reduced throughout the entire team experience, indicative of low motivation in general.

Clearly, different factors can result in different reasons for reducing effort, which consequently affects the timing of when low effort behaviors occur. By examining the temporal nature of displaying low effort, the effects of different types of low effort on teammate reactions were revealed; if an individual is to reduce effort, decreasing effort when feeling helpless rather than because of lacking motivation in general results in more positive reactions.

Excuses Help

When faced with a difficult task, excuses that shift blame to external, uncontrollable causes can improve teammate reactions. Although excuses had little effect on cooperative and admonishing intentions, excuses did affect attributions, emotions, and

reward intentions. Regardless of a poor performer's effort levels, excuses consistently led to less internal and controllable attributions, greater sympathy and less anger, and greater reward intentions from teammates compared to when no excuses were offered. Because excuses increased the salience of the difficult task, attributions shifted (Martinko et al., 2006) and emotions and reward intentions became more positive (Weiner et al., 1987).

Although the hypothesized interaction between excuses and effort was not supported, countering the findings from Harkrider and Day (2011) which used a similar protocol, one important difference may have contributed to the discrepancies. In the previous study by Harkrider and Day (2011), one of the low effort behaviors was leaving the room for an extended period of time whereas this behavior did not occur in the present investigation. Because the poor performer was not even present for a portion of the task, the excuse blaming poor performance on a difficult task may have appeared less credible than in the present study in which the poor performer engaged in off-task behaviors but never physically left the team. Excuses are most likely to backfire, resulting in greater rather than less internal and controllable attributions, when they are not believable and easily discredited (Pontari et al., 2002; Schlenker et al., 2001). Because the poor performer's behavior was more extreme in the previous study, the excuse may have been more easily discredited, resulting in more negative reactions than in the present investigation in which excuses always helped highlight the difficult task. Given that many teams are project teams in which work is simply distributed and then completed at a later time (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006) and that geographically dispersed teams are becoming even more common (O'Leary & Mortensen, 2010), many teammates may not have the opportunity to observe others throughout the entirety of their projects,

making low effort behaviors such as the outright shirking of one's responsibilities more extreme than those more typically experienced. Thus, the present findings may more closely mirror the effects of excuses in many real-world settings.

Attributions → Emotions → Behavioral Intentions Mediation

Finally, these results support the attributions-emotions-behavior causal model (Weiner, 1985) using actual interacting groups in a controlled environment. Specifically, the effects of both locus and controllability attributions on admonishing and reward intentions were completely mediated by emotions. Despite the indirect effects of attributions, effort level had strong direct effects on attributions, emotions, and behavioral intentions suggesting the importance for poor performers to always "try, try again" (Palmer, 1840, p. 223).

Limitations

Several limitations are important to address. First, the relationships between study conditions and other variables with cooperative intentions were generally non-significant. The high mean and low variability of the cooperative intention scores provide one explanation for these findings. Because teams were told they could lose course credit for poor performance and given that their team received unfavorable feedback, teammates had little choice but to endorse some type of intentions to improve team performance. Therefore, the majority of individuals indicated they would engage in cooperative behaviors ($M = 4.30$ [$SD = 0.56$] on a 1 to 5 scale) in order to receive a satisfactory team score. Because of the limited variability in cooperative intentions, few relationships with this and other variables were found. Future research should incorporate other situations in

which there is less need to engage in cooperative behaviors in order to capture more variability in prosocial behaviors.

Second, the sample consisted of zero-history teams working together on only one task for a short period of time. Although many teams will include familiar members working on multiple tasks over an extended period, the dynamic nature of today's work environment leads to frequent group membership changes (Levine, Choi, & Moreland, 2003). Future research should examine teams with familiar teammates as well as teams performing tasks over a period of time; however, studying groups of newly combined individuals is equally important given the common occurrence of membership changes (Hirst, 2009). Additionally, the lack of prior information concerning normal performance levels may cause others to consider the poor performer's effort level and excuse-making even more, potentially providing an even greater impact on reactions.

Whereas some researchers may suggest the dyadic nature of this study is a limitation (Moreland, 2010), others recognize dyads are in fact teams and are appropriate instances for studying many group processes, including prosocial behaviors (Williams, 2010). Because emotions played a strong role and given that emotional contagion suggests negative emotions of one group member may be adopted by others (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), a larger group size may in fact exasperate the negative effects of low effort on teammate reactions. Although future research should examine the influence of team size on reactions, these findings still contribute to a better understanding of how others react to poor performers. Additionally, a reliance on self-reports can lead to spuriously stronger relationships. This concern is reduced because the measures used different response scales and formats. Future research should incorporate

other measures besides self-reports. Finally, behavioral intentions rather than actual behaviors were measured although research supports the positive relationship between intentions and actual behavior (Somers, 1999).

