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THE INFORMAL PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK PROCESS: A PARTIAL TEST OF LARSON'S PREDICTIVE MODEL

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology
The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

by

David E. Hyatt

1986

APPROVAL SHEET

This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

David E. Hyatt

Approved, June 1986

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, who shake their heads but allow me to grow.

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I would like to thank quite a few people: first and foremost, my coach, Debbie Foss-Goodman, who believed that I was worth the effort; Bruce and Dannie, who allowed me to work at my convenience, not theirs; Lisa and Melanie who coded my data; Mr. Schwartz, who offered encouragement, support, and diversions; Hedy, who was a never ending source of the appropriate amount of love, motivation, and honesty; and Sheila Murphy, who instilled a desire to seek knowledge and ask questions.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to examine the predictive model of informal performance feedback as proposed by Larson (1984). As Larson's model was large and complex it was felt that a complete test of the model was not feasible and one dimension, perceived subordinate responsibility, was examined in detail. Ninety five subjects, 47 supervisors and 48 students, read a scenario in which a subordinate performed a task at one of three levels: below average, average, or above average. Additionally, the scenario reflected the supposed cause of the subordinate's performance to be either ability or effort. Subjects then completed a packet of questionnaires containing reactions to the performance, supervisory style, background, and the Locus of Control Questionnaire. Results of Chi Square analysis revealed that the majority of subjects gave positive feedback in all conditions, and that supervisors and students differed significantly in the three components of feedback examined in the present research: amount, valence, and intensity. The finding that supervisors and students respond differently argues for the further use of supervisors in Industrial/Organizational research to increase generalizability.

THE INFORMAL PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK PROCESS: A PARTIAL TEST OF LARSON'S PREDICTIVE MODEL

INTRODUCTION

The concept of feedback dates back to the cybernetic theory of Wiener (1950). Wiener, defining feedback in the context of the functioning of mechanical systems, stated that "... control of a machine on the basis of its actual performance rather than its expected performance is known as feedback" (1950, p. 35). Katz and Kahn (1978) extended this concept of feedback to the organization, maintaining it was a necessary component of a functioning system in that it prevented entropy and enabled the system to adapt to a changing environment. However, feedback within a social organization requires the presence of human beings who bring to each situation their own cognitive processes. A mechanical system, which contains "non-thinking" machines, does not have this problem and the feedback process is simple and straightforward. The cognitive processes of humans determine how the feedback is interpreted and acted upon by the subordinate, and, equally as important, how the supervisor reacts to the subordinate's response. The purpose of the present study was to examine the informal feedback process and the effects of attributions of causality on that process. As used in the present study, informal feedback differs from formal feedback in that the former is feedback that does not necessitate a formal written report of commendation or poor performance. Using Larson's (1984)

model as the framework for the study, the roles of antecedent variables, consequent variables, and situational factors, as they influence the delivery of feedback were examined. By manipulating variables relating to causality, a major factor in Larson's model, and holding constant variables that could be controlled, it was hoped that a more accurate view of the feedback process would result.

The impact of feedback on the behavior of groups and individuals has been the subject of a vast array of research (Ammons, 1956; Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Kane & Lawler, 1979). Feedback has been described as serving two functions: directive and incentive. Directive functioning serves to keep goal directed behavior on course, while incentive functioning serves to stimulate greater effort by the individual (Payne & Hauty, 1955). Generally, feedback has been shown to have the following influences on the individual:

- 1. positive effects on learning and motivation
- 2. a greater impact if it is specific
- 3. less effect if it is delayed
- 4. to cause a decrease in performance when it is decreased (Nadler, 1979).

The effects of feedback on group performance are somewhat more difficult to interpret due to variables contained in the group

setting (see Annett, 1969, for a review).

Nadler (1979) maintained that feedback in a group setting is distinctly different from feedback to individuals because of two factors. The first is that the information given to the group is confounded by the actions of other group members. This makes it difficult for an individual to determine how the feedback is reflective of his/her own performance. The second factor deals with the ability of the individual to act on the information because the inherent nature of the group, its being a group not an individual, limits the individuals ability to act on that information. Nadler (1979) presented a comprehensive review of the effects of feedback on the task group. The present study was limited to the study of the delivery of feedback to the individual.

Larson's Predictive Model

The delivery of feedback. Larson (1984) proposed a preliminary model that attempted to study the factors influencing the delivery of feedback. Larson's model is a dynamic one attempting to "treat the delivery of informal performance feedback as a behavioral variable at the hub of a complex network of causal relationships" (1984, p. 44). Larson's model is an attempt to provide a comprehensive overview of the entire feedback process and to provide a basis for predicting when and under what

circumstances the supervisor will give feedback to a subordinate.

Larson divides his model into the following three aspects: antecedent variables that influence the delivery of the informal performance feedback. These include cognitive, affective, and situational factors. Second, consequent variables, which include the post-feedback work related behaviors and attitudes, and the effects that the feedback can have on future feedback giving behaviors. Last, the feedback giving behavior itself, which is influenced by both the antecedent and consequent variables in its likelihood to be given. This aspect also includes related factors such as timing, frequency, and accuracy of the feedback.

Antecedent variables. Cognitive antecedents are those factors that may affect the "supervisor's perception of and judgements about their subordinates and their subordinate's task performance" (Larson, 1984, p. 45) and include: salience, the distinctiveness of a subordinate's task performance; perceived subordinate responsibility, the degree to which the subordinate is perceived to be personally responsible for the performance; and implicit theories, the personal theory the supervisor ascribes to about the efficacy and usefulness of informal performance feedback.

Salience represents an important factor in that if a subordinate's performance deviates from the norm in any way it is

likely to come to the attention of the supervisor (Taylor & Thompson, 1982) and therefore elicit feedback. Perceived subordinate responsibility, while actually representing causality, is vital to the feedback process as it behooves a supervisor to give feedback to the subordinate whose performance will most benefit from the feedback. This holds for poor as well as good performance. There is a need to commend those who do well in addition to chastizing those who can do better. Perceived subordinate responsibility was a major independent variable and will be discussed in further detail later, as will the other independent variables.

Implicit theories the supervisor has about the efficacy of feedback may affect the feedback process in that a supervisor who feels the feedback is a waste of time may not give feedback, whereas a supervisor who believes it is effective may use feedback more (Mitchell, Green, & Wood, 1981). An important component of the implicit theory was thought to be the supervisor's locus of control.

The locus of control variable deals with how people view causal relationships (Rotter, 1966). If a person perceives a reinforcement as following some action of his/her own, but not being entirely contingent upon his/her action, then he/she typically perceives the action to be the result of luck or fate.

This person is said to have an external locus of control.

However, if the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his/her own performance or his/her own relatively permanent characteristics, the person is said to have an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966).

Rotter's I-E scale (1966) is a unidimensional scale with the items presented in a forced-choice format. Subjects express preference for either an "external" choice or an "internal" choice, receiving points for external choices. Other researchers have proposed that the I-E scale is multidimensional and have partitioned Rotter's scale into clusters (e.g. Abrahamson, Schluderman, & Schluderman, 1973; Dixon, Mckee, & McRae, 1976).

