

## ABSTRACT

### SHOULD I STAY OR SHOULD I GO: THE EFFECTS OF LEAVE CONTEXT ON INTERPERSONAL META-ACCURACY

Camille J. Heneghan, M.A.  
Department of Psychology  
Northern Illinois University, 2014  
Alecia M. Santuzzi, Director

As employees navigate work and home life demands, they look to organizational policies and procedures to help in this regard. However, past research on reactions to employees taking advantage of such policies as well as expected evaluations from others, is decidedly mixed. In two studies, I examined the social cognitive mechanisms and subsequent boundary conditions that determine whether coworkers have negative reactions to leaving an interpersonal task and whether the target person expects negative reactions for doing so. The results from Study 1 showed that participants anticipate they will be evaluated more positively when the reason for leaving a shared task is due to illness rather than dislike of the task. Further, participants anticipated that they would be evaluated as having less self-discipline when the leave was voluntary rather than involuntary. In Study 2, the observed mean differences from Study 1 were not replicated. Further, *metaperceptions* (anticipated evaluations from the partner) were unrelated to partners' evaluations of self-discipline, conscientiousness, and trustworthiness, suggesting low meta-accuracy on these traits. However a positive relationship between metaperceptions and evaluations was observed for likeability. This relationship was moderated by choice such that meta-accuracy increased when participants were told they would be leaving involuntarily vs. voluntarily.

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SHOULD I STAY OR SHOULD I GO: THE EFFECT OF LEAVE CONTEXT  
ON INTERPERSONAL META-ACCURACY

BY

CAMILLE JACQUELINE HENEGHAN  
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Alecia M. Santuzzi

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## CHAPTER 1

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As of the year 2000, women comprised 60% of the U.S. labor force (Toossi, 2002). As the workforce has grown in diversity, so have the multiple competing role demands that employees attempt to navigate in both their work and private lives (Greenhaus & Beutall, 1985). The very evolution of work-life terminology within the literature from “work-family balance” to “work-life balance” to “work-life integration” in more recent years (Jones, Burke, & Westman, 2006) highlights the growing recognition of employees’ efforts to navigate role demands. One means by which employees can manage “work” and “family/life” roles is through family-friendly policies such as parental or vacation leave. Indeed, the Family Medical Leave Act of 1993 stipulates that eligible employees have the right to take up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave for important events such as the birth or adoption of a child, to care for a sick spouse or child, and eldercare without fear of termination as they are guaranteed the same or an equivalent position upon their return.

Although such policies are widely available, they are consistently under-utilized, particularly by men (Israeloff, 1995; Levine, 1997; Levine, 1997; Miller & Tsiantar, 1991). Reasons for this lack of use have been attributed to lack of knowledge (i.e., Gunn, Freund, Kaplan, Raj, & Carr, 2014), lack of managerial support for such policies (Allen, 2001), and/or lack of support on the organizational level (Allen, 2001). However, another reason may lie in the perceived social costs of using such policies. Employees who are eligible for leave may



refrain from doing so not only because of a lack of support, but also in order to avoid potentially negative reactions from colleagues. In a survey of female undergraduate faculty, Spalter-Roth and Erskine (2005) examine the perceptions and use of family-work policies, particularly flexible leave schedules. These women were seemingly afraid to use such policies even though they had received support from management. They reportedly believed that their career progression and chances of promotion would be negatively affected by taking time off. Similarly, in unpublished work, Jones (2012) presents evidence for the stigmatization of work-life programs (including family leave) among women. Female participants reported overall negative views of work-life programs. However, when asked how coworkers would view the use of these programs, participants reported others' views as more negative than their own (i.e., less available, less committed, contribute lower-quality work, and serve as the target of negative comments). Furthermore, those programs rated more negatively (e.g., flexibility and leave schedules) were subsequently used less frequently than other programs.

Therefore, one important research question is whether the expectation of negative consequences from taking leave is accurate. If an employee refuses to take time off from the workplace due to negative expectations, but those expectations are false, then he or she enters a lose-lose situation. Specifically, inaccurately anticipating negative evaluations may contribute to a loss of overall well-being and at the same time fails to preserve social status among coworkers who adopt this strategy (as there was no actual threat of social loss to be prevented). Therefore, the following studies further elaborate upon Jones' (2012) findings in an experimental context by investigating the potential for participants to anticipate negative evaluations from coworkers (Study 1) and the accuracy of such perceptions (Study 2).

Furthermore, the following studies examine the potential for boundary conditions (i.e., reasons for taking leave) within the leave context to have an impact on not only anticipated evaluations, but also their accuracy.

### Evaluative Variables in Interpersonal Perception

Research on person perception has highlighted a host of interpersonal characteristics, including trait evaluations, personality constructs, and interpersonal evaluations (e.g., likeability) (e.g., Funder, 1995, 2012; Kenny, 1994; Sherman, Nave, & Funder, 2010). The goal of the current study was to identify evaluative variables that are relevant to the formation of appraisals within a dyadic work-related context. For example, negative likeability evaluations among colleagues may affect the level of social comfort in interactions. As such, on a more benign level, an employee may be excluded from social events. Yet on a more extreme and concerning level, interpersonal evaluations may influence personnel decisions. For example, women who adopt stereotypically masculine behavior are viewed as more competent, yet less likeable as leaders when compared to male counterparts (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004), and this likeability affects performance evaluations and reward allocation (Heilman et al., 2004). Additionally, such women are likely to engender reactive opposition to their authority (Ridgeway, 2001).

One common variable of interest in workplace social interaction research is the perception of fairness (Colquitt, 2001). Indeed, past research has identified negative consequences for the perceptions of fairness when employees take a formal leave (Heneghan &

Santuzzi, 2012; Kelley, Heneghan, & Pojman, 2010). Individuals who take family leave (particularly those who enjoy a higher status position within the organization) are perceived as making unfair requests. Therefore, perceptions of unfairness are used as an indication of negative evaluation by focal participant's dyad partner.

Another variable that is relevant to workplace interactions is the perception of self-discipline. Based on the job characteristics model, Campbell, McHenry, and Wise (1990) suggest that professionalism is an important interpersonal indicator of successful work performance and, thus, one's perceived credibility in the workplace. In a military sample, Campbell et al. (1990) constructed a performance appraisal system that incorporated this professionalism factor into overall performance evaluations. The factor of professionalism addresses many of the same concerns as self-discipline: a focus on persistence toward goals, behaving in a proper manner, and being organized and exacting in work tasks. Therefore, the current investigation uses self-discipline as a proxy for the evaluation of professionalism.

Similarly, perceptions of conscientiousness may indicate a positive or negative evaluation of an individual's work ethic and, as such, may influence subsequent behavior toward potential coworkers. Research on judgment accuracy (e.g., Funder, 2012) has identified conscientiousness as an important primary trait that individuals factor into their overall evaluations of targets. Relying on conscientiousness to form performance judgments may have some validity; employee selection methods that measure conscientiousness have been shown to be valid and reliable predictors of job performance and productivity (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998).

As such, employees should be particularly motivated to form perceptions of others' conscientiousness as well as monitor their own impression on that trait.

Another interpersonal factor that has served as a predictor of work performance, specifically team performance, is trustworthiness – the ability, benevolence, and integrity of a trustee (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Colquitt, Scott, and LePine (2007), in a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and consequences of trust, found trustworthiness to be a significant positive predictor of trust bonds in dyadic interactions. Furthermore, trust predicted three facets of job performance: task performance, citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors. Individuals who are willing to trust others tend to engage in better task performance, perform more citizenship behaviors, and commit fewer counterproductive behaviors. Taken together, these results reinforce the view that trust is a vital component to effective working relationships, team satisfaction, and commitment (Lind, 2001; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

Finally, one of the most heavily researched evaluative variables in social interactions is likeability (e.g., Ohtsubo, Takezawa, & Fukuno, 2009). There is some evidence that likeability is dyadic in nature (Kenny, 1994), meaning it is sensitive to the interaction itself. Furthermore, research on the formation of first impressions suggests that evaluations of likeability have the potential to be transmitted more quickly when compared to other types of evaluations (Willis & Todorov, 2006; Zajonc, 1980). Likeability as a trait may carry more social significance than other traits, and as such, processing systems may aim toward making such assessments as quickly and accurately as possible (Chaiken & Trope, 1999; Kahneman, 2003). Given the

importance of likeability as an evaluative trait in general social contexts, it should also have a significant impact on work contexts. For instance, Weisband and Atwater (1999) have shown likeability to be positively linked to performance evaluations. Therefore, leave contexts provide a specific example of a workplace situation in which employees adjust their impressions of leave-taking coworkers and leave-taking employees adjust their expectations of how others may view them.

### Perceptions of Leave Takers and the Leave-Taking Process

Past research on employee reactions to work-leave policies are decidedly mixed. On one hand, research has demonstrated beneficial outcomes for those using family leave. For example, Allen (2001) reports that organizations with supportive supervisors for work-family leave had employees with significantly lower work-family conflict, higher organizational commitment, and lower intentions to leave the organization. Furthermore, Judiesch and Lyness (1999) report that in cases in which an organization provided guaranteed job security, female employees are more likely to delay the start of leave and return to work sooner. This trend was also seen in individuals who exhibited greater organizational commitment due to perceived supportive work-family cultures.

Despite these potential positive associations with job attitudes, past research suggests there are negative social consequences to taking leave that might outweigh the positive attitude toward the organization that makes such options available. These include subtle factors inherent to employees and work contexts themselves that have the potential to negatively bias

perceptions of employees who take leave. For example, Judiesch and Lyness (1999) suggest that managers' career success may be negatively affected by their decision to take family-related leave. Specifically, when accounting for the promotion rates of over 1,500 employees, managers who took any sort of leave were significantly less likely to receive a promotion than their counterparts who did not take leave.

Unpublished work may provide a clue as to why such a relationship may occur. Kelley et al. (2010) used a video-vignette methodology and report that fictitious employees who held a high-status job within an organization were perceived negatively by coworkers if they took maternity leave and a team project subsequently failed. Specifically, high-status leave-takers were perceived as more responsible for the failure of the project, and their requests for leave were rated as less fair than their low-status counterparts.

