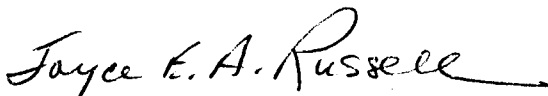
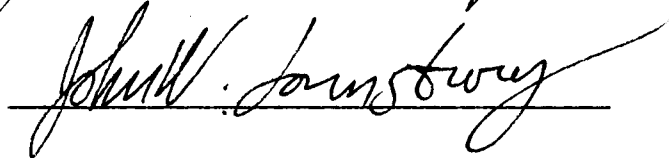


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Michelle L. Kinne entitled "The Effect of Rater Locus of Control and Rating Purpose on Leniency of Performance Evaluations." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Industrial and Organizational Psychology.


Joyce E. A. Russell, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:


The Graduate School

THE EFFECT OF RATER LOCUS OF CONTROL AND RATING PURPOSE
ON LENIENCY OF PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS

A Thesis

Presented for the

Master of Science

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Michelle L. Kinne

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents,
Marlys and Theodore Kinne,
whose support and encouragement made it all possible.

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I am especially grateful to Dr. Joyce E. A. Russell for her invaluable support and assistance in this project. Her interest and enthusiasm inspired me to produce a thesis of which I can be proud. I also wish to express my appreciation to the other members of my committee, Dr. Jack Larsen and Dr. John Lounsbury, for their helpful advice throughout my years in this program.

ABSTRACT

Supervisor ratings of subordinate performance are an important means of evaluation in organizations. In this study, the effect of a rater personality characteristic and a rating context variable on performance evaluations made during the rating process were examined. Specifically, a rater's locus of control (internal, external) and the purpose for the rating (administrative, feedback) were hypothesized to have an effect on the leniency of the ratings. Ninety male and female MBA students evaluated the performance of an individual on an "in-basket" simulation task after reading a description, in critical incident form, of the performance. Subjects completed the Sphere-specific Locus of Control Scale, and rated the extent to which ability, task difficulty, effort, and luck were influential in explaining the ratee's performance. Results of a regression analysis indicated that both locus of control and purpose had little effect on performance ratings. In addition, the attributions subjects made concerning the cause of the ratee's poor performance were not significantly related to either locus of control or performance ratings. Subjects attributed performance more to the effort of the ratee, and rated luck quite low as a factor determining

ratee performance. In other analyses, it was shown that female raters assigned lower performance ratings than male raters and also had higher locus of control scores, reflecting more internality than males. The total variance accounted for in performance ratings by purpose, locus of control, gender, and internal attributions was 8.2%. Since this was an exploratory study examining the effects of locus of control on performance evaluations, future research attention to this variable is encouraged.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There has been considerable research in recent years focusing on the performance appraisal process and the various factors affecting the usefulness and accuracy of evaluations. Performance ratings, in particular, have received a great deal of attention because of their pervasive use in organizations. As Borman (1978) stated,

performance ratings are often the only means available for providing criterion scores against which to validate selection, promotion, or other personnel decisions made in organizations. (p. 135)

For this reason, research has been conducted in an attempt to understand all of the components of the rating process. Landy and Farr (1980) have presented a model of performance rating as a system that includes several variables: roles, vehicles, rating context, rating process, and results of the rating. So far, the research emphasis has been on examining the relative advantages of various rating scales or instruments (vehicles) in terms of psychometric properties (e.g., reliability and validity) and rating errors (e.g., leniency, central tendency, and halo). However, some researchers in the field feel that concentration on rating process rather

than rating instruments would be a more fruitful line of inquiry (Borman, 1978; Landy & Farr, 1980). In view of this suggestion, the effects of a role variable (rater characteristic) and a context variable (rating purpose) on performance evaluations made during the rating process are examined in this study. Specifically, a rater personality characteristic (locus of control) and purpose of the rating (administrative and feedback) are investigated. Since leniency of ratings is a pervasive problem in organizational appraisal systems (Bernardin, Orban, & Carlyle, 1981), these variables are examined as to their effects on this particular rating error.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leniency of Ratings