Mirels (1970) reported that a factor analysis of the I-E scale provided two factors; one concerning personal control, the other political control. These two factors have been replicated on numerous occasions (Abrahamson, Schluderman, & Schluderman, 1973; Cherlin & Bourque, 1974; Joe & Jahn, 1973; MacDonald & Tseng, 1971). Reid & Ware (1973) have found two factors as well, however they proposed that the factors pertain to the perceived source of control rather than the target of the control (Dyal, 1984). As Dyal (1984) reports a highly significant item overlap between Mirels' original two factors and later replications

research.

Affective antecedents are those that bear on the affective relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate. In Larson's model they include the valence of performance feedback, positive or negative feedback about the performance; and the supervisor's affective relationship with the subordinates (1984). Feedback valence, the major dependent variable in the present study, will be discussed in greater detail later.

Situational antecedents are those concerned with the "characteristics of the situation in which the subordinate's performance occurs" (Larson, 1984, p. 52), and include: task and outcome dependence, the extent to which the supervisor is involved or related to the task or outcome in question; and norms, roles, and characteristics of the environment the supervisor works in.

Task dependence is the degree to which completion of a supervisor's task depends directly upon the successful completion of other tasks by the subordinate. Outcome dependence is the degree to which supervisor's outcomes are related to successful completion of the task by the subordinate. As these two factors would serve to make performance of a subordinate more salient to the supervisor, and have been shown to influence supervisor behaviors (Lord & Rowzee, 1979), it was expected that they would have an influence on informal performance feedback. To this

extent they were held at a constant level of high task and outcome dependence in the study to encourage feedback from the supervisors. Norms and roles, being characteristics of the environment and the supervisor are uncontrollable.

Consequent variables. Consequent variables are also divided into three major categories. One, the impact on the subordinate's subsequent performance, was irrelevant in the study of supervisory behavior and is not reviewed here. The two categories of interest deal with the cognitive and affective consequences of giving feedback to subordinates. These variables are all concerned with the supervisor's cognitive and affective attitudes after the feedback has been given, and as such were examined in the present study. The cognitive variables included:

- Salience of subsequent performance in which the subordinate's future performance becomes more salient to the supervisor.
- 2. Self-perceived power and control, which concerns the supervisor's self-perceived efficacy in dealing with subordinate performance.
- 3. Implicit theories about the feedback process whereby the supervisor may or may not alter his/her own theories about the use of feedback.
 - 4. Memory based judgements about subordinate performance

which concerns the way a subordinate's performance affects the supervisor's memory of that subordinate's performance with poor performance better remembered due to the higher frequency of negative feedback (Larson, 1984).

Affective consequences propose that the supervisor may be motivated to alter his/her own affect about the subordinate to make it consistent with the valence of the feedback. There are much data supporting the existence of the phenomenon (Aronson, 1978). These factors, however, are not crucial to the proposed test of Larson's model and as such are not reviewed here.

In order to more fully examine the role of feedback valence and perceived subordinate causality/responsibilty on supervisory feedback behavior, the other variables in Larson's model served as controls where relevant in the present study. For example, as the relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate can affect the feedback process, in the present study the supervisor dealt with a subordinate with whom he/she had a neutral affect.

Independent Variables

Perceived subordinate responsibility. Perceived responsibility is a complex variable. As it is important to give feedback to the person(s) who will most benefit from the feedback, it is also necessary to determine who is personally responsible for the performance. Two variables that should affect perceived

responsibility are the structural characteristics of the task and situational requirements for task completion (Larson, 1984).

These were held constant at a level to suggest that the subordinate's behavior was the cause of the performance not the task or the situation.

Kelly and Thibaut (1978) proposed that a person is more likely to be held personally responsible for performance on a disjunctive task, one in which he/she works alone, than in a conjunctive task, where several people are required to work together. Also, one is more likely to be held personally responsible if all of the situational requirements are present, such as time and tools. However, even if the structural characteristics and the situational requirements suggest a person was responsible, it is not always clear if the person was the sole cause.

Green and Mitchell (1979) have applied the work of Heider (1958) and Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, and Rosenbaum (1972) to industrial settings in an attempt to explain the attributions of responsibility supervisors make for subordinates' performance. Kelley's covariation principle (1972) and Weiner et al.'s (1972) distinction between effort and ability are the two most relevant aspects of attribution theory and are discussed below.

Supervisors supposedly apply Kelley's covariation principle,

which states that effects are attributed to those causal factors with which they uniquely covary than to those which are relatively independent, to assign "responsibilty for performance to the one potential cause... with which the performance appears to covary" (Larson, 1984, p. 47) by using three pieces of information:

- the subordinate's consistency while performing the task (consistency)
- performance by the subordinate in related tasks (distinctiveness)
- the supervisor's impression of the performance of others on the same task (consensus).

The definitions of consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus as presented above are Larson's interpretation of Kelley's original formulation of the covariation principle (1972). However, Kelley's (1958) definitions are somewhat different. In Kelley's (1958) model, molded to fit an industrial setting, consistency is the same performance in different settings, circumstances, or times; distinctiveness concerns performance that is different from another employee's performance; and consensus is agreement of multiple supervisor's as to the performance of the subordinate in question. While there is some lack of consistency between Larson's and Kelley's definitions, Larson's definitions were used in developing the scenarios to give an accurate test of

Larson's model.

By manipulating combinations of these three principles one is able to suggest internal or external causality (dispositional vs. situational factors, Weiner et al., 1972). To suggest a dispositional or internal cause, the subordinate's performance on a given task must be consistent over time (high consistency), the subordinate must generally perform at the same level on other tasks (low distinctiveness), and the other subordinates must perform differently (low consensus). Weiner et al., (1972) have suggested that if the subordinate is perceived as the cause for the event, there is still the possibility of an effort or an ability attribution (Is the performance due to ability or effort?). Both ability and effort are internal attributions.

According to Weiner et al. (1972), a subordinate's effort is a relatively unstable potential cause for performance while ability is relatively stable. Since effort is relatively unstable, the subordinate should have more control over his/her performance and would be seen as being more likely to affect a change in his/her performance. However, if ability is seen as the potential cause, it being stable should make it relatively impervious to effects from feedback. It has been demonstrated that in observing students who perform well because of effort, raters are inclined to give more positive reinforcement as well as

more negative reinforcement to those who perform poorly because of lack of effort (Weiner et al., 1972). Knowlton and Mitchell (1980) have provided some support for this relationship.

In the present study the levels of the independent variable were manipulated to suggest either ability attributions or effort attributions for a subordinate's performance. For example, to suggest that a subordinate's performance was due to his lack of ability, an internal cause was suggested via high consistency, low distinctiveness, and low consensus, with additional information that suggested that the subordinate was trying very hard but lacked the ability to succeed. To suggest poor performance due to low effort, the same internal attributions were used but the additional information suggested that the subordinate could perform well (had adequate ability) but put forth little effort with resulting poor performance. It was expected that subjects who read the effort scenarios would feel that the subordinate was able to affect a change if the performance was poor if feedback was given, or that the subordinate was more deserving of praise in the case of good performance and would receive more feedback.

Level of performance/feedback valence. Feedback valence has been examined in a number of ways. Tesser and Rosen (1975) maintained the empirical evidence suggested a general reluctance of supervisors to give negative information. In an industrial

setting, however, giving negative information is a vital part of keeping the operation running at an acceptable level of efficiency. To overcome this general reluctance the supervisor may:

- 1. not give negative feedback
- 2. delay the delivery of negative feedback
- 3. distort the negative feedback so that it is less negative than it should be (Tesser & Rosen, 1975).