Implications

Despite these limitations, several implications are worth noting. With regard to employees, almost everyone experiences multiple difficult, if not seemingly impossible tasks in a career. When faced with these difficult situations, displaying effort is crucial for increasing positive teammate reactions. Although the situation may seem hopeless and beyond one's control, individuals do have control over their effort and this can greatly influence how teammates react towards a poor performer. Therefore, individuals should control their effort during these situations—displaying adequate effort is necessary for increasing the chances of positive individual and team outcomes.

Additionally, when faced with a difficult task, providing an excuse to teammates may increase the salience of the task difficulty, resulting in more favorable teammate reactions. Because individuals are poor at recognizing external causes for another's poor performance (Ross, 1977), excuses may improve teammates' abilities to recognize external causes such as task difficulty. By increasing the salience of external causes, excuses may also result in teammates or managers providing the necessary resources or removing certain obstacles, reducing the task's difficulty (Bernardin et al., 1998). In offering an excuse, however, it is important that the excuse appears credible and believable, else the excuse could backfire (Tyler & Feldman, 2007).

With regard to organizations, creating psychologically safe climates in which failure is viewed as a valuable learning experience rather than an interpersonal threat may

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provide additional benefits (Cannon & Edmondson, 2001). Because effort is crucial for more positive reactions towards poor performers, environments should encourage teammates to display effort despite challenging situations and mitigate fears of interpersonal rejection if failure is experienced. Therefore, teams with "failure friendly" climates may encourage teammates to try when faced with difficult situations, ultimately reducing negative emotions and behaviors towards poor performers.

Because even reductions in effort due to feelings of helplessness resulted in more negative teammate reactions than when poor performers consistently tried, organizations should provide some control to employees (e.g., support and encouragement to ask for resources, choice on which projects to pursue, training to improve skills needed for difficult assignments, mentors) to reduce feelings of helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1982) and encourage continued persistence on a task (Zimmerman, 2002).

Theoretically, this study advances attribution theory applied to teams by expanding current attribution models to include an external cause of poor performance. Because external obstacles are common causes of poor performance yet rarely recognized (McCarthy, 1978), understanding how these causes lead to different emotions and behaviors is important. Future research could manipulate task difficulty in order to test how external and internal causes interact, allowing for more accurate predictions concerning teammates' reactions. Additionally, this study highlighted the importance of examining the temporal nature of constructs, revealing the amount of negative reactions directed towards poor performers depends not only on the amount of effort exerted but also on the timing of low effort behaviors.

Finally, this study tested the attribution-emotions-behavior causal model using actual interacting groups in a controlled environment. Compared to studies which have used vignettes or videos (i.e., Jackson & LePine, 2003), this method provides stronger ecological validity by having participants actually interact with a poorly performing teammate. Compared to studies which have used classroom groups (i.e., Taggar & Neubert, 2008), this method allowed for considerable control over the situation, increasing the confidence of the internal validity of the study. Overall, the mediation found in vignette studies was replicated, especially with regard to the indirect effects of attributions on behavioral intentions, particularly admonishing and rewarding, which were fully mediated by emotions. Furthermore, the results consistently showed strong direct effects of effort in relation to attribution, emotion, and behavioral intention variables. It appears conventional wisdom to "try, try again" throughout difficult situations, even if the situation seems helpless, is worthwhile advice, else other teammates may not offer help (Palmer, 1840, p. 223).

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Table 1

Summary of Procedures & Manipulations

	Timing of Low Effort					
	Low Motivation (Low effort throughout)		**Helplessness** (Low effort during task)		**Adequate Effort** (No low effort)	
	No Excuse	Excuse	No Excuse	Excuse	No Excuse	Excuse
1. Pre-measures	C. Texting	C. Texting				
2. Role assignment						
3. Specialized training video	C. Fumble in backpack	C. Fumble in backpack				
4. Presentation instructions						
5. Create Presentation	C. Play on social media C. Head down	C. Play on social media C. Head down	C. Texting C. Fumble in backpack C. Play on social media C. Head down	C. Texting C. Fumble in backpack C. Play on social media C. Head down		

6. Individual feedback
  • Participant shows slides
  • Proctor provides participant feedback
  • Walk to Confederate's computer
  • Confederate shows poor slide
  • Proctor provides confederate feedback
	C.Offer Excuse
	
	C.Offer Excuse
			C.Offer Excuse
			
			C.Offer Excuse
					C.Offer Excuse
					
					C.Offer Excuse	

7. Complete measures						
8. Debrief						

Note. C. = Confederate performs behavior. Empty cells indicate identical instructions and procedures.