Since many performance ratings may be critical to both the organization and the employee for purposes ranging from administrative decisions to individual feedback on behavior, it is important that such data be as free as possible from inconsistencies occurring as a function of the rater or format. Obviously, "ratings that differentiate among ratees and rating factors are of more value to an organization" (Vance, Winne, & Wright, 1983, p. 617). Yet, because rating involves a human evaluator, rating errors are likely to occur. Vance et al. (1983) concluded that the reliable variance in mean ratings is partly attributable to the ratee, but mostly introduced by the rater. Such errors as central tendency, halo, leniency, and contrast effects cause difficulties in obtaining reliable and valid performance evaluations. A response bias such as leniency can be a major factor affecting the accuracy of ratings. It is most often defined as a constant tendency for a rater to rate too high across ratees or the reluctance of a rater to assign unfavorable ratings (Landy & Trumbo, 1980).

This results in a skewed distribution, reduces the effective width of the scale, and makes ratings less discriminative. Thus, leniency probably would affect the accuracy of the ratings and the usefulness of performance appraisal ratings in giving an employer a precise assessment of employees' abilities and relative value to the organization. In general, higher mean ratings in one condition have been used in research as evidence of leniency effects; however, a standard of comparison (i.e., "true scores") would be needed to actually prove the existence of leniency "error" (Sharon & Bartlett, 1969). To examine leniency effects, some researchers suggest a completely crossed design wherein all raters evaluate all ratees on all dimensions (Saal, Downey, & Lahey, 1980). They feel that this is the only way by which rating effects can be clearly estimated. Efforts have been made to reduce the incidence of leniency effects by concentrating on scale development and, most recently, on rater training (Bernardin, 1978). For example, Fay and Latham (1982) found that behavioral criteria (on Behavioral Observation Scales and Behavioral Expectation Scales) were more resistant to rating errors, such as leniency, than were trait scales, and that a four-hour training program greatly reduced such errors on

all three types of scales. The effects of such training, however, may not be long-lasting (Bernardin, 1978).

In a performance appraisal situation, supervisors may be lenient for several reasons, including their desire to be liked by their employees, the chance that the ratings will have to be justified to the ratee, and their reluctance to sit in judgment of others. One additional reason given for lenient ratings that has been examined by several researchers is the purpose for conducting the performance appraisal.

Purpose of Ratings

Leniency has been considered a stable tendency of the rater in most studies of rating errors. However, Borman (1977) found that the tendency to be lenient or severe in ratings was not consistent across situations; or, in other words, the ability to perceive performance accurately may be situation-specific. One such context variable that has been found to be related to leniency effects is the purpose of the rating. Performance evaluations may be used to make decisions on promotions, raises, selection, and termination. They may also be used for career counseling or as a feedback device by which employees can assess their own progress toward performance goals and for self-development

purposes (Cascio, 1982). Meyer, Kay, and French (1965) found that both administrative and feedback functions are not well served with the same performance appraisal information or within the same performance appraisal interview with the supervisor. Several researchers have found that ratings done for administrative decision-making purposes (i.e., usually decisions concerning salary, promotion, or terminations) are significantly more favorable than those done for research purposes only (Bernardin et al., 1981; Sharon, 1970; Sharon & Bartlett, 1969; Taylor & Wherry, 1951). For example, Bernardin et al. (1981) found that performance appraisal ratings given by police sergeants to rookie patrol officers were significantly higher when obtained for decisions about promotions than for feedback purposes. Both Sharon and Bartlett (1969) and Sharon (1970) found that instructional conditions (research and evaluation) had a significant effect on ratings of instructors when using graphic rating scales, but not when forced-choice scales were used. So, ratings for evaluation purposes were more negatively skewed, or lenient, than ratings used only in research. These results replicated the earlier results of Taylor and Wherry (1951), who found that in the "for keeps" rating condition, "rating differentiation is

poorest in the upper range, where it is important for selection, assignment, and promotion" (p. 43). In more recent research, ratings done for research purposes were found to be more severe than ratings completed for both feedback and hiring purposes (McIntyre, Smith, & Hassett, 1984).