 Fisher (1979) provided support for the third alternative but has also found that negative feedback is given more quickly than positive feedback in an attempt to improve poor performance. Thus it has been shown that different valences of feedback are transmitted differently. It follows then that a subordinate who performs poorly may receive feedback that is different from a subordinate who performs well on a task resulting in differential feedback across levels of performance conditions.

Other controlled variables. Task variables such as conjunctive/disjunctive and requirements for task completion were held at a level that suggested a personal attribution for the cause of the subordinate's performance. As mentioned earlier, if the attributions for the cause of the subordinates performance are suggested to be external little or no feedback should be given.

Similarly, to motivate the supervisors to give feedback, task and

outcome dependence were held at a high level. The rationale for this comes from Galbraith (1977) who maintained that the close interaction necessitated by the high dependence increases the salience of the performance.

The final variable which was potentially under the control of the experimenter concerned the affect toward the subordinate. In order not to discourage the attributions of personal responsibility, the relationship of the subordinate to the supervisor was held neutral. This is due to the findings of Jones and Nisbett (1972) which suggested that affect can bias the attribution process so that liked individuals are less likely to be seen as personally responsible for negative outcomes. It is also due to the suggestion that if a subordinate has a positive relationship with the supervisor it may be jeopardized by the giving of negative feedback (Larson, 1984).

Hypotheses

Hypotheses can be broken down into four categories: valence of feedback, amount of feedback, intensity of feedback, and locus of control predictions. It was expected that, overall, supervisors who had real supervisory experience would differ in their feedback from students, who would have little or no supervisory experience.

Valence. It was hypothesized that feedback would be given

differentially across conditions regardless of attributions to ability or effort. Specifically, it was proposed that more negative feedback would be given in the below average conditions and more positive feedback would be given in the average and above average conditions. This was proposed in light of the need to give accurate feedback to improve performance.

Amount. It was expected that there would be more feedback in all of the attribution to effort conditions than in the attribution to ability conditions. Specifically, it was expected that there would be more feedback in the below average conditions due to effort than in the below average conditions due to ability. Similarly, more feedback would be given in the above average conditions due to effort. This was hypothesized because it was felt that if a supervisor thought that the performance was due to the subordinate's effort he/she would make more of an effort to change that performance.

Intensity. The intensity of the feedback, as measured by the supervisor's response to a question having him rate his feedback on an intensity scale, was hypothesized to be different across the six conditions. Specifically, feedback would be more negatively intense in the below average conditions due to effort, and more positively intense in the above average due to effort. This was expected in light of Lanzetta and Hannah's (1969) finding that

poor performance by trainees who were believed to lack ability evoked less punitive reactions from a trainer than did similar performances by trainees who were presumed to possess high ability. Additionally, it was proposed that there would be less of a change in the ability attribution conditions compared to the effort conditions.

Locus of control. It was expected that supervisors with an internal locus of control would give more feedback than supervisors with an external locus of control. It was expected that there would be a negative correlation of high externality with amount of feedback. Additionally it was proposed that supervisor's with an internal locus of control would predict a more positive change in performance as a result of their feedback because those with an internal locus of control would expect that they could influence the environment and have an effect on the subordinate.

METHOD

Subjects

The original plan of this study was to use only supervisors in real organizations to add generalizability to the results.

Only 47 supervisors were made available to the researcher. As this was about half of the intended number of subjects another dimension, occupation (student or supervisor), was added to the study. Subjects were therefore comprised of 47 supervisors and 48 students. The supervisors were from three organizations in the Southeastern Virginia area and from an organization in Northwestern Pennsylvania. All supervisors were managers in these organizations.

Of the supervisors, 50% had some college or graduate training. They ranged in age from 24 to 60 with a mean age of 41, had been in their position for an average of 13.5 years, supervised from 1 to 230 subordinates, with a mean of 22.7, and a median of 10.0, and 75% felt that they had quite a bit of experience in that position. There were 41 male supervisors and 6 female supervisors.

The students were all male undergraduates recruited from Introductory Psychology classes of a southeastern college, and received one hour credit for their participation.

Stimulus Materials

Supervisors and students received identical materials (see Appendix). All subjects received a scenario from one of twelve possible that represented the factorial arrangement of the experimental conditions.

Scenarios. The scenarios were constructed with the attributions of ability and effort in mind so that the subject would feel that a subordinate's performance, illustrated in the scenario, was due either to his ability or his effort at the task. Additionally, three performance conditions were used with the subordinate performing either below average, average, or above average. To examine potential scenario effects two scenario settings were used, a forging industry and a brewery. The two scenario types were exactly the same with the exception that the brewery scenarios took place in a brewery while the forging scenarios took place in a forge shop. The scenarios were developed in accordance with a Manufacturing Manager's suggestions on what actually transpired in industrial settings. The scenarios were pretested using managers and students and found to elicit the proper attributions of effort and ability.

<u>Dependent measures</u>. The dependent measures were developed to examine the feedback the subject would have given the subordinate in that situation. An open-ended format was used to allow the

subject considerable freedom in responding to the situation. Subjects then rated their own feedback on a dimension of intensity. This was an 11-point scale ranging from intensely negative through neutral to intensely positive. Other questions were asked requiring subjects to rate how responsible they felt for the pre and postfeedback performance, how likely they felt the subordinate's behavior would change as a result of their feedback, and how accurate they felt their feedback was in this and other situations. Additionally, measures to check the manipulations were used as were questions examining the subject's past supervisory behavior, experience as a supervisor, and the supervisor's locus of control.

Scoring of responses. Independent, blind raters coded the responses of the supervisors into aspects of the feedback dealing with the valence, intensity, complexity, directiveness, and amount of feedback given by the subject. It was hoped that the raters would give a more accurate measure of the intensity and valence of the feedback.

Procedure

Supervisors. Organizations were contacted through personnel offices. A sample scenario and questionnaire were sent to the personnel office along with a letter explaining the purpose of the study and the rationale behind it. If the organization was

receptive to the study the actual stimulus materials (consisting of randomly selected scenarios and questionnaires) were delivered to the organization. There was a cover letter attached to each questionnaire that explained the purpose of the study and gave the necessary instructions. The order of the questionnaires were: scenario, reactions to the performance, manipulation checks, background of the supervisor, supervisory style, and locus of control scale. Stimulus materials were distributed by the personnel offices to the supervisors who completed and returned them to the personnel office. Completed stimulus materials were then returned to the experimenter.

Students. All 48 student subjects participated during one data collection session. Subjects were solicited for an experiment on performance evaluations. Subjects were told that the study would measure their reactions to a subordinate's performance and that they were to put themselves in the position of the manager involved. Additionally they were asked to relate any supervisory experience that they may have had in the past to that situation. The subjects were told in detail the rationale for the study and given an opportunity to ask questions. No mention of the specific manipulations of ability and effort was made. Subjects then filled out and signed a consent form and began the study. The order of the questionnaires were the same

for the students as the supervisors. Subjects were given one hour to complete the questionnaire and told that they could leave after they were finished.

Raters. After all data had been collected, two independent raters who were blind to the predictions and manipulations rated the feedback that the subject had given to the subordinate in the scenario. They rated the feedback on measures of valence, intensity, complexity, amount, and the delivery of the feedback in question.