Such negative evaluations are not isolated to family leave alone. Heneghan and Santuzzi (2012) reported that employees taking leave for vacation purposes were rated as less deserving of a promotion and as making a less fair and unreasonable request than employees taking family-related leave. As such, it would appear that all leave contexts are not created equal and there may be features inherent to various kinds of leave situations that engender differential evaluations from coworkers. One potential reason for this differential variation may lie in the perceived amount of choice and ability that each leave situation possesses. For instance, family-related leave may suggest less voluntary choice to go on leave (i.e., one must leave the workplace to have a baby) and less ability to perform work-related functions while on leave.

Other work has failed to find consistent relationships between leave and personal, work-related outcomes. For instance, Landau and Arthur (1992) were unable to find a relationship between maternity leave and salary. However, more recent work suggests that maternity leave is associated with lower overall salary. This relationship appears to be particularly true for women who take longer versus shorter leaves. Additionally, Allen, Russell, and Rush (1994) found that parental leave did not affect reward recommendations of fictitious employee files. However, in later work, some of the same researchers did find adverse effects of leave, but only for male employees (Allen & Russell, 1999).

One potential reason for this inconsistency in reactions to leave and expected coworker evaluations may be due to potential moderating effects of the leave context itself. For example, negative reactions might be reserved for situations in which the target employee can be held accountable or blamed for leaving work. Although this has not been elaborated in past research, evidence from the social loafing (Latane, Williams, & Harkins, 1979) literature provides a model. Social loafing is a reduction in motivation and effort when individuals work collectively, compared to when they work individually or co-actively (Karau & Williams, 1995). This reduction allows for the possibility of free-riding, which occurs when one of the members of the collective group attempts to profit from the activities of others without making a fair contribution of his or her own (Stroebe, Diehl, & Abakoumkin, 1996). Kerr (1983) asked participants to complete a fatiguing task in two-person teams. When participants received information that their partner was capable of completing the task, but was attempting to free-ride, participants subsequently reduced their own efforts. However, if the partner's poor performance appeared to be due to a lack of ability, participants showed no reduction in efforts.

Therefore, if the leave situation itself implies that an employee is accountable for the leave (i.e., is capable or chooses to partake in leave voluntarily), that person may be blamed for the negative consequences (e.g., job task reassignments, compromised productivity, etc.). However, if the leave situation implies that the employee is less accountable (i.e., employee is incapable or leave is involuntary), attributions of blame, and the negative evaluations associated with blame, should be less likely to be directed toward the individual.

### The Dyadic Nature of the Leave Process

Yet another reason past research on reactions to employee leave-taking have yielded inconsistent results may be due to the fact that studies have relied on reactions to scenarios and vignettes of hypothetical employees rather than examining reactions in a natural dyadic context. That there is a certain level of interdependence and reciprocity among individuals engaging in relationships cannot be denied (Kelley, 1973). The interdependence among individuals in a work context can play a strong role in how impressions and expectations are formed. For example, past research on the work and family interface suggests the greatest predictor of employee's organizational commitment and perceptions of low work-family or family-work conflict is determined by their perceived level of support they receive from direct supervisors (Allen, 2001; Lambert, 2000; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Some degree of interdependence also exists between employees and coworkers. For instance, Harvey, Treadway and Heames (2007) suggest that bullying behavior in organizations may be due to social/emotional contagion among coworkers in interdependent



relationships. Specifically, there is a natural tendency to subconsciously or consciously mimic the verbal, psychological, or behavioral aspects of another person in a group. If one person reacts negatively to another single coworker, that reaction could be contagious and become consensual in the work environment.

Furthermore, negative reactions to coworkers' behavior (e.g., leave-taking) have the potential to lead to negative behaviors among those coworkers. For example, in cases where a coworker's behaviors are perceived and interpreted as being negatively-valenced, given the natural tendency to see negative behaviors as particularly salient and diagnostic of implicit personality traits (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Skowronski & Carlston, 1989), individual employees may engage in more hostile dyadic interactions as a means to combat the "curmudgeon" with whom they find themselves working (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). In these cases in which employees inaccurately interpret and perceive coworker intentions and behaviors, there may be the potential for counterproductive work behaviors that are directed at either the coworkers themselves (e.g., incivility or undermining behaviors), the organization as a whole (e.g., withdrawal behaviors), or a combination of the two.

Despite the inconsistency in behavioral reactions to leave, the above research does suggest some consistency in the perceptions directed toward leave-taking individuals in workplace contexts. Specifically, such perceptions tend to be negative overall, despite variation between differing leave types. Given the likely negative impact such perceptions have on

coworker relationships, one would expect similar negative consequences in experimental situations in which one partner in a dyad leaves in the middle of a shared partner task.

Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1a: Individuals who appear to leave during the middle of a shared partner task voluntarily will be evaluated more negatively than those who leave involuntarily.

Hypothesis 1b: Individuals who appear to leave during the middle of a shared partner task due to personal preference (able but free-riding) will be evaluated more negatively than those who leave due to inability.

Hypothesis 1c: These relationships will be qualified by an interaction such that individuals who appear to leave during the middle of a shared partner task due to personal preference and voluntarily will be evaluated especially negatively more than all other conditions.

### The Role of Metaperceptions

Ultimately, the behaviors in which employees engage in response to their coworkers' behaviors are largely determined by their ability to form metaperceptions (perceptions of how they are viewed by coworkers) (Laing, Phillipson, & Lee, 1966) and the accuracy of these metaperceptions. Metaperception refers to individuals' ability to form small-scale theories about how they believe others perceive them. In more simplistic terms, metaperceptions are ideas about what "I think you think of me."

The source of metaperceptions is still debated in the literature. Kenny and DePaulo (1993) argue that metaperceptions are a form of projected appraisal in which one's self-perception serves as the primary source for the development of metaperceptions. Overall, people tend to believe that others perceive them similarly to the way they perceive themselves. This idea is derived from long-standing theoretical work on person perception. Namely, metaperception is based upon the idea of "reflected appraisal." According to symbolic interactionist theories (Cooley, 1902), individuals construct their views of the self from their observations of the way other people see them. In this way, metaperceptions should be strongly associated with self-perceptions.

Other researchers have argued for the separation of such constructs based upon boundary conditions such as outcome-dependent situations, power differentials between dyad members, and attractiveness among others. Specifically, in evaluative (i.e., outcome dependent) situations, Kaplan, Santuzzi, and Ruscher (2009) found that when participants were under the impression that an interviewer controlled their outcomes, self-perceptions did not predict metaperceptions. Thus, the nature of the situation (e.g., outcome dependency) may motivate individuals to engage in more elaborative processing and pay special attention to interaction partners' reactions and cues.

Preuss and Alicke (2009) examined the role of metaperceptions in the self-enhancement effect. Generally, when comparing oneself to an average, we tend to rate ourselves above average on a number of traits. For example, this trend has been found for university professors' estimations of teaching ability (Cross, 1977) and university undergrads in both the U.K and

U.S. regarding their driving ability (Svenson, 1981). Over the course of three studies, participants consistently overestimated their attractiveness and dating popularity in the eyes of others. Interestingly, in situations in which participants were led to believe that their dating profiles would be evaluated by peers, this inflation of the metaperception was decreased to some degree. Therefore in evaluative contexts, one may become motivated to attend to situational cues to inform metaperceptions resulting in metaperceptions that become more in line with other's judgments. Yet it should not be ignored that self-enhancement (as evidenced by the inflation of metaperceptions) still persisted even when participants knew their dating profiles would be evaluated by relevant others.

Also, Corcoran and Michels (1997) examined systematic influences on metaperceptions in another social context: drinking behaviors of men and women. Specifically, women believed that their partner judged them negatively when they consumed alcohol. Conversely, men expected that their dyad partner would judge them harshly if they did not consume alcohol. The authors suggest that these metaperceptions were driven by potential differential stereotypes associated with men and women who drink in novel social contexts. Again, a common thread among these studies seems to be that perhaps, regardless of the trigger (e.g., differential stereotypes) in contexts in which there is the increased potential for negative evaluation, individuals are particularly motivated to incorporate environmental evidence to inform their metaperceptions.

Given that those individuals who leave shared tasks should be evaluated negatively, the aforementioned literature would suggest that leavers should be aware of the potentially

negative perceptions that others have of them. Therefore in evaluative contexts (e.g., a performance-based partner task) in which one dyad member leaves the shared task prematurely, one might form negatively-valenced metaperceptions. However, negative metaperceptions may be qualified by the reason provided for leaving the task. If, for example, personal choice appears to be the reason for leaving a shared task, one could expect particularly negative evaluations from partners as opposed to leave contexts in which the reason of leave appears to be outside of the leaver's control. Additionally, the contribution of ability in the leave act could contribute to the potentially negative evaluation from their peers.

Leave contexts are valuable examples of such boundary conditions. However, metaperceptions that are not based primarily upon self-perception are situationally activated constructs. To demonstrate this, I have constructed two studies: one is scenario-based, the other dyadic in nature. In the scenario study, I hypothesize that the correlation between self- and metaperceptions will approach unity, demonstrating that without the creation of a dyadic identity, and without the situational activation of the metaperception, there will be little separation between self- and metaperception. Conversely, in the second proposed dyadic study, I expected self- and metaperceptions to emerge as distinct constructs depending on the situational features. Also, in the dyadic context, the degree of accuracy in metaperceptions (meta-accuracy) may be examined as an actual evaluation from the specific others that can be acquired.

Hypothesis 2a: Metaperceptions will be less positive when a dyad partner appears to leave a shared task voluntarily rather than involuntarily.

Hypothesis 2b: Metaperceptions will be less positive when a dyad partner appears to leave a shared task due to personal preference (attempting to free-ride) rather than due to inability.

Hypothesis 2c: These relationships will be qualified by an interaction such that metaperceptions will be especially negative in contexts in which there is the perception that the partner has voluntarily left due to personal preference (in comparison to all other conditions).