In other studies, however, it has been found that the purpose of the rating did not directly affect the overall level of the ratings or rating accuracy (Couture & Barnes-Farrell, 1982; Murphy, Kellam, Balzer, & Armstrong, 1982). Murphy et al. (1982) suggest that purpose may affect the way in which raters process and integrate behavioral information. The authors maintain that cognitive strategies developed by raters affect the accuracy and leniency of performance evaluations. Zedeck and Cascio (1982), for example, found that rater strategy varied with rating purpose such that performance dimensions were weighed and integrated differently. In addition, purpose of the rating was found to be a more important variable in explaining the overall variability of ratings than was rater training (Zedeck & Cascio, 1982). So, it seems that purpose is an important variable in the performance appraisal process to examine, since it has been shown to account for some of the variance in these ratings.

If the leniency of ratings is found to be related to rating purpose, it may be due to the different roles required of the rater. The "judge" may rate more leniently than the "counselor" (Meyer et al., 1965) if that person is aware of the sanctions the ratee may receive or if the ratings will have to be justified to the ratee (Sharon & Bartlett, 1969; Taylor & Wherry, 1951). Within these different roles, individual rater characteristics may also be operating to affect the leniency of ratings. According to Bernardin et al. (1981), "an important research question is the extent to which individual difference variables account for variance in ratings given different purposes" for appraisal (p. 311).

Individual Differences of Raters

Individual differences of raters can exert a profound effect on performance ratings. The major theme in performance appraisal research, however, has been that the variable of major importance can be found in the scales; and when individual rater differences are investigated, they tend to be only second-level, or demographic, characteristics (Landy & Farr, 1980). Actually, only 4-8% of the variance in ratings can be explained by the format (Landy & Farr, 1980). In a study

examining problems of accuracy in person perception and assessment of human performance, Borman (1979) found that 17% of the variance in total performance rating accuracy was explained by rater individual difference variables (e.g., personality, interests, abilities, and background). Among the demographic characteristics of raters that have been examined for their effects on rating leniency are gender (Mobley, 1982), race (Mobley, 1982; Wendelken & Inn, 1981), age (Cleveland & Landy, 1981), and level in the organization (Holzbach, 1978; Klimoski & London, 1974; Schneier & Beatty, 1978). Findings concerning the effects of these variables are inconsistent (Landy & Farr, 1980). Some researchers are now turning to examining rater personality characteristics as a factor contributing to rating errors. Recently, the cognitive complexity of raters has been investigated as a more direct influence upon ratings (Schneier, 1977). However, results of recent research have found no relationship between the cognitive complexity of the rater, the format used, and the accuracy of the ratings (Bernardin, Cardy, & Carlyle, 1982). In other research, the effect on performance ratings of rater characteristics, such as leadership style (Bernardin et al., 1981) and self-esteem (Couture &

Barnes-Farrell, 1982), have been considered. The results of the Bernardin et al. (1981) study indicate that initiating structure of the rater, contrary to the hypothesis, was not significantly related to performance ratings. An interaction effect for self-esteem and purpose of rating was evident in the Couture and Barnes-Farrell (1982) study in that raters low in self-esteem were found to assign higher ratings when rating for administrative purposes than when the ratings were used to provide feedback and counseling to employees. The authors suggested that since low self-esteem raters may feel less certain of their rating judgments due to their lower feelings of competency, they tend to assign more favorable ratings than high self-esteem raters and respond more to rating purpose cues.