RESULTS

Rater Data

In an effort to objectively rate the feedback that subjects gave to the subordinate it was necessary to have the raters score the responses of the subjects on a multitude of dimensions. doing this it was hoped that any discrepancy between how "positive" a subject felt his/her feedback was and how positive it actually was could be examined. Of primary interest was the rater's scoring of the valence and intensity of the subject's feedback, as well as the reliability coefficient between the two raters on those dimensions. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the raters reliability on their impression of the subject's valence and intensity of feedback. A reliability coefficient of .29 (p < .01) was found for the valence dimension, and a coefficient of .36 (p < .01) was found for the intensity dimension. While these coefficients are significant they account for only 8% and 13% of the shared variability and cautioned the experimenter against using the rater's data. Consequently the subject's own data was utilized for the majority of the analyses. The raters showed a reliability coefficient of .62 (p < .001) on the amount of feedback allowing their ratings to be collapsed along that dimension.

Manipulation Checks

To determine the effectiveness of the scenarios in suggesting that the internal cause of the subordinate's performance was either his ability or his effort, 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 (performance level x attribution x type of scenario x occupation) analyses of variance (ANOVA) were performed on the four dependent variables designed to assess attributions. They were as follows:

- 1. a question asking if the subordinate could have tried harder
 - 2. a question asking if the subordinate tried his best
- a question asking if the subordinate's performance was due to his ability
- 4. a question asking if the subordinate's performance was due to his lack of ability..

The 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA on the try harder dimension revealed a significant three way interaction of attribution x type of scenario x occupation, \underline{F} (1, 68) = 5.98, \underline{p} < .05, as well as a main effect for attribution that approached significance, \underline{F} (1, 68) = 3.75, \underline{p} = .057. Examination of the means presented in Table 1 of the three way interaction suggests that managers made an attribution distinction in the forging scenarios but not in the brewery scenarios, and students on the whole made little attribution distinctions on this dimension in the scenarios.

Insert Table 1 about here

The 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 aNoVA on the tried his best dimension revealed a four way interaction of performance level x attribution x type of scenario x occupation, \underline{F} (2, 67) = 3.89, \underline{p} < .05. As an examination of Figure 1 illustrates, neither the students nor the managers were consistent in their attributions in the different types of scenarios on this dimension.

Insert Figure 1 about here

It appears that in the brewery scenarios which the managers read and in the forging scenarios which the students read, the ability effort distinctions in the performance levels was the most pronounced. It appears then that these were the only places where the manipulations worked on this dimension. This has ramifications for the intensity variable discussed below

The 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA on the ability question provided two significant main effects: type of scenario \underline{F} (1, 67) = 4.51, p < .05, and performance level \underline{F} (2, 67) = 4.76, p < .05. An examination of the means in the type of scenario effect suggests that more of the subordinate's performance was attributed to his

ability in the forge scenarios than in the brewery scenarios \underline{M} forge = 4.52, \underline{M} brewery = 3.87. In the performance level conditions, more of an attribution to the subordinate's ability was made as the performance level increased, \underline{M} below avg. = 3.70, \underline{M} avg. = 4.0, \underline{M} above avg. = 4.90.

The 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA on the lack of ability question yielded one significant two way interaction, performance level x attribution, \underline{F} (2, 68) = 5.80, p < .01. An examination of the means in Table 2 shows that subjects in the below average conditions attributed the performance more to the subjects lack of ability in the ability conditions than in the effort conditions, with the reverse holding true in the effort conditions. This was the expected pattern.

Insert Table 2 about here

Valence

The subject's ratings of his/her feedback was on an 11-point scale ranging from 1, intensely negative; through neutral 6; to 11, intensely positive. This rating was recoded into negative (1-4), neutral (5-7), and positive (8-11) to do analyses of the valence. This was done to allow for an examination of only the valence of the feedback. Intensity, the location of the/feedback

on the continuum, will be discussed later. It was predicted that more negative feedback would be given in the below average performance level conditions and more positive in the other two.

To test this hypothesis, subjects valence of feedback were analyzed by 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 (performance level x attribution x type of scenario x occupation) ANOVA. This analysis revealed two significant two way interactions: performance by type \underline{F} (2, 65) = 4.56, \underline{p} < .05, and attribution by type \underline{F} (1, 65) = 5.39, \underline{p} < .05. The cell means for the performance by type interaction can be found in Table 3. Further analysis of this interaction showed that in the below average performance conditions significantly more negative feedback was given in the brewery scenario, \underline{F} (1, 65) = 10.45, \underline{p} < .01. As Table 3 illustrates more positive feedback was given in the forging scenarios. The other two performance levels showed no significant differences.

Insert Table 3 about here

Table 4 presents the means for the significant attribution interaction. Analysis of the attribution by type interaction revealed that in the ability attribution conditions more positive feedback was given in the forging scenarios than in the brewery scenarios, $\underline{F}(1, 65) = 4.48$, $\underline{p} < .05$.

Insert Table 4 about here

A significant main effect for occupation was also found, \underline{F} (1, 65) = 38.97, p < .01. Analysis of this main effect illustrated that supervisors gave more positive feedback (\underline{M} = 2.77) than did students (\underline{M} = 1.93).

As the main effect for performance level was not significant, \underline{F} (2, 65) = 0.49, \underline{p} > .10, the hypothesis that more positive feedback would be given in the average and above average conditions was not supported.

A chi square analysis was performed to examine the frequencies of positive feedback in the six conditions to more fully understand the nonsignificant main effects of attribution and effort. Unsurprisingly, this analysis was also not significant χ^2 (90) = 10.35, p > .10. Examining the frequencies in Table 5 suggests that while more positive feedback was given overall, the proportions are roughly equal in each performance level condition.

Insert Table 5 about here

Amount

The amount of feedback was analyzed by combining four of the rated dimensions of the feedback into one amount dimension. The raters were asked to indicate the following:

- 1. the number of statements made about the performance
- 2. the number of questions asked of the subordinate
- 3. the number of suggestions for change
- 4. the number of suggestions for future performance. These four were then combined to form one amount dimension. The interrater reliability for the amount of feedback was .62 (p < .001) allowing the experimenter to collapse across the raters.

Analysis of the amount of feedback by performance level, attribution, both types of scenarios, and both occupations (3 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA) yielded a significant two-way interaction of type of scenario by occupation, \underline{F} (1, 66) = 5.21, \underline{p} < .05. The means for this interaction are in Table 6.

Insert Table 6 about here

Simple main effects revealed significant effects for occupation \underline{F} (1, 66) - 10.21, \underline{p} < .01 in the forging scenarios as well as in the brewery scenarios \underline{F} (1, 66) - 5.10, \underline{p} < .05. Examination of the means in Table 6 illustrates that supervisors

gave more feedback than did the students, particularly in the forging scenarios.

It was predicted that more feedback would be given by subjects in the scenarios where the subordinate's performance was attributed to the subordinate's effort. The analysis provided no significant effect for amount of feedback in the different attribution conditions, \underline{F} (1, 66) = 0.15, \underline{p} > .05, suggesting that the amount of feedback is similar regardless of the internal cause of the subordinate's performance. Of particular interest to this study and its use of two different subject pools, was the lack of a two way interaction of attribution by occupation suggesting that students and supervisor's behave similarly when making attributions, \underline{F} (1, 66) = .37, \underline{p} > .05.

Intensity

To test the hypothesis that the intensity of the feedback would be different across the six conditions, the subject's rating of the intensity of their feedback (done on an 11 point scale) was analyzed by a 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 (performance level x attribution x type of scenario x occupation) ANOVA which revealed a significant four-way interaction, \underline{F} (2, 88) = 4.74, \underline{p} < .05. As Table 7 illustrates, the mean intensity values were of little informational value.