### The Role of Meta-Accuracy

The ability to anticipate accurately others' evaluations and reaction to the self is an important trait as it provides valuable information regarding how one should behave to garner the most positive evaluations from important others. Indeed, Malloy, Albright, and Scarpati (2007) found evidence for meta-accuracy on behavioral, social status, and ability dimensions in children as young as six years old. Although little work has examined task-related meta-accuracy directly, the mismatch in self and other ratings on outcomes other than traits has been seen repeatedly in the performance appraisal literature. Time and again, superior and peer ratings of performance are modestly correlated with one another (e.g., 0.36 - 0.44; Beehr, Ivanitskaya, Hansen, Erofeev, & Gudanowski, 2001). Yet, self-ratings of performance do not share the same degree of correlation with superior and peer ratings. Beehr et al. (2001) report correlations between self- and manager ratings to range from 0.06 to 0.10 and self- and peer ratings to range from 0.11 to 0.24.

Oltmanns, Gleason, Klonsky, and Turkheimer (2005) also provide some evidence for self- and other perceptions that are not only mismatched but also negatively related. In regard to rating targets with personality disorders, there appears to be an inverse relationship between self-views and peers. Specifically, if individuals think they have few problems, their peers tend to think they have more problems than the individuals think they have. This work highlights a distinct problem in the literature on interpersonal perceptions. Kenny and DePaulo (1993) first suggest that people are generally accurate in their ability to determine how they are viewed by others. This has been supported by a number of theorists (see Vazire, 2010). Yet, other studies, such as the above work by Oltmanns et al. (2005), have shown consistent inaccuracies. The current study attempts to examine this issue further by clarifying the degree of accuracy (or inaccuracy) in performance-related inferences among members in a dyad.

Certainly those individuals who have a better ability to determine differentially and accurately what others are thinking of them are at an interpersonal advantage. By knowing the effects one has upon others, one is better equipped to choose interactions and behaviors that either combat or perpetuate that original perception. Carlson and Furr (2009) argue that indeed, contrary to long-held beliefs, certain individuals may be capable of differential meta-accuracy: some people are aware to an extent of the different impressions they make on different partners. Additionally Carlson, Vazire, and Furr (2011) argue beyond differential meta-accuracy for meta-insight. Certain individuals have the ability to differentiate between the reputations they truly have and the view they have of themselves. Specifically, meta-accuracy refers to one's ability to guess what others may think about the self. However, meta-insight appears to be more of a general ability in which one forms metaperceptions that are distinct from our own self-

perceptions. The current study examines meta-accuracy; however, results may inform the current research on meta-insight by providing situational qualifications to individuals' general tendencies to be accurate or not.

What are the real consequences of being socially aware of others' perceptions and, furthermore, the consequences of being accurate in interpreting others' perceptions of self? In addition to the constructs described above (i.e., effort reduction, hostility, absenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors), Elfenbein, Eisenkraft, and Ding (2009) examined the importance of meta-accuracy in the success of professional dyadic relationships. Specifically, meta-accuracy was an essential component for an individual's ability to determine which coworkers would value them in a professional relationship. Individuals who were able to correctly determine others' perceptions were better able to determine which dyadic relationships to pursue. Ultimately, the authors suggest that meta-accuracy may serve as the basis for successful networking attempts. Specifically, if individuals can correctly determine others' perceptions, they can differentially determine which networking relationships may be worthy of pursuit and which may be best left undeveloped.

More generally, Ohtsubo et al. (2009) show that the degree of meta-accuracy between dyad members might be a function of positive perceptions. In general, dyad members who like one another tend to be accurate in judging how their partner sees them. Unilateral liking does not predict meta-accuracy; only mutual liking does. The authors suggest that dyad members who like one another engage in interactions that are both more expressive and attentive than do members in dyads that exhibit unilateral liking.



This research seems to run counter to work by Snodgrass (1985, 1992) and Snodgrass, Hecht, and Ploutz-Snyder (1998). When considering meta-accuracy in dyads in which there are power differentials, mutual liking does not appear to be a prerequisite for increased meta-accuracy. Specifically subordinates seem to be more accurate in noticing their leaders' perceptions of them than *visa versa*, regardless of the favorability of the leaders' perceptions.

Research is scarce that strictly pertains to the meta-accuracy of perceptions in *coworker* relationships. Malloy, Albright, Kenny, Agatstein, and Winquist (1997) utilized small samples of target participants' coworkers, along with family members and friends, to investigate the degree of consensus across varying social contexts regarding the target participant's personality. Although generally there was agreement among the various social contexts, there was evidence for slight distinctions of personality among contexts. Although this does not speak directly to the effects of meta-accuracy on subsequent behaviors, it does highlight that in different contexts (e.g., the workplace), and even with different individuals (e.g., coworkers), individuals can experience differing effects upon how others view them and this differential accuracy is important for future dyadic interactions.

#### Application of Meta-Accuracy to Leave Contexts

One particular work context in which metaperceptions and meta-accuracy among coworkers are particularly important might be when employees attempt to navigate work-life demands by going on medical or family-related leave. For example, two possible mechanisms serve as the driving force behind cases of meta-inaccuracy between coworkers and leave-taking

employees. The leave-taking employee may form an inaccurate negative metaperception as the result of experiences of social exclusion. In cases in which employees cannot complete shared work tasks and must go on leave due to medical concerns, the leave-taking employee may experience exclusion from the task. As a result, leaving employees might determine that their partners are developing negative perceptions of them, when indeed this may not be the case.

Work on metaperceptions has largely focused on the accuracy of these perceptions within a general dyadic framework (Carlson & Furr, 2009; Elfenbein et al., 2009; Malloy et al., 1997). However, the sources and consequences of meta-accuracy specifically applied to leave contexts have not been examined empirically. Guidance on how metaperceptions are formed and their degree of accuracy in leave contexts can be drawn from literature on the role of social stigma in meta-accuracy in dyads (Miller & Malloy, 2003; Santuzzi, 2007). Leave contexts present a common workplace situation in which a worker can be stigmatized for not fulfilling his or her part of work duties, especially if the task is interdependent. Specifically, in leave cases in which the leaver must take time off due to a disability or medical issue, there is the potential for that individual to feel stigmatized. Therefore, in these cases, leavers may form negative and negatively biased metaperceptions (Miller & Malloy, 2003; Santuzzi, 2007). Specifically, stigmatized or “leaving” individuals may form negative metaperceptions of nonstigmatized or “staying” dyad partners because they expect to be negatively evaluated due to the stigma associated with leaving. However, this bias for negative metaperceptions in leave contexts may lead to inaccuracy (particularly in conditions in which participants leave involuntarily and because of an inability to perform as partner evaluations) and may not be as negative as focal participants expect (reflecting low meta-accuracy). Conversely, participants in

leave conditions in which they appear to leave voluntarily and because of personal preference may accurately anticipate negative partner evaluations.

Using a dyadic experimental design that manipulates various leave situations would allow investigation into the accuracy of the actor's metaperceptions.

Hypothesis 3a: In leave contexts in which the reason for leave is perceived to be due to choice as opposed to leave contexts in which the reason for leave is perceived to be due to experimenter choice, leavers will accurately anticipate negative perceptions from their partner (high meta-accuracy).

Hypothesis 3b: In voluntary choice leave contexts in which the reason for leave is perceived to be due to inability as opposed to personal preference, leavers will incorrectly anticipate the intensity of negative perceptions from their partner. In other words, their partner may hold perceptions that are more negative than the leaver may believe (low meta-accuracy).

## CHAPTER 2

### STUDY 1

#### Methods

#### Participants

A 2x2 between subjects factorial ANOVA was conducted for each of the outcome measures. The sample consisted of 151 participants, ranging in age from 18 to 80 years ( $M = 35.82$ ,  $SD = 12.15$ ). The sample was 45% female and 55% reported being employed full-time. Eight participants were removed from subsequent analyses due to response failure on the more than 50% of survey items.

#### Measures

#### Perceptions of Fairness

Perceptions of fairness were assessed utilizing items adapted from the procedural and distributive justice subscales of the Organizational Justice Scale (Colquitt, 2001). The procedural justice subscale includes seven items ( $\alpha = .78$ ) pertaining to individuals' perceptions of the extent to which the rules and procedures used to arrive at the experimental task outcome have been fair and just. The distributive justice subscale includes four items ( $\alpha = .92$ ) pertaining

to individuals' perceptions of the extent to which the experimental task outcome has been equitable. Items on both subscales are assessed on a 5-point rating scale (1 = *to a small extent*, 5 = *to a large extent*). Metaperceptions for this variable are not assessed. Please refer to Appendix A for a complete list of all items.

### Perceptions and Metaperceptions of Responsibility

Perceptions as well as metaperceptions of responsibility were assessed using single-item measures adapted from Feather and Simon (1971). Participants were instructed to indicate on a 5-point rating scale the degree to which performance was attributable to luck or ability. Anchors at each extreme were "*Mainly due to luck*" and "*Mainly due to ability*" with the mid-point labeled as "*50% luck, 50% ability.*"

### Perceptions and Metaperceptions of Self-Discipline

Perceptions as well as metaperceptions of self-discipline were assessed using the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006) Neuroticism-Extraversion-Openness (NEO) short-form self-discipline scale ( $\alpha = .75$ ). The scale includes 10 items assessed on a 1 to 5 rating scale (1 = *very inaccurate*, 5 = *very accurate*) in which respondents indicate the degree to which the item accurately describes themselves or their dyad partner.

### Perceptions and Metaperceptions of Conscientiousness

Perceptions and metaperceptions of conscientiousness were assessed using the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006) short-form conscientiousness scale ( $\alpha = .88$ ). The scale includes 10 items assessed on a 1 to 5 rating scale (1 = *Very Inaccurate*, 5 = *Very Accurate*), in which respondents indicate the degree to which the item accurately describes themselves or their dyad partner.