Locus of control. One personality variable, similar to self-esteem, that would also appear to influence performance ratings is locus of control. Individuals differ in their locus of control (internal or external), or degree to which they feel personally responsible for their performance or in control of reinforcements that occur relative to their behavior. Locus of control has been shown to be highly related to an individual's self-esteem, such that an internal orientation is

significantly associated with high self-esteem for both males and females (Fish & Karabenick, 1971; Fitch, 1970; Knoop, 1981; Lloyd, Chang, & Powell, 1979). Personality researchers have extensively examined the locus of control construct as an enduring individual trait, and have found locus of control expectancies to affect attributions of causation concerning one's own performance (Levine & Uleman, 1979). Results of the Levine and Uleman (1979) study indicate that individuals with an external locus of control are more likely than internals to attribute their failure on a task, but not their successes, to external factors. Both internals and externals are more likely to attribute their own success to internal factors. Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Rest, and Rosenbaum (1971) suggest that performance is either attributed to effort and ability (internal causes) or luck and task difficulty (external causes). Of these four causal factors, ability and task difficulty are stable, whereas effort and luck are considered unstable, or changeable over time and situations. Individuals also attribute causes, either internal or external, to others' performance. It is possible that, through the simple principle of projection, raters may tend to make causal attributions of others' performance

in line with their own personal control orientation. Mitchell and Wood (1980) suspected that "characteristics like internal or external locus of control influence an individual's tendency to use internal or external attributions" (p. 137) in evaluating another individual's performance, although they did not include this variable in their study. So, it seems that a rater's locus of control may be a factor that could influence the perception of others' performance and, thereby, affect performance appraisal ratings.

Based on the suggestion by Mitchell and Wood (1980) that rater locus of control may affect attributions, it seems worthwhile to explore the possible relationship between this personality characteristic and rating behavior. Though the relationship between locus of control and attributions of others' performance has only been suggested, the relationship between attributions and performance evaluations has received a great deal of attention in recent years. Many researchers in the field of attribution theory have examined how a supervisor's attributions of subordinates' performance can affect performance ratings and resulting administrative actions. Most have found that supervisors' beliefs about the cause of subordinate poor

performance affect the focus and intensity of their actions and the extent to which they implement mild or severe control policies (Green & Liden, 1980). According to Mitchell and Kalb (1982),

evaluating, punishing, and giving feedback to poor performing subordinates are all activities that are expected of supervisors; it is part of their job. To fulfill these expectations effectively a supervisor must make accurate assessments of why the substandard performance occurred. This diagnosis often results in an attribution-- a conclusion about the most probable cause of the subordinate's actions. (p. 181)

If poor performance of the subordinate is attributed to internal causes, punitive responses are more likely and there is a more direct response by supervisors to change the behavior through feedback, training, or punishment (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Mitchell & Wood, 1980; Tucker & Rowe, 1979). If, however, poor performance is attributed to external causes, positive evaluations of the employee will result. In fact, external attributions of poor performance are as likely to result in a job applicant being hired as good performance attributed to internal causes (Hargrett, 1981). Recently, Mitchell (1982) stated that a number of social, contextual, and task factors (e.g., interdependence, social context, outcomes, cost/benefits of responses, apologies, and personal or organizational

policies) may be as important as attributions in predicting supervisor's actions toward a poorly performing subordinate.

Several researchers have found that supervisors are more likely to attribute subordinate poor performance to internal causes, while attributing success to external causes (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Knowlton & Mitchell, 1980). Frieze (1976), however, found just the opposite and suggested that empathy of observers may have an effect on ratings. In examining the stability aspect of causal attribution factors, Bizman and Fox (1984) have recently found that repeated positive behaviors of employees were judged by managers to be more stable than repeated negative behaviors. These authors feel that the personnel selection system and organizational rules decrease the possibility that negative behavior will be a stable characteristic of an employee.