Insert Table 7 about here

This interaction is diagrammed in Figure 2. Examining the figure, it appears that the largest differences were in the supervisor's differentiation of ability and effort at the below average and average levels in the forge scenario, and in the ability and effort distinction in the brewery scenario.

Insert Figure 2 about here

A comparison of Figure 1 and Figure 2 shows a large degree of similarity. The four way interaction in the manipulation checks may provide a clue as to the four way interaction on this variable. While this does partially support the prediction, the lack of a two-way interaction of performance level and attribution precludes any definitive conclusions.

The analysis also provided two significant two-way interactions of: performance level x type of scenario, \underline{F} (2, 65) = 4.55 p < .05, and attribution by type, \underline{F} (1, 65) = 8.95, p < .01. Analysis of the performance level x type of scenario interaction revealed a significant simple main effect in the below average condition, \underline{F} (1, 65) = 10.19, p < .01, but not in the

other two performance levels, as shown in Table 8.

Insert Table 8 about here

As Table 8 illustrates, more positively intense feedback was given in the forge scenario in the below average condition. Analysis of the attribution level x type of scenario interaction revealed a significant main effect in the ability attributions, F (1, 65) = 5.21, p < .05, but not in the effort conditions. As Table 9 illustrates, more positive feedback was given in the forge scenario than in the brewery scenario in the ability attribution conditions.

Insert Table 9 about here

A significant main effect was also found for occupation, F (1, 65) = 50.19, p < .001, with the supervisors giving more positively intense feedback overall (M - 8.73) than did the students (M - 5.91).

Locus of Control

It was predicted that subjects with an internal locus of control would give more feedback than subjects with an external locus of control. As the Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966)

was scored on externality, higher scores reflecting a more external locus of control, a negative correlation of externality with amount of feedback was predicted. A Pearson product moment correlation of these two variables yielded a slightly negative relationship \underline{r} (66) = -.27, \underline{p} < .01. While this correlation was in the expected direction and suggested that internals did give more feedback, it is a low correlation and should be interpreted with caution.

It was also predicted that there would be a negative correlation between external locus and expected changes in performance. Pearson correlation with locus of control and how much the subject expected his/her feedback to change the subordinate's performance provided a slight negative correlation here as well, \underline{r} (86) = -.20, \underline{p} < .05. As the change in performance variable was scored on a 1 to 11 scale with 1 a large negative change and 11 a large positive change, the slight negative correlation suggests that the more external a subject is the less of a positive change is expected. Again, as the correlation is slight, caution must be used in any interpretation made.

Analysis using Mirels' factored version (1970) of Rotter's scale provided similar results. Using Factor I, personal control, a significant correlation was found between personal control and

the amount of feedback given, \underline{r} (66) = -.25, \underline{p} < .05. No significant correlation was found between Mirels' second factor and amount of feedback, \underline{r} (66) = -.08, \underline{p} > .10, suggesting that it is the first of the two factors affecting the amount of feedback given. No significant correlation was found between Factor I and the expected change in the subordinate's performance, \underline{r} (90) = -.004, \underline{p} > .10.

As a subject's locus of control could possibly affect his or her responses, it was felt that by analyzing the data using locus of control as a covariate was appropriate. The analysis of covariance on the three major dependent variables yielded the same results as the analyses of variance. This result suggests that the covariate did not remove a significant amount of variability, and had little effect on subject's responses.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the informal feedback process as proposed by Larson (1984). As Larson's model is complex it was necessary to test only a portion of it, controlling some of the proposed variables while manipulating others. The present study focused specifically on the attribution of causality and its effects on a supervisor's feedback giving behavior as measured by the valence of the feedback, the amount of feedback, and its intensity. It was predicted that by manipulating the purported internal cause of the subordinate's behavior and his performance level, the feedback (as measured on the three dependent variables mentioned above) would change accordingly. Overall the hypotheses were not supported although the data did conform with some of the expectations.

The findings of the manipulation checks suggest some plausible causes for the lack of support of the hypotheses. The four way interaction that was found suggests that the subjects were reacting to the types of scenarios differently. This suggestion has far reaching effects in that the manipulations were unsuccesful in several instances. This may be a result of using Larson's definition of consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness in creating the scnearios. Perhaps using the original formulation of those terms would provide better results.

Valence

It was predicted that the valence of the feedback would change with the performance level with positive feedback being given for good performance. This was not supported by the study. Instead, it was found that a large majority of the feedback was positive in nature, even when the subordinate was performing poorly due to his lack of effort. This result adds credence to the results of Tesser and Rosen (1975) who suggested that supervisors do not enjoy giving negative feedback and consequently do not.

It was hoped that by having no affective relationship exist between the supervisor and the subordinate that the supervisor would be more willing to give negative feedback, however, this was not found. Interestingly, students were more willing to give negative feedback than were supervisors. By including the occupational factor in the analysis it has been illustrated that there is a difference between the performance of the typical subject and a person who actually makes decisions which the study investigated. The implication of this result is important. If the difference exists, the results may not be generalizable if students are used as subjects. This argues for using subjects with supervisory experience in studies examining supervision.

This argument can be made for more than supervisory research, and

should be considered in all research studying Industrial/Organizational climates.

Amount

The amount of feedback was predicted to be affected by the attribution of the internal cause of the subordinate's performance. Again, the hypothesis was not supported. The lack of an effect for attribution is puzzling but not completely incomprehensible. Perhaps the attribution has no effect on the amount of feedback, with the supervisor simply observing the level of performance. This supposition is made in light of the fact that manipulation checks did show that the scenarios were perceived differently.

As there was also no effect for performance level it is suggested that supervisors may have experienced demand characteristics and wrote down feedback in conditions that in their own work they would not respond to at all. The supervisors may have felt that as the study was on feedback that they had to put something down, even though the option to "not give feedback" was open to them. In the supervisor's everyday performance he/she may never experience a situation similar to the one in the scenario and may have filled out the questionnaire in the way that he/she thought that it should be done. This is purely conjecture and in no way accuses the subjects of poor supervisory skills. An

informal examination of the data showed that while the tone of the feedback in the average and above average conditions was positive, it did focus primarily on negative aspects of the subordinate's behavior. For example, in the above average performance condition where the attribution was to ability, subjects mentioned the good performance but also stressed the need to try harder. This may have been a result of the way the scenarios were constructed to imply causality and is worth investigating in the future.

The way the scenarios were constructed, to imply a lack of effort in the above average performance conditions it was necessary to make it appear as if the subordinate did not have to try very hard at all to achieve an above average performance level. This was done by stating that the subordinate took a lot of breaks, etc. To a supervisor this was probably inexcusable behavior, and no matter how well the subordinate was performing his behavior had to be altered. In the future, altering the scenario so that the subordinate is not behaving irresponsibly but is still putting forth as little effort as possible may have an effect.

Intensity

The presence of the four-way interaction was unexpected.

However, as it was anticipated that the six scenario conditions would evoke different intensities, other interactions were

expected. An interaction of performance level and attribution was expected, but unfortunately not found. Perhaps this lack of interaction is due to the reluctance to give negative feedback, or to communicate it in writing. The similarity of the figures illustrating the manipulation check four way interaction and the intensity four way interaction was enlightening. The efficacy of the scenarios in suggesting attributions to ability or effort was very important for the hypothesis. As it was effective in only two situations, and the intensity result is similar, the four way interaction can be attributed to the poor performance of the manipulations.