### Perceptions and Metaperceptions of Trustworthiness

Perceptions of trustworthiness were assessed using a measure adapted from Ohanian (1990), which includes five trait items assessed on a 5-point bipolar rating scale ( $\alpha = .89$ ). Metaperceptions of trustworthiness were also assessed by asking participants to respond to the items from the perspective of their dyad partner.

### Perceptions of Engagement

Perceptions of engagement were assessed using items adapted from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) as suggested by Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, and Taris (2008) ( $\alpha = .89$ ). Two items for each of the three dimensions of work engagement were used: Vigor (e.g., “I felt strong and vigorous while working”), Dedication (e.g., “I was enthusiastic about my work”), and Absorption (e.g., “I was completely immersed in my work”). This shortened version of the scale was used due to the fact that many items on

the original scale refer to a job or career from a long-term, longitudinal perspective. Due to the temporary nature of the dyadic interaction, such items did not aid in analysis. Each item is assessed on a 7-point scale (1 = *Very Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Very Strongly Agree*). Please refer to Appendix A for a complete listing of the original Utrecht items and those that were retained from the original measure.

### Perceptions and Metaperceptions of Likeability

Perceptions of likeability were assessed using scale items adapted from Reysen (2005). This measure includes 11 items ( $\alpha = .90$ ) rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Very Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Very Strongly Agree*). Metaperceptions of likeability were assessed by instructing participants to respond to the items from the perspective of their dyad partner.

### Willingness to Work in Future

Participants' willingness to work with their dyad partner on similar tasks in the future was determined using items assessed on a 7-point rating scale. For example, "I would be willing to work with my partner in the future" (1 = *Very Unwilling*, 7 = *Very Willing*). Also, an item assessing the participants' willingness to recommend their interaction partner for future group studies was added: "I would recommend my partner for other studies on group performance" (1 = *Definitely Not Recommend*, 7 = *Definitely Recommend*).

### Deservingness of Rewards

Perceptions regarding how deserving of rewards participants determined their dyad partners to be were determined using a 5–point rating scale (1 = *My partner deserves no credit*, 5 = *My partner deserves full credit*) that asks, “To what degree does your partner deserve full research credit for today’s task?” Additionally, participants were asked to give a hypothetical allocation of two experimental research credits between themselves and their partner. An open-ended question asking participants’ reasoning for the allocation of research credits in that particular ratio was also added.

### Procedure

Participants were recruited through a survey link posted on Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Only participants from the U. S. were eligible to complete the survey and were compensated with \$1.00 upon completion of the survey. After obtaining informed consent, participants were randomly presented with one of four research scenarios asking them to imagine they are working on a project with a coworker. Each scenario varied in regard to the reason why the participant left the project (personal preference vs. ability) as well as whether the participant or a supervisor made the decision that the participant leave the task (choice vs. no choice). In the Personal/Choice condition, participants were told they had chosen to remove themselves from the project due to the fact that they deemed the project to be too hard. In the Personal/No Choice condition, participants were told they complained about their dislike of the



project to their supervisor and were subsequently removed from the task. In the Ability/Choice condition, participants were told they began to suffer a severe migraine attack and chose to remove themselves from the project. Finally, in the Ability/No Choice condition, participants were told they began to suffer from a migraine attack and upon noticing their condition, the participant's supervisor removed them from the project.

Participants then filled out a number of measures assessing their self-perceptions as well as metaperceptions on the key interpersonal constructs: responsibility, fairness, engagement, self-discipline, conscientiousness, likeability, trustworthiness, and willingness to work with in the future. Upon completion, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

## Results

### Self-Discipline

There was a statistically significant main effect for choice,  $F(1, 139) = 14.63, p < .001$ , such that those who were described as leaving involuntarily reported more positive metaperceptions (showing more self-discipline) than those who left voluntarily. Similarly, there was a statistically significant main effect for ability,  $F(1, 139) = 4.08, p < .05$ , such that those who were described as leaving for an ability-based reason reported anticipating that they would be viewed more positively than those who left due to a personal, nonability-based reason. The hypothesized interaction was not significant. Please refer to Table 1 for cell means and standard deviations.

Table 1

Mean Self and Metaperception Values as a Function of Choice and Ability Conditions: Study 1

Self-Discipline				
Choice Condition	Self-Perception		Metaperception	
	Ability Condition		Ability Condition	
	Ability	Personal	Ability	Personal
Voluntary	3.95 (0.63)	3.92 (0.73)	4.00 (0.76)	3.24 (1.10)
Involuntary	3.94 (0.86)	3.95 (0.72)	4.14 (0.60)	3.72 (0.99)
Conscientiousness				
Voluntary	4.01 (0.73)	3.95 (0.71)	3.96 (0.81)	3.08 (1.13)
Involuntary	4.01 (0.73)	4.05 (0.71)	3.99 (0.86)	3.47 (1.11)
Trustworthiness				
Voluntary	6.09 (1.01)	6.31 (0.67)	5.64 (1.15)	4.35 (2.00)
Involuntary	6.09 (1.18)	6.44 (0.90)	5.50 (1.62)	4.79 (2.05)
Likeability				
Voluntary	5.22 (0.80)	5.13 (0.94)	4.89 (0.83)	4.46 (1.44)
Involuntary	5.32 (0.82)	5.35 (0.95)	4.98 (0.94)	4.43 (1.30)

### Conscientiousness

There was a statistically significant main effect of ability,  $F(1, 139) = 16.45, p < .001$ , such that those who were described as leaving for an ability-based reason reported anticipating that they would be viewed as more conscientious than those who left due to a nonability-based reason. The main effect for choice and the anticipated interaction were not significant.

### Trustworthiness

The analysis revealed a statistically significant main effect of ability  $F(1, 139) = 10.58, p < .001$ , such that those who were described as leaving for an ability-based reason reported anticipating that they would be viewed as more trustworthy than those who left due to a personal reason. Again, the main effect for choice and the anticipated interaction were not significant.

### Likeability

There was a statistically significant main effect of ability  $F(1, 139) = 5.69, p < .05$ , such that those who were described as leaving for an ability-based reason reported anticipating that they would be viewed as more likeable than those who left due to a person reason. Again, the main effect for choice and the anticipated interaction were not significant.

### Additional Analyses

I also hypothesized that self- and metaperceptions would be positively correlated with one another. Specifically, this correlation should approach unity due to the lack of situational activation of metaperceptions. Therefore, metaperceptions would be drawn largely from participants' self-views. To determine the strength of the relationship between self- and metaperceptions, and to establish whether this relationship varied by condition, a moderated linear regression was conducted wherein metaperceptions were regressed on self-perceptions, and choice and ability conditions were added as moderators of this effect. To accomplish this, the data were analyzed using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013) and run through Model 3, with self-perceptions as the independent variable, metaperceptions as the dependent variable, and choice and ability treated as moderators.

#### Self-Discipline

Overall, the model showed acceptable fit,  $F(7, 135) = 11.07, p < .001, R^2 = .36$ . Self-perceptions positively predicted metaperceptions,  $b = .65, p < .001$ , suggesting that participants drew upon their own self-views of self-discipline to anticipate how others would view them. Additionally, ability positively predicted metaperceptions of self-discipline,  $b = .57, p < .001$ , as did choice  $b = .35, p < .001$ . Therefore, participants anticipated being viewed more positively (having more self-discipline) in ability vs. nonability conditions. Similarly, participants anticipated being viewed as possessing more self-discipline in conditions in which

they left involuntarily vs. voluntarily. The two- and three-way interactions were not significant, thus suggesting that participants drew consistently upon self views to form metaperceptions of self-discipline across the four conditions.

### Conscientiousness

Overall, the model showed acceptable fit,  $F(7, 135) = 6.86, p < .001, R^2 = .27$ . Self-perceptions of conscientiousness positively predicted metaperceptions,  $b = .54, p < .001$ , again suggesting that participants drew upon their own self-views of conscientiousness to anticipate how others would view them. Additionally, ability positively predicted metaperceptions of conscientiousness,  $b = .73, p < .001$ , specifically participants anticipated being viewed as possessing more conscientiousness in ability vs. nonability conditions. The two- and three-way interactions were not significant, thus suggesting that participants consistently drew upon self-views to form anticipated evaluations of conscientiousness across the four conditions.

### Trustworthiness

Overall, the model showed acceptable fit  $F(7, 135) = 6.08, p < .001, R^2 = .24$ . As before, self-perceptions of trustworthiness positively predicted metaperceptions of trustworthiness,  $b = .83, p < .001$ , suggesting that participants drew upon self-views to establish anticipated evaluations. Additionally, ability positively predicted metaperceptions of trustworthiness,  $b = 1.17, p < .001$ . Therefore, participants anticipated being viewed as more trustworthy in ability vs. nonability conditions. The two- and three-way interactions were not

significant, thus suggesting that participants drew upon self-views to form anticipated evaluations across conditions, but also seemed to factor in ability.

### Likeability

Overall, the model showed acceptable fit  $F(7, 135) = 6.53, p < .001$ . As before, self-perceptions of likeability positively predicted metaperceptions of likeability,  $b = .60, p < .001$ , thus suggesting that participants drew upon self-views to establish anticipated evaluations of likeability. Additionally, ability positively predicted metaperceptions of likeability,  $b = .54, p < .01$ . Therefore participants anticipated being viewed as more likeable in ability vs. nonability conditions. The self-perception of likeability by choice interaction was significant,  $b = -.42, p < .05$ , suggesting that the relationship between self- and metaperceptions of likeability was stronger (participants drew more heavily upon self-perceptions) in conditions in which they left voluntarily vs. involuntarily.

### Discussion

The results from Study 1 show consistently that participants anticipate that they will be evaluated more positively when the reason for leave is ability-based (illness) rather than personal. Furthermore, participants anticipate that they will be evaluated as having less self-discipline when the leave is voluntary rather than involuntary. This pattern was not shown in the other outcome variables (i.e., conscientiousness, trustworthiness, likeability). Past research has shown that individuals are particularly positive in their interactions with low-ability

interaction partners (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Kerr, 1983, Taggart & Neubert, 2004).