Attributions to each of the four causal factors may not result in the same responses to a subordinate's performance, even if the factors reflect the same control orientation. For example, attributions of effort have been shown to lead to more extreme evaluations and resulting actions (i.e., higher evaluations for good performance and lower evaluations for poor performance)

than attributions of ability (Ilgen & Knowlton, 1980; Knowlton & Mitchell, 1980; Pence, Pendleton, Dobbins, & Sgro, 1982) even though both attributions are internal in nature. If performance feedback is designed to improve poor performance through increased effort, then more critical evaluations would seem most helpful. Feedback may serve a directional or a motivational function, and the type of feedback given is influenced more by effort attributions than ability attributions (Ilgen & Knowlton, 1980). If the cause of poor performance is perceived to be a lack of effort, which is perceived to be completely within the ratee's control, severe administrative actions or ratings may seem more justifiable to the rater.

The effect of a rater's locus of control on performance ratings may also vary depending on whether the evaluation is being conducted for administrative purposes or as a feedback mechanism, designed to increase the employee's motivation and effort towards self-development and performance improvement. If the conveyors of performance feedback have an internal control orientation, they may believe that ratees can improve their own performance (Knowlton & Mitchell, 1980) by increasing effort or motivation; thus it seems possible that a rater's locus of control may be relevant in predicting rating behavior.

Statement of Hypotheses

The purpose of this exploratory study will be to examine the effects of raters' personal control orientation (internal or external) and the purpose of the rating (for administrative decisions or feedback) on performance evaluations. Rater individual differences and rating purpose have both been shown to affect performance evaluations, but the effect of these variables on appraisals has not been previously investigated in the same study (Bernardin et al., 1981). In this study, locus of control will be hypothesized as having an effect on rater attributions concerning the causes of ratee poor performance and, therefore, on how severely that performance is evaluated for different purposes. The following hypotheses will be tested:

(1) Ratings for administrative purposes will be more lenient (significantly higher mean ratings) than ratings for feedback/self-development purposes.

(2) Raters with higher locus of control scores (indicating internality) should rate less leniently (lower mean ratings) than raters with lower control scores (indicating externality). This will occur if internal raters tend to form more internal attributions of others' behavior than external raters, since internal attributions result in stronger and more extreme responses for poor performance.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Subjects

The subjects in this study were 90 MBA students at the University of Tennessee who were enrolled in various graduate-level management courses. The sample was comprised of 58 males and 32 females ranging in age from 22 to 45, with a mean age of 28.3. Ninety-one percent (N=82) of the sample were caucasian, 3.3 percent (N=3) were black, and 5.6 percent (N=5) were Asian-American. In addition, 70% stated they were currently employed (47.6% working full-time) and 52.3% reported having experience as a supervisor or manager for an average of 3.2 years. Subjects voluntarily agreed to participate in the study, without pay or extra course credit, and then were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental conditions (Administrative and Feedback). See Appendix C for background data on the subjects.

Procedure

Students in the graduate-level management classes sampled were told that their participation in the study was voluntary and that their responses would be

completely anonymous. All subjects were given a packet containing the Sphere-specific control scale, the performance description, and the dependent and background measures. They were asked to sign a statement of consent on the first page of the questionnaire and to include their address if they wanted to receive the results of the study when they became available. They were then told that this cover sheet would be detached from the rest of the handout and filed separately to ensure anonymity.

Participants were instructed to read the instructions and the performance description carefully before completing the rest of the questionnaire. Upon distribution of the questionnaire, subjects were given a brief definition of an "in-basket" (i.e., they were told it was a managerial work simulation task designed to assess an individual's ability to organize information and perform typical managerial behaviors). In the written instructions, subjects assigned to the administrative condition were told that they were evaluating an undergraduate's performance on an "in-basket" assignment (worth one-third of the final grade in a management class) and that, as the outside rater for this student, their evaluation would determine

approximately 50% of the student's grade for the assignment. Subjects in the feedback condition were told that their ratings of the undergraduate's performance would be used only as feedback information which the student would be able to use to improve performance on a future trial of the "in-basket" task, which would be worth one-third of the final class grade. In addition, subjects in both conditions were told that their ratings would also be used in a research study examining how raters process written performance information. After reading the instructions, subjects read the description of the ratee's performance on the in-basket simulation task. For a complete description of the experimental manipulations, see Appendix A.