Type of scenario interactions with other variables were not expected, however, and are quite confusing. The scenarios in the two types are very similar with only the situation differing to suit the industry. Perhaps with some of the subjects coming from a background in which they were unfamiliar, or familiar, with the situation, their responses were affected. Selecting subjects from one field and tailoring the scenario to fit that area of expertise may provide more readily interpretatable results. The major hypothesis was not supported, but the result that supervisors and students differed significantly in the intensity of their feedback was interesting and argues for using supervisors in the future to get a more accurate view and more generalizable results.

Also of interest was the result that in the below average, and, to a somewhat lesser extent, in the average levels in the forge shop scenarios a difference in intensity did exist between the attributions of ability and effort. While nonsignificant it would suggest that supervisors and students do tend to give different responses depending on the attributional inferences they make. This provides support for the Lanzetta and Hannah (1969) result that showed a less punitive reaction for a lack of ability than a lack of effort.

Locus of Control

The locus of control predictions were the only hypotheses to be directly supported. Negative correlations were found between externality and amount of feedback given which suggested that the more internal a supervisor is, the more effective he may feel in effecting change and make a larger effort to influence the performance of his subordinates. The correlation is small, however, and interpreted cautiously. There was also a small negative correlation between expected change in behavior and externality, again suggesting that an internal supervisor may feel that he/she is capable of effecting change.

As a similar correlation was found between the amount of feedback and the first factor, it is suggested that amount of feedback may be influenced by a supervisor's view of personal

control.

Limitations

The present research was limited in a few areas which may have contributed to the lack of significant results. The first of the limitations is the lack of reliability between the two raters. As the raters did not agree on key dimensions their data were unusable. To correct this in the future, concrete examples of each of the different intensities could be given to the raters to practice on. This was impossible to do with the limited number of subjects available in this study, as well as past data to provide examples.

The number of subjects could also be increased to give a more representative sample of supervisors which may have positive effects on the results. Random selection would ensure that more varied companies were represented, but as mentioned earlier, the inability of a subject to relate to the scenario may very well effect his performance contributing to scenario effects. Access to a larger number of subjects would also enable the researcher to incorporate real industry occurences which would be more relevant to the subjects, and yield a clearer picture of what actually occurs.

Conclusions

While the present research did experience some difficulties

and did not support the hypotheses fully, there were positive aspects of the study. Past research has been supported (i.e. Lanzetta & Hannah, 1969) and the finding that there is a definite difference between subjects who actually work in the area and students suggests that members of the industrial community be used as subjects in the future.

Also of interest was the seeming unwillingness of subjects to make attributions of ability and effort in average performance levels. With the average performance existing rather inoccuously perhaps individuals can only make the different attributions in conditions where the performance is salient. Future research should explore this more fully. Perhaps by using five performance levels of 20, 40, 60, 80, and 100% efficient use of machines a more accurate and descriptive result can be found.

The finding that the majority of feedback is positive is of interest and importance. Granted this result may reflect demand characteristics with subjects maintaining that their feedback is positive when it isn't really. This may also be related to the discrepancies found between the two raters. While there may have been positive aspects to the feedback, its tone may have appeared negative to some, such as the subordinate, and positive to others, like the supervisor. This may be worth investigating in the future by having supervisors and subordinates rate the valence of

some feedback and examining discrepancies between the two ratings. Future research may examine what it takes for a supervisor to give negative feedback, or may examine the differences between a supervisor's reported valence and reliable independent raters reported valence.

While not in direct support of Larson's 1984 model, the present research should not be interpreted as rejecting the strengths of that model. The dynamic nature of that model makes it difficult to examine, as do the large number of variables that determine when and what feedback will be given. By testing perceived subordinate responsibility/causality the present research found that regardless of responsibility/causality subjects tend to give positive feedback. The present study does not support Larson's notion of different feedback in different performance levels but the limitations of the study mentioned earlier should be examined before a rejection of the model is made. Larson's model also does not focus solely on this variable and should be examined more fully to explore the relationships of the other proposed variables to feedback process. By correcting some of the limiting factors in this study the trends that were reported here may become effects and a clearer role of perceived resonsibility/causality may emerge.

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Table 1

Mean Attribution Score for Subordinates on the

Try Harder Dimension

	Man	agers	rs Students	
Attribution	Forge	Brew	Forge	Brew
Ability	6.0	4.9	4.8	5.0
	(13)	(10)	(11)	(13)
Effort	4.4	5.0	4.9	4.4
	(12)	(9)	(10)	(14)

Note. The number of subjects in each cell appears below each mean.

Table 2

<u>Mean Attributions on the Lack of Ability Question Across</u>

<u>Performance Conditions</u>.

Attribution		
Ability	Effort	
3.73	2.50	
(15)	(14)	
2.65	4.47	
(17)	(15)	
3.00	4.47	
(16)	(15)	
	3.73 (15) 2.65 (17) 3.00	

Note. The number of subjects in each cell appears below each mean.

Table 3
Means of Valence for Performance
by Type of Scenario Interaction

	Type of	Scenario
Performance Level	Forging	Brewery
Below Average	2.76	1.92
	(17)	(13)
Average	2.14	2.40
	(14)	(15)
Above Average	2.36	2.38
	(14)	(16)

 $\underline{\underline{\text{Note}}}$. The number of subjects in each cell are below the mean. The larger the mean the more positive the valence.

Table 4

Means of Valence for Attribution

by Type of Scenario Interaction

	Type of	Scenario
Attribution	Forging	Brewery
Ability	2.61	2.14
	(23)	(22)
Effort	2.27	2.36
	(22)	(22)

Note. The number of subjects in each cell is below the mean. The larger the mean the more positive the valence.

Table 5

Frequencies of Valences in Each Condition

	Valence			
Condition	Negative	Neutral	Positive	
Below Avg. Ability	4	3	8	
Below Avg. Effort	2	3	10	
Avg. Ability	3	2	10	
Avg. Effort	3	7	4	
Above Avg. Ability	1	7	8	
Above Avg. Effort	3	4	8	

Table 6

Mean Amount of Feedback in Interaction of

Type of Scenario and Occupation of Subject

	Occupation		
Scenario	Manager	Student	
Forging	4.90	1.94	
	(15)	(17)	
Brewery	3.00	1.98	
	(12)	(23)	

Note. The number of subjects in each cell appears below each mean.

Table 7

Means for the Interaction of Performance Level,
Attribution, Type of Scenario, and Occupation

			Managers		
			Туре		
	For	ge	·	Bre	wery
Performance Level	Ability	Effort		Ability	Effort
Below					
Average	9.4	8.0		5.0	9.5
	(5)	(5)		(2)	(2)
Average	10.3	6.5		9.6	10.3
_	(3)	(4)		(5)	(3)
Above					
Average	9.0	9.0		9.3	8.0
_	(5)	(3)		(3)	(4)

Table 7 (cont.)

Students

Type

	For	ge	Bre	wery
Performance Level	Ability	Effort	Ability	Effort
Below				
Average	7.5	8.0	4.5	5.8
J	(4)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Average	6.5	5.3	5.7	5.0
J	(4)	(3)	(3)	(4)
Above				
Average	6.5	4.0	5.4	7.5
	(2)	(4)	(5)	(4)

Note.