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Among Measured Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Locus	6.51	1.92	1.00	9.00	(0.90)						
2. Controllability	7.55	1.48	2.40	9.00	.70**	(0.90)					
3. Sympathy	3.99	2.16	1.00	10.00	−.44**	−.41**	(0.86)				
4. Anger	4.52	2.71	1.00	10.00	.38**	.27**	−.37**	(0.95)			
5. Cooperate	4.30	0.56	2.00	5.00	−.09	−.10	.11	−.18*	(0.75)		
6. Admonish	3.23	0.94	1.00	5.00	.37**	.28**	−.44**	.54**	−.09	(0.89)	
7. Reward	1.44	0.68	0.00	3.00	−.33**	−.24**	.36**	−.44**	.09	−.40**	–

Note. Internal consistencies are presented along the diagonal. Higher locus scores indicate more internal attributions. Higher controllability scores indicate more controllable attributions. Locus and controllability ranged from 1 (external/uncontrollable) to 9 (internal/controllable). Emotions ranged from 1 (not at all) to 10 (extremely). Cooperate and admonish intentions ranged from 1(highly unlikely) to 5 (highly likely). Reward ranged from 0 to 3.* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). $N = 189$.

Table 3

Summary of ANOVA Results for Attributions, Emotions, and Behavioral Intentions

Source	Locus		Controllability		Sympathy		Anger		Cooperate		Admonish		Reward	
	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2	F	η^2
Effort (A)	24.38**	.21	25.27**	.22	20.41**	.18	19.81**	.18	2.38†	.03	31.63**	.26	14.91**	.14
Excuse (B)	5.75*	.03	9.33**	.05	4.14*	.02	4.75*	.03	2.53	.01	2.71	.02	5.33*	.03
A × B	0.75	.01	0.15	.00	2.02	.02	0.13	.00	0.00	.00	0.43	.01	0.06	.00

Note. † p < .10, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01 (two-tailed). *N* = 189.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Effort Timing and Excuse Conditions

	Locus		Controllability		Sympathy		Anger		Cooperate		Admonish		Reward	
Effort Timing	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Low Motivation	6.99[c]	1.76	7.94[c]	1.28	3.68[b]	2.12	5.28[c]	2.81	4.40[a]	0.50	3.44[c]	0.91	1.30[c]	0.59
Helplessness	6.05[b]	1.96	7.18[b]	1.58	4.29[b]	2.18	3.77[b]	2.41	4.19[b]	0.60	3.02[b]	0.93	1.59[b]	0.73
Adequate Effort	4.77[a]	1.75	6.00[a]	1.84	5.93[a]	1.96	2.66[a]	1.77	4.33	0.59	2.20[a]	0.84	1.93[a]	0.65

	Locus		Controllability		Sympathy		Anger		Cooperate		Admonish		Reward	
Excuses	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
No Excuse	6.21[b]	2.01	7.35[b]	1.63	4.37[b]	2.46	4.24[b]	2.75	4.24	0.61	2.97	1.07	1.51[b]	0.74
Excuse	5.65[a]	2.03	6.72[a]	1.84	4.90[a]	2.06	3.55[a]	2.38	4.37	0.52	2.80	1.98	1.71[a]	0.65

Note. Internal consistencies are presented along the diagonal. Higher locus scores indicate more internal attributions. Higher controllability scores indicate more controllable attributions. Locus and controllability ranged from 1 (external/uncontrollable) to 9 (internal/controllable). Emotions ranged from 1 (not at all) to 10 (extremely). Cooperate and admonish intentions ranged from 1(highly unlikely)to 5 (highly likely). Reward ranged from 0 to 3.* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). $N = 189$.

Table 5

Direct and Indirect Effects of Effort on Emotions via Attributions

| | Indirect Effects | | | Direct Effects | | | |
| | | | | Predictor | Mediator | | Controls |
	Total	Locus	Controllability	EffortTime	Locus	Controllability	Anger
DV: *Sympathy*							
Coefficient	.35	.17	.18	.49*	−.19†	−.21†	− .16**
BC 95% CI Lower	.18	−.02	−.02				
BC 95% CI Upper	.58	.39	.44				
DV: *Anger*							Sympathy
Coefficient	−.21	−.33	.11	−.95**	.36**	−.14	− .10
BC 95% CI Lower	−.45	−.63	−.07				
BC 95% CI Upper	−.02	−.13	.33				

Note. DV = dependent variable. BC = bias corrected. CI = confidence interval. † p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01 (two-tailed). N = 189.

Table 6

Direct and Indirect Effects of Locus Attributions on Behavioral Intentions via Emotions

| | Indirect Effects | | | Direct Effects | | | | | |
| | | | | Predictor | Mediator | | Controls | |
	Total	Sympathy	Anger	Locus	Sympathy	Anger	Admonish	Reward
DV: *Cooperate*								
Coefficient	−.01	.00	−.01	.00	.02	−.04	.02	.00
BC 95% CI Lower	−.03	−.02	−.02					
BC 95% CI Upper	.00	.01	.00					
DV: *Admonish*							Cooperate	Reward
Coefficient	.09	.04[a]	.05[a]	.05	−.10**	.15**	.04	−.19†
BC 95% CI Lower	.05	.01	.02					
BC 95% CI Upper	.14	.07	.09					
DV: *Reward*							Cooperate	Admonish
Coefficient	−.04	−.02[a]	−.02[a]	− .04	.05*	−.07**	.00	−.10†
BC 95% CI Lower	−.07	−.04	−.04					
BC 95% CI Upper	−.01	−.01	−.01					

Note. DV = dependent variable. BC = bias corrected. CI = confidence interval. [a] the difference in magnitude of effects for sympathy and anger was not statistically significant (BC 95%: lower = -.06, upper = .03). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$ (two-tailed). $N = 189$.