Measures

Locus of control. To measure subjects' locus of control, the Sphere-Specific measure of perceived control (Paulhus, 1983) was used. This is a new scale, designed to provide a "control profile" of the individual through the use of three subscales of control: personal efficacy, interpersonal control, and sociopolitical control. Through a series of five psychometric studies, the alpha reliabilities for the subscales (.75 to .80)

have been found to be higher than those of the Rotter I-E Scale (.65 to .70). The Sphere scale has a multiple correlation of .75 with the Rotter scale and minimal correlation with social desirability. In fact, the correlation with the social desirability factor is $-.32$ for Rotter's scale (with externality scored high), whereas the largest correlation for the Sphere scale was .19 for the personal efficacy subscale. Paulhus (1983) has found that a one factor model, such as Rotter's, is overly restrictive and that a differentiation of control expectancies would provide a more accurate measure. The advantages of the Sphere scale are that it systematically partitions individuals' control expectancies into spheres of activity, subdivides the internal core rather than the external forces, and assesses interpersonal control, which has been neglected in the literature (Paulhus & Christie, 1981). In the present study, subjects responded to each of the 30 items on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7), so that higher scores represent internality. Half of the items were worded negatively and reverse scored to correct for acquiescent response tendencies.

In-basket simulation. Subjects received a description, in critical incident form, of an individual's performance on an "in-basket" work

simulation task. The in-basket is often used to test an individual's ability to process and organize large amounts of information in a short time, and has been shown to be predictive of successful managerial performance (Landy & Trumbo, 1980). This task was chosen because MBA students should be familiar, in general, with what behaviors are required of a manager, and should be more involved in the evaluation of an undergraduate (subordinate to a graduate student) on this task. Two negative and one positive critical incidents were given for each of five performance dimensions. As a manipulation check, all three behavioral statements for the sixth dimension, organizing and planning, were negative.

Dependent measures. Subjects then evaluated the ratee on a 7-point graphic scale based on these specific behavioral incidents. One scale item was given for each of the seven performance dimensions: "analytical skills", "decision-making", "interpersonal skills", "organizing and planning", "communication (written) skills", "delegation", and "overall performance". Each dimension, except "overall performance", was operationally defined, and the subject rated how well the ratee performed in that area, ranging from very poor (1) to outstanding (7).

Attributions were measured using unipolar independent ratings of the degree to which each causal factor (ability, task difficulty, effort, and luck) contributed to the ratee's performance, ranging from very little effect (1) to very strong effect (7). This independent assessment scaling technique for measuring causal attributions has been found superior to alternate methods in reliability, validity, and subject preference (Elig & Frieze, 1979). Subjects were also asked to indicate any other causal factors they felt had an effect on the ratee's performance.

Background data. Other items in the questionnaire were included to obtain information on the subjects' gender, age, race, year in graduate school, work experience, and previous experience as a supervisor.

Manipulation check items were also included to determine if subjects were aware of the hypothesis and if they accepted the cover story. For a complete description of the measures, see Appendix B.

Participants in the study were later debriefed as to the true purpose for the study and assured that the ratee was only a fictional character, so their ratings had no real impact.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Manipulation Check

Responses to the manipulation check items indicated that subjects were not aware of the true hypothesis of the study and that the majority of subjects accepted the cover story (i.e., correctly identified the purpose for their ratings). In addition, the mean rating for the "organizing and planning" dimension was lower than the means of the other dimensions. This was expected since "organizing and planning" was the only dimension represented by three negative critical incidents, instead of only two.

Performance Ratings

Purpose. The first hypothesis stated that ratings for administrative purposes would be more lenient (significantly higher mean ratings) than ratings for feedback purposes. Table 1 gives the descriptive statistics for the dependent measures in each purpose condition. A MANOVA procedure revealed no overall effect for purpose ($F=1.20$, $df=7,82$) on the 7 performance dimensions. A univariate analysis of variance test on

TABLE 1

Descriptive statistics for dependent measures.