The number of subjects in each cell is below each cell mean. The higher the value the more positive the intensity.

Table 8

Mean Intensity Scores for Performance Level

and Type of Scenario

rewery
5.9
(13)
7.7
(15)
7.3
(16)

Note. The number of subjects are under each cell mean. The higher the value the more positively intense the feedback.

Table 9

Mean Intensity Scores Attribution

by Type of Scenario Interaction

	Type		
Attribution	Forge	Brewery	
Ability	8.4	6.7	
	(23)	(22)	
Effort	6.8	7.3	
	(22)	(22)	
Effort			

Note. Number of subjects in each cell is below the cell mean.

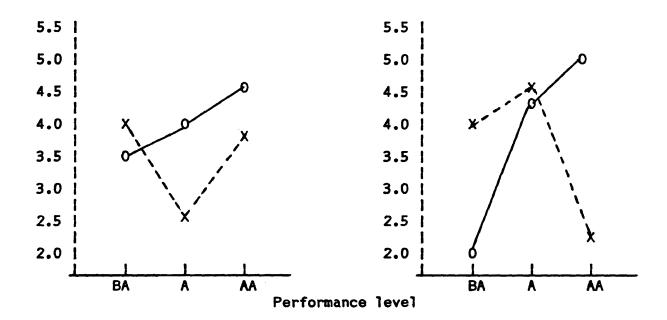
The higher the value the more positively intense the feedback.

Figure Caption

 $\underline{\text{Figure}}\ \underline{1}.$ Four-way interaction of performance level, attribution, type of scenario, and occupation.

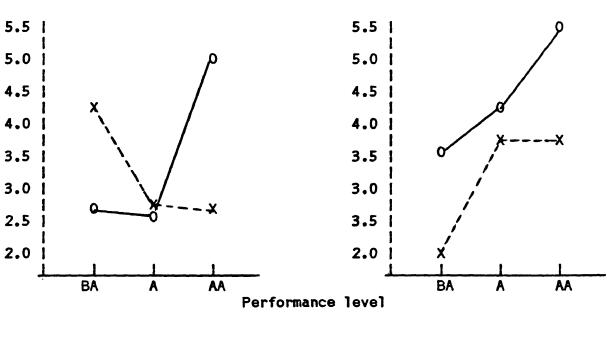


Brewery manager



Forge student

Brewery student



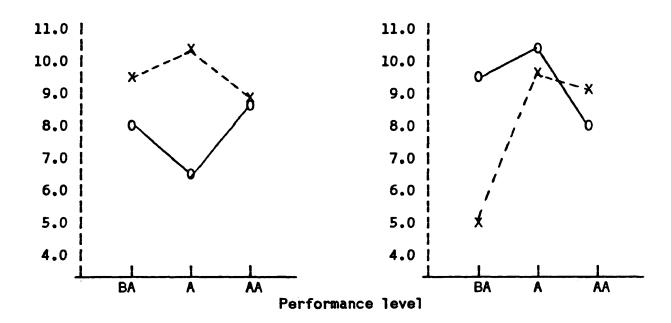
X----X ability 0----0 effort

Figure Caption

<u>Figure 2</u>. Four-way interaction of performance level, attribution, type of scenario, and occupation.

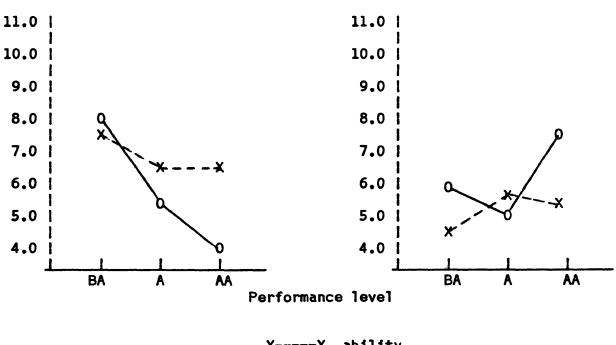


Brewery manager



Forge student

Brewery student



X----X ability O----O effort

APPENDIX

COVER LETTER, SCENARIOS, QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following page you will find a description of an employee's performance on a task. Following this description will be several pages of questions about your reaction to the employee's behavior. We would like you to place yourself in the position of the supervisor in the situation described. What would you do? What would you say to the employee? How would you react? It is very important that you complete the questions as you would if the situation were actually happening to you. It is also important that you answer all of the questions as completely and accurately as possible. Your responses will be kept confidential and will not be associated with you at any time.

To respond to a question that is presented on a scale (i.e. 1 to 7), please circle the number or interval that matches how you would respond. To answer an open ended question please write out your response in the space provided. If you need additional space use the back of the sheet the question is on. Thank you for your time and assistance.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please read the following story carefully. After you have read the story turn to the next page and answer the questions on that and the following pages.

For the purposes of clarification: some of the questions you will encounter concern a distinction between ability and effort.

Ability, for our purposes here, is defined as a stable characteristic of an individual and represents the physical or mental skill, power, or capacity required to perform an action.

Effort, for our purposes here, is defined as an unstable characteristic and represents the amount of exertion the person involves in the completion of a task. For example, if a person were to row a canoe across a lake, his/her ability could be represented by the strength that he/she had. While the effort would be how hard or fast he/she rowed.

Begin reading and stop only when you are completely through with all of the questionnaires.

You are a supervisor in a relatively large company that manufactures tools that are used in construction. One of your clients is a government agency. You are directly responsible for five members of the quality control (QC) department who are responsible for conformity of the materials to standards set up by the Procurement office of the U.S. Government. They are each responsible for three machines which hot forge different tools. Their responsibilities include assessing the tools at prearranged times to check for the proper size of the part, correct dimensions, and any deformities in the part. Each of the five men is responsible for their own three machines, and each of them has all the materials necessary to carry out their responsibilities each day. You in turn check all of their reports periodically to make sure that all of the checks were made. In addition, your company has recently initiated a policy whereby the entire manufacturing staff receives bonuses for reaching quotas ahead of

On one of your routine checks of a subordinate's reports you notice that one machine had been shut down but is now working again. Upon further investigation you discover that this particular subordinate has had machines go down repeatedly, regardless of the machines he was working on. He has also had problems in other related tasks, and to your knowledge none of the other four members of the QC team has had similar problems. Curious about this man's performance you examine his past work history and discover that, in your opinion, the man should never have been hired. He has been fired by two other manufacturing operations similar to yours for an inability to reach quotas and a general unfamiliarity with the operations after a normal amount of training. The man takes only his allotted number of breaks and is very regular about filling out his reports.

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The first few questions deal with your response to the subordinate's performance. Please put yourself in the supervisor's role and respond to the subordinate as you would in your plant. "Feedback" as it is used here is what you would say or do to the subordinate no matter how trivial.

1.	Would	d yo	u giv	ze any	, feed	dback	to t	he emp	loyee	in q	uestion	?	
	yes _		_	no	•	-							
2.	If s	o, w	hat v									possi ble	:)
_													
_	····												
				•			****		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			· ·	-
													
													-
_													_
_													_
(1	use tl	ne b	ack o	of thi	is pag	ge if	nece	ssary)					
3.	How 1	nuch	time	woul	ld you	ı tak	ce to	give t	his f	eedba	ck to t	he emplo	yee?
													