Table 7

Direct and Indirect Effects of Controllability Attributions on Behavioral Intentions via Emotions

	Indirect Effects			Direct Effects					
				Predictor	Mediator		Controls		
	Total	Sympathy	Anger	Controllability	Sympathy	Anger	Admonish	Reward
DV: *Cooperate*								
Coefficient	−.01	.00	−.01	− .02	.01	−.04†	.02	.00
BC 95% CI Lower	−.03	−.02	−.02					
BC 95% CI Upper	.01	.01	.00					
DV: *Admonish*							Cooperate	Reward
Coefficient	.08	.05[a]	.04[a]	.03	−.10**	.15**	.04	−.20*
BC 95% CI Lower	.04	.02	.01					
BC 95% CI Upper	.13	.09	.07					
DV: *Reward*							Cooperate	Admonish
Coefficient	−.03	−.02[a]	−.01[a]	− .02	.05*	−.08**	.00	−.11*
BC 95% CI Lower	−.06	−.04	−.04					
BC 95% CI Upper	−.01	−.01	−.01					

Note. DV = dependent variable. BC = bias corrected. CI = confidence interval. [a] the difference in magnitude of effects for sympathy and anger was not statistically significant (BC 95%: lower = -.06, upper = .03). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$ (two-tailed). $N = 189$.
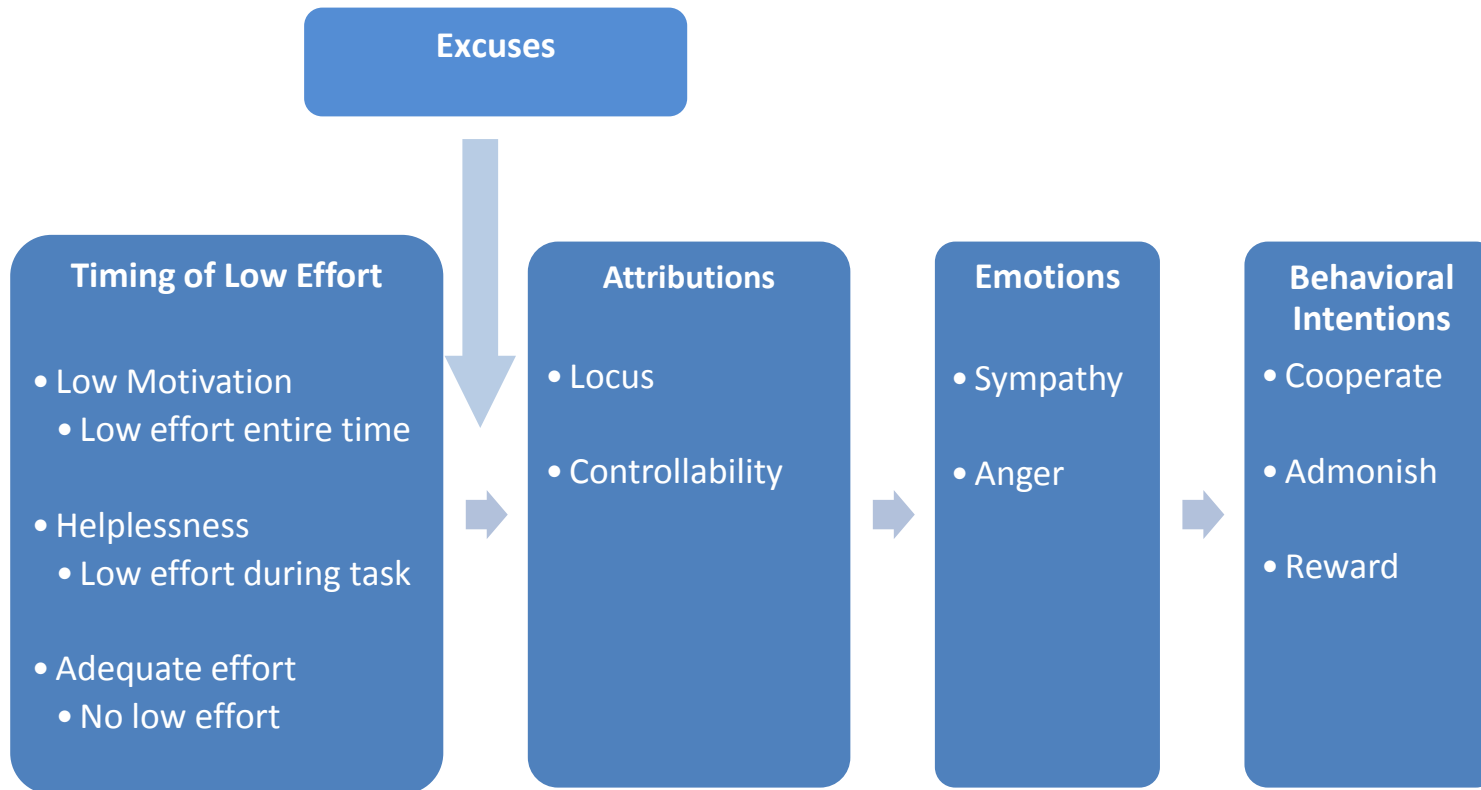
Figure 1. Attribution-emotion-behavioral intentions model.