Specifically Kerr (1983) found that interaction partners increase their own efforts to achieve successful group performance if they are aware that their partner is incapable of successful individual performance. Similarly, such low-ability individuals engender reactions of sympathy and compensation motivations from partners (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Taggart & Neubert, 2004). It would appear that not only are individuals more likely to be evaluated positively, but they might be able to anticipate accurately this evaluation (directly tested in Study 2).

Therefore, one piece of information that employees may take into consideration as they make the choice to take leave is the perceived legitimacy of the reason given for leaving the workplace.

It is also interesting to note that participants anticipated being viewed as possessing more self-discipline when their supervisor removed them from the project than when they removed themselves. This may be related to diffusion of responsibility (Darley & Latané, 1968). Participants may assume that the responsibility for the leave decision lies with the authority figure in this scenario (the supervisor). As such, their behavior (leaving the project prematurely) is perceived as a reflection of the supervisor and not their own ability to demonstrate self-control. Therefore, when employees are considering taking leave from the organization, one thing they may take into account is the degree of choice they possess. Past research by the author (Heneghan & Santuzzi, 2012) suggests that those employees who take leave for a vacation are evaluated more negatively than those employees who take maternity leave. One reason for this may be the perception that the employee taking vacation leave possesses more choice than the pregnant employee. Therefore, if both employees and

evaluators perceive a loss of choice, employees may be able to anticipate positive coworker reactions.

### The Role of Self

Another aim of Study 1 was to determine how strongly participants relied upon their own self-perceptions to form metaperceptions of each outcome variable. It was argued that in a scenario-based design, the activation of metaperceptions would be weak and participants would therefore draw upon self-views to form anticipated evaluations. Overall, this expectation was confirmed. Regardless of condition, self-perceptions significantly predicted metaperceptions of self-discipline, conscientiousness, trustworthiness, and likeability. Therefore, it could be that without the presence of an interaction partner, participants were not enticed to engage in the cognitively demanding task of determining how they would be evaluated by a specific other.

However, it is interesting to note that the relationship between self- and metaperceptions of likeability was qualified by a self-perception by choice interaction. Specifically, the relationship between self- and metaperceptions was stronger in conditions in which participants were instructed to leave voluntarily vs. involuntarily. In this scenario, perhaps the task of determining what a specific, hypothetical individual would think of oneself is a particularly difficult task. Therefore, participants are more likely to rely on whatever information they have. In this case, the self would be a rich source of information; more so than in conditions in which leave is determined by a supervisor.



As discussed previously, one potential explanation for the inconsistencies in reaction data from past research may be due to past studies asking participants to make judgments on hypothetical scenarios and employees. Study 2 built upon Study 1 by re-examining the hypotheses in a live dyadic context and incorporating the accuracy of leavers' metaperceptions against partners' evaluations.

## CHAPTER 3

### STUDY 2

#### Method

##### Participants

One hundred dyads were recruited from undergraduate psychology classes at a large midwestern university. In return for participation, participants were awarded credit toward their required course completion or as an extra-credit opportunity. The sample was 49% female, and age ranged from 18 to 43 years ( $M = 20.15$ ,  $SD = 2.15$ ). Forty-four percent of the sample was comprised of homogenous-sex dyads ( $N_{F-F \text{ homogenous}} = 23$ ) and 56% mixed-sex dyads. Two cases were excluded from all analyses due to more than 50% missing data or determination of participant suspicion during funneled debriefing. To preserve as much of the sample as possible and bolster statistical power, dyads with partial missing data were used in analyses when possible. This resulted in sample sizes for analyses ranging from 96 to 98 dyads.

##### Procedure

Participants from undergraduate introductory psychology courses were recruited for a “dyadic study” using the university’s participant management software: SONA. Participants

from upper-level undergraduate psychology courses were recruited using verbal and written announcements. Upon arriving to the lab, experimenters informed participants they would be engaging in a two-part partner task, during which their attitudes and opinions would be assessed. Consent forms were distributed, signed, and collected before subjects were allowed to participate.

In an effort to establish feelings of rapport and interdependence between the dyad members, each dyad completed Part 1 of a supposed two-part partner task. Dyads were instructed to spend 10 minutes working together on a brainstorming task in which they would have to list seven new wonders of the world. They were further instructed to assume that after the first phase of the task, they would engage in an online, virtual session with another dyad in which they would both have to argue the advantages of their agreed-upon seven wonders over the other dyad's choices.

Upon completion of Part 1, participants were told that Part 2 of the partner task included their participation as a team on an online debate against a team from another university. Their goal was to debate successfully the superiority of their own seven wonders over the other group's choices. In truth, participants did not actually participate in Part 2; however, creating the anticipation that they would continue in the task was essential. Participants were separated and set up at individual computer stations. Partner 1 (the "leaving" partner) was told the experimenter planned to tell his/her partner they had left the study with one of four scenarios as explanation. These scenarios directly paralleled the scenarios explained in Study 1. Partners then filled out a number of measures aimed at assessing his/her perceptions and

metaperceptions (all measures used can be found in the attached appendices). Partner 2 (the "staying" partner) was told his/her partner had left, again using one of four scenarios as explanation, and that he/she would have to continue the task on his/her own. Again, the participant did not actually complete the task; however, the belief that he/she would was essential for assessing the true perceptions he/she had of his/her partner. Partner 2 then filled out a number of measures aimed at assessing his/her perceptions of his/her partner, which allowed for the analysis of the accuracy of Partner 1's metaperceptions.

Additionally, participants were asked to allocate hypothetically rewards (experimental research credits) to both themselves and their partner. Of a possible two research credits, participants were instructed to assign appropriate partial values to both themselves and their interaction partner. This served as a behavioral indication of perceptions of fairness as well as an indication of punishment against the leaving participant. Upon completion of the experiment, participants were fully debriefed in the true nature of the study and thanked for their participation.

### Measures

Measures used in Study 2 were identical to those used in Study 1. However, "leaving" participants completed both self- and metaperception items and "staying" participants filled out self- and evaluative items. For example, an evaluative likeability item would read, "*I would like my interaction partner as a roommate.*" Additionally, participants were instructed to allocate hypothetical partial research credits (two maximum) to both themselves and their interaction

partner. Upon inspection of participant responses, participants did not vary in how many credits they allocated to themselves and their partner (one credit for self and one credit for partner). Therefore, due to low variance, this item was not subjected to additional analyses. Analyses were conducted on the dyad level; therefore, sample sizes for analyses reflect the number of dyads in the sample.

## Results

### Preliminary Analyses

A series of 2x2 factorial ANOVAs were conducted on each of the metaperception and evaluation outcome measures to determine mean differences. The gender composition of the dyad (mixed vs. homogenous), justice perceptions, and engagement perceptions were treated as covariates. However, addition of justice and engagement perceptions as covariates left the results unchanged. Therefore, simplified analyses with gender composition of the dyad as a covariate were run, and results are reported below.

### Metaperception of Self-Discipline

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 95) = 0.20, p = .65$ , and choice,  $F(1, 95) = 0.01, p = .98$ , were not significant. Additionally, the ability by choice interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 95) = 2.31, p = .13$ . Please refer to Table 2 for cell means and standard deviations.

Table 2

Mean Self, Metaperception, and Evaluation Values as a Function of Choice and Ability Conditions:  
Study 2

Self-Discipline						
Self-Perception		Metaperception		Evaluation		
Ability Condition		Ability Condition		Ability Condition		
Choice Condition	Ability	Personal	Ability	Personal	Ability	Personal
Voluntary	3.93 (0.61)	3.81 (0.58)	3.69 (0.76)	3.41 (0.77)	3.58 (0.90)	3.47 (0.81)
Involuntary	3.72 (0.65)	3.76 (0.59)	3.48 (0.56)	3.63 (0.78)	3.67 (0.55)	3.59 (0.60)
Conscientiousness						
Voluntary	4.00 (0.53)	3.75 (0.52)	3.54 (0.68)	3.29 (0.74)	3.44 (0.83)	3.27 (0.79)
Involuntary	3.78 (0.52)	3.82 (0.63)	3.39 (0.85)	3.40 (0.64)	3.51 (0.55)	3.43 (0.65)
Trustworthiness						
Voluntary	5.79 (1.72)	5.51 (1.74)	4.19 (2.06)	3.99 (1.95)	5.11 (1.55)	4.34 (1.44)
Involuntary	5.71 (1.63)	6.13 (1.14)	4.75 (1.89)	4.71 (1.97)	4.98 (1.62)	4.71 (1.74)
Likeability						
Voluntary	5.86 (0.74)	5.85 (0.72)	4.67 (0.84)	4.53 (0.97)	4.86 (1.01)	4.45 (1.13)
Involuntary	5.60 (0.93)	5.95 (0.76)	4.53 (0.87)	4.69 (1.06)	5.10 (1.05)	4.73 (1.20)

### Metaperception of Conscientiousness

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 95) = 0.34$ ,  $p = .42$ , and choice,  $F(1, 95) = 0.02$ ,  $p = .89$ , were not significant. Additionally, the ability by choice interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 95) = 0.78$ ,  $p = .38$ .

### Metaperception of Trustworthiness

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 95) = 0.08$ ,  $p = .78$ , and choice,  $F(1, 95) = 2.61$ ,  $p = .11$ , were not significant. Additionally, the ability by choice interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 95) = .13$ ,  $p = .86$ .

### Metaperception of Likeability

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 95) = 0.01$ ,  $p = .96$ , and choice,  $F(1, 95) = 0.01$ ,  $p = .95$ , were not significant. Additionally, the ability by choice interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 95) = 0.67$ ,  $p = .42$ .

### Evaluations of Self-Discipline

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 94) = 0.45$ ,  $p = .51$ , and choice,  $F(1, 94) = 0.45$ ,  $p = .50$ , were not significant. Additionally the ability by choice interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 94) = 0.03$ ,  $p = .86$ .

### Evaluations of Conscientiousness

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 94) = 0.83, p = .37$ , and choice,  $F(1, 94) = 0.55, p = .46$ , were not significant. Additionally, the ability by choice interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 94) = 0.10, p = .76$ .