4.	Plea	se r	ate 1	he in	ntensi	ity o	of you	r feed	back				
- 5		l	- 3	!	l	1	0	ł		1	+3	1	+5
	remel; ative	у				n	neutra	1				extr posi	emely tive

5.	How mucl	h do y	ou expe	ect your	feedb	ack t	o chang	ge the er	nployee	's
per	performance on future tasks?									
	-5	1	-3	1 1	0	I	1	+3	I	+5
	large egative change			no	change	1			po	arge sitive hange
6.	Is the	feedba	ck you	detaile	ed abov	e rep	resenta	ative of	your	
n	atural r	espons	e to s	ubordina	ate beh	avior	?			
	1	I	1		4	I		1	7	
not at all slightly representative representat						ve		r	very epresen	tative
7.	To what	degre	e do yo	ou feel	that t	he su	bordina	ate coul	d have	tried
har	der?									
	1		I	4	1		ŀ	7		
n	ot at al	1	\$	somewhat	=			complete	ely	
8.	To what	degre	e do yo	ou feel	that t	he su	bordina	ate trie	d his b	est?
	1	1	1	4	l		1	7		
n	ot at al	1						complete	ely	

9.	To what	degree	do you	feel t	hat the	subord	linate's	performance	
i	n the so	cenario	was due	to his	s abilit	zy?			
	1	1	ı	4	1	1	7		
	ot at a e to ab:						comple due to	tely ability	
	10. To what degree do you feel that the subordinate's performance								
i	n the so	cenario	was due	to his	s lack o	of abili	Lty?		
	1	1	ı	4	i	1	7		
	ot at a e to ab:						comple due to	tely ability	
11.	To wha	at degre	ee do yo	ou feel	that th	ne subor	dinate'	s performance	
	in the	scenario	was du	ie to h	is moti	vation t	o perfo	rm?	
	1	1	1	4	ı	1	7		
	ot at a							letely motivation	
		our resp	onse at					res you to to change	
	1	i	I	4	1		1	7	
no	t at al	1					co	mpletely	

13.	To what	extent	do you	feel the	perform	ance dem	ands you
c	hange so	mething	about t	the situa	tion?		
	1	i	1	4	I	1	7
not	at all						completely
14.	How acc	urate d	o you fe	el that	your fee	dback wa	s?
:	1	1	I	4	I	I	7
	at all urate						very accurate

The next group of questions deal with your background as a supervisor. While these responses will not be associated with you, they will be used in conjunction with your previous responses so it is necessary that you be accurate. Remember your response will have no bearing on you at all.

Background

The following questions concern your background as a supervisor.	
Please answer these questions honestly and completely.	
l. What is your highest level of education completed?	
a. High School	
b. College	
c. Graduate School	
2. Ageyears	
3. Sex M F	
4. How long (in years) have you been with this company?	
5. How long have you been in this position?	
6. Did you start with this company in this position? yes	
7. If not, at what position did you start?	
8. Did you go through a training program for this position? yes	_

9. How long did it last?

10.	How much experience do you have at this job?	?
	a. none	
	b. very little	
	c. some	
	d. quite a bit	
	e. a lot	
11.	What is your pay rate?	
	a. hourly wage	
	b. salary	
12.	Are you on some type of incentive program?	yes
		no
13.	If so, explain it briefly	

The next 12 questions are designed to understand your working relationship with your subordinates, your supervisory style. Again, please answer these questions honestly.

Supervisory Style

1. How		nt is you	ır respons	e with y	our normal	superv	isory			
1	1	1	4	1	1	7				
not at all con	sistent		very consist							
2. How	much of	a change	in the em	ployee's	attitude	do you				
expec	expect from your feedback?									
1	I	1	4	1	1		7			
no chan	ge	s	ome change			a lo	t of change			
	responsi	ble do y	ou feel fo	r the su	bordinate'	s prefe	edback			
1	1	I	4		1	ı	7			
not at			somewha	t			very			
respons	ible		responsi	ble			responsible			

4.	How	respo	nsible	do yo	u feel fo	r the	subjec	t's pos	st feedba	ck
p	erfo	mance	?							
1		ı		1	4		1		l	7
not al					somewha	t				very
res	ponsi		do you	actua	responsi lly commu		e with	subordi		espo nsible
1		1		1	4		1		1	7
no		cation			some communic				con	a lot of munication
6.	0n 1	the av	erage,	how o	ften do y	ou in	teract '	with yo	our subor	dinates
е	ach e	lay?								
			a. les	s than	5 times					
			b. bet	ween 6	and 10 t	imes				
			c. bet	ween 1	.1 and 15	times				
			d. bet	ween 1	.6 and 20	times				
			e. mor	e thar	1 21 times					
			erage, inates		type of r	elati	onship	do you	have wit	ch
1		-		i	4	1		1	7	
	ense: ativ				neutral				intensl positiv	.ey ⁄e

8.	How many	subord:	inate's	do you	have?	·		
9.	What per	cent are	e males?					
10.	What per	cent are	e female	s?				
11.	How woul	d you de	eliver t	he fee	dback	mentio	ned earlie	er?
•							——————————————————————————————————————	
	······································				·			
				, , , , ,			contin	ue on back
12.	How accu	ırate do	you fee	l that	your	feedba	ick usuall	y is?
1	ı		1	4		1	1	7
ver	y ccurate		ghtly ccurate			ightly		very accurate

The questions which follow are designed to find out the way in which important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered A or B. Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief -- there are no right or wrong answers.

Your answers can be recorded on the answer sheet. Be sure to find an answer for every choice. Find the number of the item on the answer sheet and cross out either A or B to indicate the statement you believe to be more true for you.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you most strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. Also, try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

Α

В

- 1. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
- 2. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
- One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
- 4. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
- The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
- 6. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
- No matter how hard you try, some people just don't like you.
- 8. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
- 9. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
- 10. In the case of the well

The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.

People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

It is one's experience in life which determine what they're like.

Trusting in fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

Many times exam questions tend

prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.

- 11. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
- 12. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
- 13. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
- 14. There are certain people who are just no good.
- 15. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
- 16. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
- 17.As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
- 18. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental mistakes.
- 19. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
- 20.It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.

to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

There is some good in everybody.

Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

There really is no such thing as "luck".

It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.

How many friends you have depends upon how nice you are.

- 21. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
- 22. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
- 23. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
- 24.A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
- 25. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
- 26. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
- 27. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
- 28. What happens to me is my own doing.
- 29. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.

Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.

It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.

Team sports are an excellent way to build character.

Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

In the long run the people are reponsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

ANSWER SHEET

1.	A	В	2.	A	В
3.	A	В	4.	A	В
5.	A	В	6.	A	В
7.	A	В	8.	A	В
9.	A	В	10.	A	В
11.	A	В	12.	A	В
13.	A	В	14.	A	В
15.	A	В	16.	A	В
17.	A	В	18.	A	В
19.	A	В	20.	A	В
21.	A	В	22.	A	В
23.	A	В	24.	A	В
25.	A	В	26.	A	В
27.	A	В	28.	A	В
29.	A	В			

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VITA

DAVID E. HYATT

The author was born on October 12, 1962 in Cleveland, Ohio. He attended Walsh College from 1980 to 1982, transfering to Allegheny College in the fall of 1982, where he received his B.A. in Psychology. The author began his studies toward an M.A. degree in Psychology in the fall of 1984. The candidate was awarded the Master of Arts degree in June of 1986. The author will continue his studies at Bowling Green State University in the Industrial/Organizational program.

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