Appendix A

Proctor Introduction Readings

Sit participants at the middle table and then read the following:

"First, I want to welcome you to a study about how role specialization impacts teamwork behaviors. Currently, organizations are using teams composed of individuals who each have unique specialties. Because of this, we are interested in studying the ***effects different levels of specialization have on teamwork behaviors***. Additionally, we are interested in ***how to tailor feedback to different levels of specialization*** so that it will be the most effective. In this study, some participants will be exposed to training to develop specialties whereas others will not receive specialized training and will not develop a specific expertise. Today, you are a part of the specialty condition so you will be exposed to training to develop expertise in a particular role. We will be interested in your ***reactions*** to the specialization training as well as your ***reactions*** to the performance feedback you will receive. We will also be interested in your ***reactions*** to your teamwork experience."

"Today, the two of you will be ***playing the role of marketing interns*** for High Steppers, a shoe company for men and women. I will be playing the role of your manager's assistant. The Research & Development division of High Steppers has just created a new shoe product. Upper management is very interested in learning about this new product and they are planning to attend a meeting tomorrow to receive this information. Your manager, Sam, believes constructing this presentation would be an excellent developmental opportunity for the two of you. Not only will this assignment help you to develop PowerPoint skills which will be useful in future work and school assignments, but it will also allow you an opportunity to develop teamwork skills and presentation skills as well as an opportunity to impress top management. Because of the developmental opportunities this project offers, Sam has asked me to let the two of you complete the presentation for top management. Before you begin working on the presentation however, Sam wants the two of you to receive specialized training on Microsoft PowerPoint to ensure you both have the necessary skills to create an

exceptional PowerPoint presentation. After completing your specialized training, I will provide you with information concerning the new product as well as specific instructions from Sam on what to include in the presentation. After receiving the instructions, you will have 30 minutes to construct the presentation, using the skills learned from training. Halfway through your time, you will complete a couple of questionnaires informing us on your reactions to the specialized training and your experience working in a team. Finally, you will have time to prepare before completing the presentation and you will be able to decide what you want to do with that time to best prepare you to finish the project. After the time to prepare, you will spend the remaining time completing the presentation."

Pass out 2 Informed Consents to each team member. Instruct them to read and sign one copy. Collect the signed copy.

Now if you will sit at this computer (direct confederate to brown desk) and if you will sit at that computer (direct **participant to wall**).

You are now going to complete a couple of questionnaires so you may click continue.

Role Assignment & PowerPoint Training Instructions

Read the following:

"Before creating the PowerPoint presentation for High Stepper's top management, you will first receive ***specialized training for a particular role***. Like most project teams, each member of the team typically brings a special set of skills to the group. Therefore, Sam wants each of you to learn a special PowerPoint skill which will be helpful for completing the presentation successfully. To determine who will be trained on which specialization, I will toss a coin."
Casually toss a coin.

Announce the participant will be the Text & Smart Art specialty

Announce the confederate will be the Graphs specialty

"In just a few moments, you will complete a 10 minute training program on your PowerPoint specialty. Pay careful attention to the information in the training because it will be useful when composing the marketing presentation. Remember, you are ***learning a specific role*** and your partner will rely on your knowledge gained from this training to complete the marketing presentation. Therefore, it is ***important you devote all your effort*** to understanding and remembering the skills taught in this training."

"Besides receiving training on your own specialty, you will also receive 5 minutes of training which will briefly ***familiarize you with your teammate's role***. Since research has found many benefits in learning about your teammate's skills, this additional training will provide you with an insight into your partner's specialty as well as provide you with skills which you can use to assist your partner in completing the marketing presentation. Therefore, it is important that you also work hard when completing training on your partner's specialty since it will be useful when completing your presentation task."

WALK *over to* ***participant****. Tell them &* ***POINT*** *to open PowerPoint titled* ***Text & Smart Art CT****. Instruct* ***confederate*** *to open PowerPoint titled* ***Graphs CT***

Appendix C

Presentation Instructions

Instruct teammates to move to table.