### Evaluations of Trustworthiness

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show that the main effects of ability,  $F(1, 96) = 2.54$ , and choice,  $F(1, 96) = 0.14$ , were not significant. Additionally, the ability by choice interaction was not significant.

### Evaluations of Likeability

Results from a 2x2 factorial ANOVA show a marginally significant main effect of ability,  $F(1, 93) = 2.91, p = .09$ , such that when a partner left for an ability-based reason, he or she was evaluated as being more likeable than when he or she left for a nonability-based reason. The main effect for choice,  $F(1, 93) = 1.33, p = .25$ , and the ability by choice interaction,  $F(1, 93) = 0.01, p = .93$ , was not significant.



### Dyadic Meta-Accuracy

To test dyadic meta-accuracy, the data were subjected to a series of linear regression models wherein evaluations were regressed on metaperceptions. Furthermore, moderated relationships were tested with the inclusion of ability and choice variables as moderators. Each model was tested using the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2013), controlling for the gender composition of the dyad (mixed versus homogenous dyads).

#### Self-Discipline

Overall, the model showed poor fit,  $F(8, 90) = 0.82, p = .58, R^2 = .07$ . Contrary to hypotheses, metaperceptions of self-discipline did not predict evaluations of self-discipline,  $b = 0.15, p = .17$ , suggesting that participants were not systematically over- or underestimating their partner's evaluations. Therefore, the dyadic meta-accuracy for self-discipline is poor. The hypothesized three-way interaction was not significant,  $b = 0.01, p = .98$ , neither were the lower-order two-way interactions.

#### Conscientiousness

Overall, the model showed poor fit  $F(8, 90) = 1.26, p = .27, R^2 = .10$ . Contrary to hypotheses, metaperceptions of conscientiousness did not predict evaluations of conscientiousness,  $b = 0.04, p = .66$ , suggesting that participants were neither over-, nor underestimating their partner's evaluations. Therefore, the dyadic meta-accuracy for

conscientiousness is poor. The hypothesized three-way interaction was not significant,  $b = 0.26$ ,  $p = .51$ . One lower-order interaction (metaperception of conscientiousness by ability) was statistically significant,  $b = 0.48$ ,  $p < .05$ ; however, given the nonsignificant omnibus test of the model, this interaction should be interpreted with caution.

### Trustworthiness

Overall, the model showed poor fit,  $F(8, 88) = .91$ ,  $p = .51$ ,  $R^2 = .08$ . Metaperceptions of trustworthiness did not predict evaluations of trustworthiness,  $b = 0.09$ ,  $p = .26$ , again suggesting that participants were not able to accurately anticipate others' evaluations. Contrary to the hypotheses, this relationship was not moderated by ability or choice conditions, neither was the anticipated three-way interaction significant,  $b = -0.26$ ,  $p = .45$ .

### Likeability

Overall, the model showed acceptable fit,  $F(8, 89) = 2.77$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $R^2 = .20$ . Metaperceptions of likeability positively predicted evaluations of likeability,  $b = 0.39$ ,  $p < .01$ , suggesting that participants were able to anticipate accurately evaluations of likeability. However, this relationship was qualified by a statistically significant metaperception of likeability by choice interaction,  $b = 0.51$ ,  $p < .05$ . Analysis of the simple slopes revealed that meta-accuracy was higher when participants were told that they would be leaving involuntarily ( $b = 0.78$ ,  $p < .01$ ) vs. voluntarily ( $b = 0.37$ ,  $p = .21$ ). Please refer to Figure 1 for a graphical

depiction of the interaction. The hypothesized three-way and all other lower-level interactions were not significant.

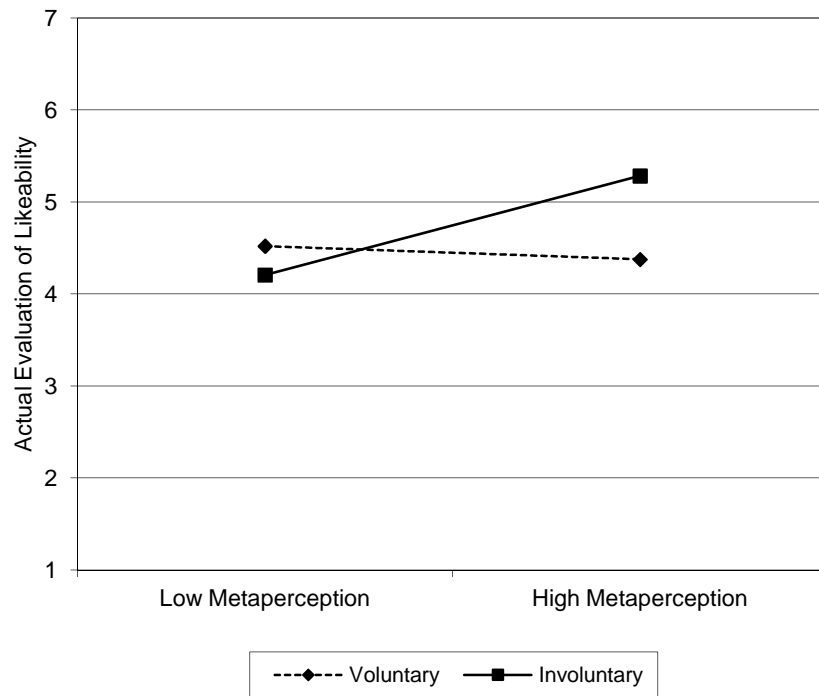


Figure 1. Interaction of metaperception of likeability and choice condition: Study 2.

### Exploratory Analyses

Exploratory analyses were conducted to further investigate the role of self- and partner evaluations in the formation of metaperceptions. Study 1 suggests that participants relied heavily upon self-perceptions to formulate anticipated evaluations. Of interest here is whether

this reliance on self-information is consistent in a salient dyad context. If the argument that metaperceptions must be situationally activated is correct, one would expect to see participants incorporating situational information from their interaction partner into their metaperceptions.

One-sided analyses were conducted using the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model. The full model allows one to determine the relative influence of an individual's (actor) and his/her partner's perceptions on a given outcome variable. A simplified version of this model was used to determine the relative contribution of the leaving participant's self-perception on his or her own metaperception (actor effect) and the partner's evaluations on the leaving participant's metaperceptions (partner effect). This model was conducted on each outcome variable (self-discipline, conscientiousness, trustworthiness, and likeability). Where appropriate, a discussion of differential effects by experimental condition is reported.

### Self-Discipline

The overall model showed acceptable fit  $F(2, 96) = 5.065, p < .01, R^2 = .095$ . There was a significant actor effect of self-perceptions of self-discipline on metaperceptions of self-discipline,  $b = 0.32, p < .01$ . The partner effect was not significant,  $b = 0.13, p = .21$ . Therefore, regardless of condition, participants relied more heavily upon their own self-perceptions of self-discipline than their partner's actual evaluations to form metaperceptions.

The actor effect was qualified by a self-perception by choice interaction,  $b = 0.72, p < .05$ , such that participants relied upon self-perceptions of self-discipline to form

metaperceptions when the choice to leave was involuntary ( $b = 0.74, p < .001$ ) rather than voluntary ( $b = 0.13, p = .57$ ). All interactions for the partner effect were nonsignificant.

### Conscientiousness

The overall model showed acceptable fit  $F(2, 96) = 5.80, p < .01, R^2 = .11$ . There was a significant actor effect of self-perceptions of conscientiousness on metaperceptions of conscientiousness,  $b = 0.41, p < .01$ . The partner effect was not significant,  $b = 0.05, p = .61$ . Therefore, regardless of condition, participants relied more heavily upon their own self-perceptions of conscientiousness than their partner's actual evaluations to form metaperceptions.

When the nonsignificant three-way interaction is removed from analysis, the partner effect is qualified by an evaluation by ability interaction,  $b = 0.46, p < .05$ , such that participants incorporated partner evaluations of conscientiousness when leaving due to an ability-based reason ( $b = 0.30, p < .05$ ), rather than a nonability-based reason ( $b = -0.16, p = .33$ ).

### Trustworthiness

The overall model showed acceptable fit  $F(2, 94) = 6.73, p < .01, R^2 = .13$ . There was a significant actor effect of self-perceptions of trustworthiness on metaperceptions of trustworthiness,  $b = 0.42, p < .01$ . The partner effect was not significant,  $b = 0.10, p < .40$ .

Therefore, regardless of condition, participants relied more heavily upon their own self-perceptions of trustworthiness than their partner's actual evaluations to form metaperceptions.

When the nonsignificant three-way interaction is removed from analysis, the actor effect is qualified by a marginally significant self-perception by choice interaction,  $b = 0.44$ ,  $p = .08$ , such that self-perceptions influence metaperceptions in conditions in which participants left involuntarily ( $b = 0.61$ ,  $p < .01$ ) vs. voluntarily ( $b = 0.17$ ,  $p = .40$ ).

### Likeability

The overall model showed acceptable fit  $F(2, 95) = 17.30$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $R^2 = .27$ . There was a significant actor effect of self-perceptions of likeability on metaperceptions of likeability,  $b = 0.47$ ,  $p < .001$ . The partner effect was also significant,  $b = 0.23$ ,  $p < .01$ . Therefore, regardless of condition, participants relied upon both their own self-perceptions and their partner's actual evaluations to form metaperceptions of likeability.

The partner effect was qualified by an evaluation by choice interaction,  $b = 0.57$ ,  $p < .05$ , such that rater evaluations significantly affected metaperceptions of likeability when the choice to leave was involuntary ( $b = 0.44$ ,  $p < .01$ ) rather than voluntary ( $b = -0.11$ ,  $p = .44$ ). All interactions for the actor effect were nonsignificant.

## Discussion

Analyses from Study 2 showed that neither mean levels of metaperceptions nor mean levels of evaluations differed by condition. There is evidence for a trend toward significance considering evaluations of likeability. Leaving participants were evaluated more positively (i.e., more likeable) in conditions in which the reason for leave was ability-based rather than personal. This finding, albeit not statistically significant, is consistent with research from social loafing suggesting that raters are more lenient in their evaluations of partners in a group task when their partner's lack of contribution appears to result from a lack of ability (Jackson & LePine, 2003; Kerr, 1983; Taggart & Neubert, 2004).