Pass out High Stepper Product Packets (1 to each team member).

*Instruct them to turn to the page that says **Presentation Instructions**.*

Read the following:

"Now that you have completed your training, it is time for your team to create a presentation describing the new High Steppers' product for top management. To complete this task, Sam has provided you with crucial information about the new product as well as some important figures. Sam has also specified that you should create **three slides with texts and/or smart art** to explain the information as well as **three slides with graphs** to visually show the figures. Additionally, Sam has **specified which types of graphs** are expected. **Turn to the next page** to see the letter Sam has written and to see the three graphs Sam wants included in the presentation."

"The graphs include:
1. A **bar graph** showing projected sales by month with error estimates included
2. A **pie graph** of projected sales by region with a breakdown by demographics for the Northeast region
3. A graph of your choice that shows projected overall sales for each quarter as well as what percentage of those sales comes from online sales versus physical stores.
Other than those specifications, you are free to determine what information to include in your presentation and how to format your slides."

*Instruct them to turn back to the page that says **Presentation Instructions**.*

"You will have time to read over the information packet and determine how you will complete the project. Then, you will each return to your separate computers and begin working on the presentation. You will have **15 minutes to work on the**

presentation now. After that, I will briefly look over your work and provide some *initial feedback to each member*. Although this is a team task, I recommend that you focus all of your attention on your specialized slides during the first 15 minutes. However, you are welcome to help each other at any time. After the 15 minutes, you will be given some questionnaires to complete while I create a more detailed feedback sheet for each of you. Using this feedback, you will have time to *decide how you want to prepare before finishing the presentation*. After preparing, you will both have an *additional 15 minutes to complete* the presentation."

"Although you will receive individual feedback, *this is a team project* and you will receive an *overall group score* after completing the presentation. Therefore, I encourage you to work together, especially during those last 15 minutes, to create the best possible presentation."

"Also, if your team receives an *exceptional team score* at the conclusion of the project, you will *receive 1 additional credit*. However, if your team receives an *unsatisfactory team score* at the conclusion of the project, you will *lose 1 of your credit* hours. Therefore, it is important you work together to create the best possible project to increase the likelihood of receiving extra credit.

DO NOT READ. EXPLAIN and SHOW: "You may now read over the materials. You (point to the participant) will take over the text and smart art requirements since that was the specialty you were trained on and that you (pointing to the confederate) will be in charge of the graph slides. Once you develop a plan, return to your computers and begin working. Are there any questions?"

Appendix D

Individual Feedback Guide

Have both participant and confederate look at each other's screens during feedback.
*Provide individual feedback to the **participant**: (Do not read directly from this page)*
- This looks **good**
- You definitely look like you are **on the right track**
- **Sam will be pleased** with this
- I like how you used
    - Animation
    - SmartArt
    - Short Sentences
    - Good colors/backgrounds
    - Good font size/color
- I'm going to need to prepare a more detailed feedback sheet but **overall** it looks like you are **on the right track**.

*The confederate will provide the **excuse** "This is really hard, it is nothing like what I learned in training"* (excuse condition only)

*Provide individual feedback to the **confederate**: (Do not read directly from this page)*
- Umm, alright well this looks like you **still have a lot of work** to do
- **Sam** would definitely **not be pleased** with this product
- It looks like you are **missing two of the graphs**
- Also, this one is **missing the error bars** that Sam wanted
- I'm going to need to prepare a more detailed feedback sheet for you too…
- But **overall** I think you have a **lot of work ahead of you** if you want to turn in a presentation that Sam would like

*The confederate will provide the **excuse** "This is really hard, it is nothing like what I learned in training"* (excuse condition only)

Response: Well hopefully the detailed feedback will help and you will just have to work hard during the remaining 15 minutes. You can also work together during the remaining 15 minutes.

Appendix E

Questionnaire Instructions

Read the following:

"While I am preparing more detailed feedback, I have a couple of questionnaires for you to fill out so I can capture your **reactions** to the **specialized training**, **feedback**, and **teamwork experience**. You will also be given the opportunity to **choose how to prepare** before completing the presentation. It is important that you take this preparation time seriously. Remember, if you receive an **exceptional team score** at the conclusion of the project you will receive **1 additional credit** hour. However, if you receive an **unsatisfactory team score** you will **lose a credit hour**."

"Once you have completed your questionnaires I will provide you with more detailed feedback to give you more guidance and then you will have another 15 minutes to complete your presentation. After you complete the presentation I will provide you with more individual feedback as well as your team score."

Instruct participants to take questionnaires.

Read the following when you see the STOP screen (for the 1st time):

"For this questionnaire, please use your mouse to CLICK on your answer. DO NOT use the keyboard for this questionnaire. Again, please use your mouse when completing this questionnaire. Are there any questions? Ok. You may now hit continue."

Read the following when you see the STOP screen (for the 2nd time):

"For the final questionnaire, please use your mouse to CLICK on your answer. DO NOT use the keyboard for this questionnaire. Again, please use your mouse when completing this questionnaire. Are there any questions? Ok. You may now hit continue."

Appendix F

Debriefing

Read the following:

"Instead of finishing the presentation, the study is actually completed and we would like to thank you for participating in our study. In psychology research, it is sometimes necessary to conceal our hypotheses because when people know what is being studied they often alter their behaviors. However, we do not want you to leave misinformed, so we will now tell you what we were actually studying.

The purpose of this study is to examine how teammates respond to poorly performing team members. Additionally we were testing whether the timing of different levels of effort as well as excuses and cross-training (training on your teammate's role) impacts the emotions and behavioral intent of a teammate towards a poor performer. We were also testing whether these manipulations impact team members' abilities to recognize external causes of poor performance, since these are commonly overlooked.

In order to test these hypotheses, we used a research assistant to play the role of your poorly performing teammate. We then manipulated whether the research assistant demonstrated adequate effort or low effort as well as the timing of the low effort behaviors. We then measured what you thought caused the poor performance to see whether different conditions increased the likelihood of recognizing external causes. Also we measured your emotions and intended behavior towards the poorly performing teammate.

This question is important because organizations are relying more and more on teams, causing businesses to become more concerned with how to improve teamwork behaviors in hopes of ultimately leading to more effective teams. One way to improve teamwork behaviors is to better understand how teammates respond to poor performers as well as to find ways to increase the likelihood of teammates responding with helping rather than punishing behaviors. Also, team members typically encounter external factors which can cause them to perform poorly. However, these external factors are typically overlooked by teammates. Finding ways to increase the likelihood of teammates recognizing these factors (e.g., providing excuses, giving effort) could increase the chances of teammates responding with more helpful rather than punishing behaviors towards the teammate. Because of these benefits, we used a research assistant so we could create a team with a poorly performing teammate and so we could manipulate the effort level and excuses provided.

As far as the number of credits is concerned, you will be receiving 2 credits for your time here today. Although during the study we suggested the possibility of increasing or decreasing this number, two credits is the number you were told you would receive before signing up for the study and this is the number you will actually receive. Because emotions are difficult to measure unless the participant is highly engaged in the situation,

we suggested the possibility of receiving additional credits to increase your engagement in the team aspect of this project. Without your teammate's performance having a direct impact on your performance it would be difficult for you to actually care about his or her performance in this setting. Additionally, businesses typically reward teams as a group so this process mirrors actual organizational practices.

We apologize that we could not reveal our true hypotheses to you up front, but we hope you can see why it was necessary to keep this information from you. When people know exactly what the researcher is studying, they often change their behavior, thus making their responses unusable for drawing conclusions about human nature and experiences. **For this reason, we ask that you please not discuss this study with other students who might participate anytime in the next year. Thank you for your cooperation.**

Collect 1 signed copy of the debriefing form.

Have them complete final 1 item question

Save PPT using ID to HighstepPPT folder

Close out of MediaLab completely

Appendix G

Measure: Attributions towards Teammate

Instructions: Think about the reason for YOUR performance so far. In other words, what caused your performance?

The following screens will ask you about your impressions and opinions of this cause. For each question, there will be a scale from 1-9 with anchors at the extreme ends. If neither anchor exactly reflects your opinions of this cause, then pick a number between 1 and 9 that most accurately reflects your opinion of what caused YOUR performance.

Is the cause of YOUR performance something:

1.That reflects an aspect of yourself	9-1	Reflects an aspect of the situation
2. Manageable by you	9-1	Not manageable by you
3. You are responsible for	9-1	You are not responsible for
4. Shown in yourself	9-1	Shown in your situation
5. From you	9-1	Not from you
6. You can regulate	9-1	You cannot regulate
7. About you	9-1	About the situation
8. Over which you have control	9-1	Over which you have no control
9. Related to yourself	9-1	Related to your situation
10. Over which you have power	9-1	Over which you have no power

Instructions: Think about the reason for your TEAMMATE's performance so far. In other words, what caused your TEAMMATE's performance?

The following screens will ask you about your impressions and opinions of this cause. For each question, there will be a scale from 1-9 with anchors at the extreme ends. If neither anchor exactly reflects your opinions of this cause, then pick a number between 1 and 9 that most accurately reflects your opinion of what caused your TEAMMATE's performance.