### Meta-Accuracy

Surprisingly, metaperceptions were unrelated to partner evaluations on self-discipline, conscientiousness, and trustworthiness. Therefore participants did not display meta-accuracy on these variables. Although past research suggests that dyadic meta-accuracy is poor when compared to generalized meta-accuracy (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993), the lack of an overall relationship between metaperceptions and evaluations is surprising. Participants did not systematically show accuracy or show a bias in their estimations (e.g., over- or underestimating evaluations). As such, there may be a third variable that accounts for this finding. One reason may be due to the fact that each of these outcome variables is a personality trait that is not as observable as other traits. For instance, conscientiousness may have fewer behavioral indicators that interaction partners can draw upon than a trait such as extraversion.

Indeed, the Realistic Accuracy Model of personality judgment (Funder, 1995) highlights the necessary steps for the accurate judgment of personality traits. First, the individual that is being judged must do something that is relevant to the trait being judged. For instance, an interaction partner may indeed be self-disciplined, but if this individual does not demonstrate behavior indicative of this trait (e.g., complete chores), he or she cannot be deemed so. Second, the behavior that is relevant to the trait must be available to the judge. Third, not only must the behavior be available, it must be detected. Having an organizer for one's writing utensils may be indicative of conscientiousness. However, if the judge fails to detect his or her partner selecting a pencil from this organizer before engaging in a task, accurate judgment cannot take place. Finally, the relevant, available, and detected information must be utilized. For example, arriving to an experiment on time must be interpreted as a reflection of conscientiousness rather than a common courtesy. One important moderator affecting the degree of judgment accuracy is the quality of the trait itself (Funder, 2012). Traits that are more visible are more available, easier to detect, and able to be judged with better self-other agreement than less visible traits (Funder, 2012; Funder & Dobroth, 1987).

Furthermore, it may be difficult to demonstrate these qualities in the context of a short interaction. Therefore, the best source of information on these traits may not be the interaction itself, but rather other information that is readily available (e.g., the self). For instance, a short interaction in which individuals determine a new list of the seven wonders of the world may not provide an opportunity for an individual to demonstrate his or her conscientiousness. Furthermore, such demonstrations may not be perceived as particularly diagnostic by the individual's interaction partner.



It is important to note that a metaperception by ability interaction was observed for conscientiousness. Metaperceptions of conscientiousness are more predictive of evaluations of conscientiousness (there is increased meta-accuracy) when the reason given for leave is ability-based rather than personal. However, this interaction should be interpreted with caution as the overall model fit was poor. Again, the Realistic Accuracy Model helps in understanding this pattern of results. When participants are given some behavioral evidence on which to make the judgment (in this case the ability-based reason for leave), judgments are more accurate because the behavior exhibits more relevance, availability, detectability, and utility. However, what is not clear is the mechanism behind the increased accuracy. In the case of Funder's (2012) research, it could be that the evaluation becomes more accurate (through the Realistic Accuracy Model).

Another explanation for the increased accuracy may stem from individual metaperceptions becoming more aligned with actual evaluations. When presented with ability information, leavers may correctly anticipate that ability-based reasons for leave should be typically evaluated more positively than nonability-based reasons. Conversely, nonability-based reasons for leave cause the leaver to cue more vigilantly into environmental and relational cues to aid metaperception formation and, as such, their accuracy falters. Future research should examine the potential mechanisms behind this effect.

Conversely, when considering likeability, results show that metaperceptions significantly predict evaluations. Therefore, participants anticipate their specific partner's evaluation with some degree of accuracy. There is some evidence that likeability is more

dyadic in nature (Kenny, 1994), meaning it is more sensitive to the interaction itself. For instance, depending on how I deem the interaction to have progressed, that may inform me as to my partner's potential evaluation. One can more easily pick up on nonverbal and other environmental cues to establish the metaperception. However, this would not be the case for more subtle or less observable personality traits.

Furthermore, it is important to note that research on the formation of first impressions suggests that evaluations of likeability have the potential to be transmitted more quickly when compared to other types of evaluations (Willis & Todorov, 2006; Zajonc, 1980). Likeability as a trait may carry more social significance than other traits (i.e., self-discipline) and as such, personal processing systems may be geared toward making such assessments as quickly and accurately as possible (Chaiken & Trope, 1999; Kahneman, 2003). For example, Willis and Todorov (2006) found that participants formed evaluations of attractiveness, likeability, and competence after 100-ms exposure to target faces. With additional time, participants' impressions remained unchanged. However, their confidence in their evaluations increased. Therefore, in addition to observability, likeability may also be a global response that requires less inferential activity than other traits.

This relationship was moderated by choice condition such that meta-accuracy increased when participants were told they would be leaving involuntarily vs. voluntarily. In considering this finding in conjunction with Study 1, results show that individuals may be relying on the self more heavily in choice conditions. However, when placed in dyadic situations (as in Study 2), individuals are less accurate in predicting another's evaluation when they do so. It may be

that acknowledging another's potentially negative evaluation is threatening to one's self-view, and therefore, participants draw upon the self in forming metaperceptions in choice conditions as a self-preservation mechanism.

Similarly, accurate metaperceptions in choice conditions present more risk to the individual than sacrificing said accuracy to protect the self. Self-verification theory (Swann & Reed, 1981) suggests that people are motivated to maximize the extent to which their experiences confirm their own self-views (Swann, 2012). If my self-view is positive, the benefit of reinforcing that view is potentially greater than changing my own self-view to align with the logical negative metaperception one would expect in choice conditions. Indeed, past research shows that those with positive self-views direct more attention to and selectively recall evaluations they expect to be positive more so than negative evaluations (Swann & Reed, 1981). Therefore, participants may exhibit a lack of accuracy in choice conditions because a negative metaperception would present a risk to one's current motivation to self-verify. Although I recognize that both Study 1 and Study 2 have differing methodology (scenario vs. dyadic), adding a dyadic context informs as to what overreliance on the self-view can do to one's ability to anticipate accurately evaluations and therefore make steps to address such inaccuracy in the relationship. Future research may more explicitly test this possibility more explicitly.

### Actor and Partner Effects

Exploratory analyses investigated this question further by conducting a series of one-sided Actor-Partner Interdependence Models. These analyses allowed me to determine the relative contribution of self- vs. other evaluations in the formation of participant's metaperceptions. Overall, we find that regardless of condition, participants significantly draw upon self-views to form metaperceptions of self-discipline, conscientiousness, and trustworthiness and do not draw upon evaluative cues from their interaction partner. This actor effect was qualified by a self-perception of self-discipline by choice interaction such that participants relied upon self-perceptions of self-discipline to form metaperceptions when the choice to leave was involuntary rather than voluntary. A similar self-perception of trustworthiness by choice interaction was observed such that participants more readily relied upon self-perceptions of trustworthiness to form metaperceptions when choice was involuntary rather than voluntary. This pattern is in the opposite direction to that observed in Study 1. Therefore, once an interaction with a specific other has taken place, individuals may more readily integrate situational information from the interaction to inform their metaperceptions; however, they do not do so reliably. When the perceived responsibility for the choice appears to lie with the experimenter, participants are ready to assume that others will evaluate their partner in much the same way in which their partner already perceives him- or herself.

Additionally, the partner effect for conscientiousness was qualified by an evaluation by ability interaction. Specifically, participants incorporate partner evaluations of conscientiousness into the formation of their metaperception when the reason for leaving is due

to a lack of ability. One potential reason for this effect may be that leaving due to lack of ability is a behavior that is particularly relevant to the perception that one is conscientious. This behavior may be particularly diagnostic (Skowronski & Carlston, 1987) and extreme to warrant more relative weight of this information in impression formation than other positive and less extreme conscientious behaviors. Indeed, because negative ability information is more atypical than positive ability information (Skowronski & Carlston, 1987), such information may be better recalled and ultimately used in impression formation. Furthermore, Albright, Forest, and Reiserter (2001) found that regardless of self-concept, when assigned to a self-presentation role in a dyadic interaction, participants formed metaperceptions that were based upon their actual behaviors during the interaction. Moreover, they were more accurate when doing so. Therefore, participants in nonability conditions may be particularly aware of the potential for such behavior to reflect their own level of conscientiousness. As such, they may be able to take the evaluating partner's perspective and accurately note how they would evaluate the same behavior.

Interestingly, likeability showed both a significant actor and partner effect upon the metaperception. Regardless of condition, participants relied upon both their own self-perceptions of likeability and incorporated evaluative cues from their interaction partner when forming metaperceptions of likeability. The partner effect was qualified by an evaluation by choice interaction. Specifically, participants incorporated partner evaluations of likeability into their metaperception when leaving was involuntary rather than voluntary. Perhaps being removed from an experiment was perceived as a response to more extreme behavior than simply leaving an experiment of one's own accord (e.g., "if the experimenter needed to remove

me, I must have been extremely sick/vocal about my dislike”). Because leaving involuntarily may suggest more extreme behavior, leaving participants may be motivated to consider their partner’s evaluative cues during the interaction. Similarly, the controllability of behavior may be an important factor to consider. When choice is involuntary, participants may assume they are “victims” of another individual’s (experimenter) action. As such, they may be especially motivated to consider their partner’s perspective because they are concerned about whether their partner recognizes this loss of agency.

## CHAPTER 4

### GENERAL DISCUSSION

#### Summary of Conclusions

The results from Study 1 showed that participants anticipated that they would be evaluated more positively when the reason for leaving a shared task was ability-based (illness) rather than personal. Furthermore, participants anticipated that they would be evaluated as having less self-discipline when the leave was voluntary rather than involuntary. Study 2 built upon these findings by introducing a true dyadic context and examining the accuracy of leaving partners' metaperceptions. In Study 2, metaperceptions were unrelated to the partner's evaluations of self-discipline, conscientiousness, and trustworthiness. However a positive relationship between metaperceptions and evaluations was observed for likeability. This relationship was moderated by choice such that meta-accuracy increased when participants were told they would be leaving involuntarily vs. voluntarily.

#### Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The current investigation is not without fault and presents a number of limitations. First, leaving participants were instructed to form metaperceptions based upon experimenter feedback. Although this was necessary in order to create experimental conditions in which the

leave situation varied, such a design may not reflect the natural formation of metaperceptions based upon true leave behavior. Future investigations should investigate the replicability of these findings in workplace leave environments.

Future research should also extend the present findings by examining how metaperceptions and meta-accuracy in a current leave situation influence future leave choices, team performance, and the quality of individual workplace relationships. For instance, the current research suggests that when leaving a group project, individuals may be able to determine with some degree of accuracy how they will be evaluated in terms of likeability, but may not be able to do so for other important traits (i.e., conscientiousness, self-discipline, and trustworthiness). Knowledge of how others perceive the self on such traits would be particularly valuable in workplace environments because such traits are incorporated into performance appraisals. Therefore, inaccuracy would be potentially problematic in future decision-making.

For instance, anticipating positive evaluations from coworkers could lead an employee to continue to use family-friendly leave policies; however, if this judgment is inaccurate continued use could have detrimental effects upon later performance evaluations and ultimately career advancement opportunities. Indeed, past research (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999) shows a relationship between manager's leave-taking behaviors and promotion rates. Those managers who take advantage of leave opportunities more often than others are less likely to be promoted than managers who do not take leave. A potentially important aspect of this relationship may be the degree to which managers can accurately anticipate how others evaluate their performance.



It may be that those who are able to anticipate evaluations accurately are better positioned to manage others' perceptions.

### Implications for Workplace Practices

The current series of studies would suggest that not all leave situations are created (or perceived) equally. Although the Family Medical Leave Act covers a wide range of leave situations (e.g., maternity, paternity, adoption, care of sick family members), it is important to consider the perceived controllability of differing leave situations. Choice appears to be an important moderating variable in determining meta-accuracy in leave situations. Some situations, such as maternity leave, may be better perceived than paternity leave because of this controllability factor. The current research would suggest that individuals utilizing leave policies for less popular leave situations (e.g., adoption, paternity leave) should be particularly mindful of how their actions are perceived. Additionally, perceived controllability may be a variable that supervisors and managers are in a unique position to directly manage. Allen (2001) has shown that family-supportive supervisors and organizations play a big role in determining leave use among employees. Therefore, managers can help employees manage evaluations by outwardly supporting such policies and delivering a strong message that all leave situations have equal merit.

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APPENDIX  
MEASURES

## Quality of Interaction Items

1. How long did it take you and your partner to agree upon the seven new wonders of the world?
2. How enjoyable was it working with your partner?

1: Very unenjoyable

2

3

4

5

6

7: Very enjoyable

3. Did both you and your partner contribute equally to the task?

1: No, I contributed more

2: No, my partner contributed more

3: Yes, we both contributed an equal amount

### Organizational Justice Scale (Colquitt, 2001)

#### Procedural Justice Items:

The following items refer to the procedures used to arrive at your (outcome). To what extent:

1. Have you been able to express your views and feelings about those procedures?
2. Have you had influence over the (outcome) arrived at by those procedures?
3. Have those procedures been applied consistently?
4. Have those procedures been free of bias?
5. Have those procedures been based on accurate information?
6. Have you been able to appeal the (outcome) arrived at by the procedures?
7. Have those procedures upheld ethical standards?

#### Distributive Justice Items:

The following items refer to your (outcome). To what extent:

1. Does your (outcome) reflect the effort you have put into your work?
2. Is your (outcome) appropriate for the work you have completed?
3. Does your (outcome) reflect what you have contributed to the organization?
4. Is your (outcome) justified, given your performance?

Attributions of Responsibility (Feather & Simon, 1971)

1. Consider your contribution to the upcoming online portion of the task. In your case, do you consider that your performance will be mainly due to good luck, mainly due to skill and ability, or reflect some mixture of good luck and ability?

Subjects put a cross on a 5-inch scale, with the statement, "Mainly due to good luck" at one extreme of the scale, the statement, "Mainly due to ability" at the other extreme, and the statement, "50% luck, 50% ability" in the middle. These ratings are assumed to reflect external (good luck) versus internal (ability) attribution for the self and are scored 0-10 in the direction of external attribution.

2. Now consider the other person's contribution to the upcoming online portion of the task. In his/her case do you consider that his/ her performance will be mainly due to good luck, mainly due to skill and ability, or reflect some mixture of good luck and ability?

Subjects put a cross on a 5-inch scale identical to that described above. These ratings are assumed to reflect internal versus external attribution for the other, and are scored as for self-attribution.

## IPIP NEO Self-Discipline Scale

On the following pages, there are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes *you/your partner*.

Response options:

1: Very Inaccurate

2: Moderately Inaccurate

3: Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate

4: Moderately Accurate

5: Very Accurate

1. Like(s) to organize things.
2. Am/is exacting in my/their work.
3. Get(s) to work at once.
4. Go(es) straight for the goal.
5. Get(s) chores done right away.
6. Waste(s) my/their time (R)
7. Find(s) it difficult to get down to work (R)
8. Do(es) improper things (R)
9. Disregard(s) rules (R)
10. Avoid(s) responsibilities (R)

## Metaperceptions of Self-Discipline Items

On the following pages, there are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how you think *your partner would rate you on each behavior*.

1. Likes to organize things.
2. Is exacting in their work.
3. Gets to work at once.
4. Goes straight for the goal.
5. Gets chores done right away.
6. Wastes their time (R)
7. Finds it difficult to get down to work (R)
8. Does improper things (R)
9. Disregards rules (R)
10. Avoids responsibilities (R)

## IPIP Conscientiousness Scale

On the following pages, there are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes *you/your partner*.

Response options:

- 1: Very Inaccurate
- 2: Moderately Inaccurate
- 3: Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate
- 4: Moderately Accurate
- 5: Very Accurate

- 1. Am/is always prepared.
- 2. Pay(s) attention to details.
- 3. Get(s) chores done right away
- 4. Carry/Carries out my/their plans
- 5. Make(s) plans and stick(s) to them
- 6. Waste(s) my/their time (R)
- 7. Find(s) it difficult to get down to work (R)
- 8. Do(es) just enough to get by (R)
- 9. Don't/doesn't see things through (R)
- 10. Shirk(s) my/their duties (R)

## Metaperception Conscientiousness Items

On the following pages, there are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how *your partner would rate you on each behavior*.

1. Is always prepared
2. Pays attention to details
3. Gets chores done right away
4. Carries out their plans
5. Makes plans and sticks to them
6. Wastes their time (R)
7. Finds it difficult to get down to work (R)
8. Does just enough to get by (R)
9. Doesn't see things through (R)
10. Shirks their responsibilities (R)



## Trustworthiness Scale (Ohanian, 1990)

Please rate *yourself/your partner* on the following items:

1. Dependable - Undependable
2. Honest – Dishonest
3. Reliable – Unreliable
4. Sincere – Insincere
5. Trustworthy – Untrustworthy

### Metaperceptions of Trustworthiness

Please rate each item according to how *you think your partner would rate you*:

1. Dependable - Undependable
2. Honest – Dishonest
3. Reliable – Unreliable
4. Sincere – Insincere
5. Trustworthy – Untrustworthy

Perceptions of Engagement: Utrecht Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2003)

Using the response scale below, please indicate how strongly you agree with each statement.

1: Very Strongly Disagree

2: Strongly Disagree

3: Disagree

4: Neutral

5: Agree

6: Strongly Agree

7: Very Strongly Agree

1. At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy (VI1)\*
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose (DE1)
3. Time flies when I'm working (AB1)
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI2)\*
5. I am enthusiastic about my job (DE2)\*
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me (AB2)
7. My job inspires me (DE3)\*
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI3)\*
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB3)\*
10. I am proud of the work that I do (DE4)\*
11. I am immersed in my work (AB4)\*
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time (VI4)
13. To me, my job is challenging (DE5)
14. I get carried away when I'm working (AB5)\*

15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally (VI5)
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job (AB6)
17. At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well (VI6)

\* Shortened version (UWES-9); VI = Vigor; DE = Dedication; AB = Absorption

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## Likeability (Reysen, 2005)

Think about *yourself/your partner*. Indicate how strongly you agree with each statement using the following scale:

1: Very Strongly Disagree

2: Strongly Disagree

3: Disagree

4: Neutral

5: Agree

6: Strongly Agree

7: Very Strongly Agree

1. This person/I is/am friendly
2. This person/I is/am likeable
3. This person/I is/am warm
4. This person/I is/am approachable
5. I/my partner would ask this person/me for advice
6. I/my partner would like this person/me as a coworker
7. I/my partner would like this person/me as a roommate
8. I/my partner would like to be friends with this person/me
9. This person/I is/am physically attractive
10. This person/I is/am similar to me
11. This person/I is/am knowledgeable

### Metaperception of Likeability

Please respond to the following items as *you think your partner would rate you*:

1. This person is friendly
2. This person is likeable
3. This person is warm
4. This person is approachable
5. I would ask this person for advice
6. I would like this person as a coworker
7. I would like this person as a roommate
8. I would like to be friends with this person
9. This person is physically attractive
10. This person is similar to me
11. This person is knowledgeable

## Deservingness of Reward Items

1. Please consider your partner's contribution to the upcoming online portion of the task.

To what degree does your partner deserve full research credit for today's task?

1: My partner deserves no credit

2

3

4

5: My partner deserves full credit

2. Again, consider both your own and your partner's contribution to the upcoming online portion of the task. Assume you had to split 2 experimental research credits between yourself and your partner. Assuming you can give partial credit, how many credits would you give to yourself? How many credits would you give your partner?

YOURSELF: \_\_\_\_\_ credits

MY PARTNER: \_\_\_\_\_ credits

3. Why did you split the credits up that way?