Is the cause of your TEAMMATE's performance something:

1.That reflects an aspect of your teammate	9-1	Reflects an aspect of the situation
2. Manageable by your teammate	9-1	Not manageable by your teammate
3. Your teammate is responsible for	9-1	Your teammate is not responsible for
4. Shown in your teammate	9-1	Shown in your teammate's situation
5. From your teammate	9-1	Not from your teammate
6. Your teammate can regulate	9-1	Your teammate cannot regulate
7. About your teammate	9-1	About the situation
8. Over which your teammate has control	9-1	Over which your teammate has no control
9. Related to your teammate	9-1	Related to your teammate's situation
10. Over which your teammate has power	9-1	Over which your teammate has no power

Appendix H

Measure: Emotions towards Teammate

Instructions: For each emotion, click on the number that best describes how you felt TOWARDS your TEAMMATE after hearing the feedback for the High Stepper's New Product project.

**Not At
 All**   **Somewhat**   **Extremely**

1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7-------8-------9-------10

I felt:

Anger items:
1. Mad
2. Angry
3. Irritated
4. Aggravated
5. Upset

Sympathy items:
6. Sympathy
7. Compassion
8. Pity
9. Understanding
10. Empathy

Filler items:
11. Joy
12. Pleased
13. Happy
14. Satisfied
15. Enthusiastic

(Note items were randomized)

Appendix I

Measure: Behavioral Intentions towards Teammate

Highly **Un**likely	Unlikely	Neither Likely nor Unlikely	Likely	Highly Likely
1	2	3	4	5

Indicate how likely you would want to:

Cooperative Items:
1. Collaborate with my teammate to complete and create a high-quality presentation.
2. Cooperate with my teammate to complete the presentation.
3. Work with my teammate to figure out the best way to complete the presentation.
4. Communicate with my teammate to decide how to create an exceptional presentation.

Admonish Items:
1. Tell my teammate to "get his/her act together" or leave the team.
2. Tell my teammate to take this project more seriously so we can receive a positive evaluation.
3. Criticize my teammate for not performing well.
4. Have my teammate focus on how the goal is not reached and suggest that he/she needs to work harder.
5. Have my teammate recognize the consequences of poor performance and explain to him/her that it will not be tolerated.

Filler Items:
1. Have my teammate review the training on his/her specialty that he/she watched earlier.
2. Suggest that my teammate should receive additional training on his/her specialty.
3. Praise my teammate for performing well.
4. Suggest that my teammate should ask the assistant for the best way to complete the task.
5. Tell my teammate he/she has done a great job and should keep it up.
6. Have the assistant teach my teammate how to perform the task.

Measure: Extra Credit

Instructions: Think about your contributions and your teammate's contributions so far. Now, assume you can decide how to distribute the credit hours. Remember currently you have an option of receiving an extra credit for exceptional performance, making 3 total possible credits available. CLICK on a number to indicate how many credits you would give yourself as well as your teammate for this study.

I would give MYSELF _____ credits.

| 0 | 0.5 | 1 | 1.5 | 2 | 2.5 | 3 |

I would give my TEAMMATE _____ credits.

| 0 | 0.5 | 1 | 1.5 | 2 | 2.5 | 3 |

Appendix K

Measure: Preference for Teamwork

Instructions: Please read each statement below. Indicate how much you agree with each statement by selecting the response that most applies to you.

1. If given the choice, I would prefer to work alone rather than as part of a team. (reverse)

Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

2. I find that working as a member of a team increases my ability to perform effectively.

Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

3. I generally prefer to work as part of a team.

Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree nor Disagree		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix L

Measure: Manipulation Checks

Instructions: Please read each statement below. Select one number for each question that best describes your reactions towards the High Stepper's New Product Presentation project.

1. The feedback I received from the assistant was:

Extremely Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Neither Accurate nor Inaccurate	Accurate	Extremely Accurate
1	2	3	4	5

2. The feedback my TEAMMATE received from the assistant was:

Extremely Inaccurate	Inaccurate	Neither Accurate nor Inaccurate	Accurate	Extremely Accurate
1	2	3	4	5

3. I received training on my teammate's specialties:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

4. Overall, I would rate MY performance so far as:

Needs a lot of Improvement	Needs Some Improvement	Satisfactory	Good	Exceptional
1	2	3	4	5

5. So far, I believe MY assigned role is:

Extremely Difficult	Somewhat Difficult	Neither Easy nor Difficult	Somewhat Easy	Extremely Easy
1	2	3	4	5

6. So far, I believe MY effort has been:

Extremely Low	Somewhat Low	Average	Somewhat High	Extremely High
1	2	3	4	5

7. Overall, I would rate my TEAMMATE's performance so far as:

Needs a lot of Improvement	Needs Some Improvement	Satisfactory	Good	Exceptional
1	2	3	4	5

8. So far, I believe my TEAMMATE's assigned role is:

Extremely Difficult	Somewhat Difficult	Neither Easy nor Difficult	Somewhat Easy	Extremely Easy
1	2	3	4	5

9. So far, I believe my TEAMMATE's effort has been:

Extremely Low	Somewhat Low	Average	Somewhat High	Extremely High
1	2	3	4	5

10. In general, I like this PowerPoint task:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. In general, I like my teammate:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5