Measures	Univariate		Condition ^a	
	F-value	df	1	2
Performance Measures ^b				
Analytical Skills	.61	(1,88)	2.65 (.81)	2.79 (.83)
Decision-making	.01	"	2.81 (.79)	2.83 (.89)
Interpersonal	.30	"	3.02 (1.12)	3.15 (1.06)
Organization & Planning	1.46	"	2.63 (.79)	2.43 (.80)
Written Communication	.06	"	2.95 (.84)	3.00 (1.00)
Delegation	2.34	"	3.00 (1.11)	3.32 (.86)
Overall Performance	.02	"	2.79 (.71)	2.81 (.68)
Total Performance Score	.27	"	19.86 (4.27)	20.32 (4.04)
Attribution Measures ^c				
Ability	.21	(1,87)	4.57 (1.58)	4.43 (1.41)
Task Difficulty	.04	"	4.00 (1.27)	4.06 (1.76)
Effort	.45	"	4.71 (1.47)	4.92 (1.35)
Luck	.90	"	1.81 (1.13)	2.06 (1.37)

Note: ^a1=Administrative (n=43 for performance measures and n=42 for attribution measures),
²=Feedback (n=47 for both sets of measures).

^b MANOVA results $F=1.2$, $df=7,82$.

^c MANOVA results $F=.41$, $df=4,85$.

the total performance rating score, determined by adding the scores on all seven dimensions, for administrative ($\underline{M}=19.86$) and feedback ($\underline{M}=20.32$) conditions was not significant. A univariate analysis of variance test ($\underline{F}=.02$, $df=1,88$) was also performed on the "overall performance" dimension ($\underline{M}=2.79$ for administrative, and $\underline{M}=2.81$ for feedback) and was not significant. Similarly, univariate tests showed that there were no significant effects for purpose on any of the individual performance dimensions, with $\underline{F}$ values ranging from .01 to 2.34. So, no support was found for the effect of purpose on rating leniency.

Locus of control. The second hypothesis stated that raters with higher control scores (internals) should rate less leniently (lower mean ratings) than raters with lower control scores (externals). Items on the locus of control scale were found to be fairly independent (i.e., intercorrelations ranging from .00 to .56). Table 4 in Appendix D gives the intercorrelations of these 30 items. The distribution of scores on the control scale were skewed toward the upper end of the externality-internality continuum ($\underline{M}=146.7$, median=148.25). The obtained range of scores (95 to 182) was much higher and more restricted than the possible range of scores (30 to 210). Theoretically, using a median split,

"externals" should score below 120 and "internals" should score above this point. In the present sample, only 5 subjects scored below 120 and 85 scored above 120. Thus, subjects could not be accurately dichotomized, and the main effect for locus of control was not examined in an ANOVA. Instead, a regression analysis was used and revealed that locus of control accounted for a larger proportion (3.0%) of total performance score rating variance than purpose (.6%), although both were nonsignificant. When a regression analysis was performed for each of the seven performance items, it was determined that the variance in ratings accounted for by locus of control ranged from 0 to 2.1%. Together, locus of control and purpose accounted for 3.6% ($F=1.59$, $df=2,86$) of the variance in the total performance rating score. In addition, locus of control correlated $-.12$ with the total performance rating score. The relationship between locus of control scores and ratings was also evident in the negative correlations with all but three individual performance dimensions in both purpose conditions. Correlations in the feedback condition, however, were all negative, with ratings on "decision-making" and "written communication" significant at the .10 level. So, a stronger negative relationship between locus of control and ratings existed in the

feedback condition, even though there was no significant difference between purpose conditions in control scores.

Locus of control scores were also examined after removal of the sociopolitical subscale items. This was done because it was thought that this subscale did not reflect individuals' feelings of control over their own task or job performance. Without the sociopolitical control subscale, the correlation between locus of control and the total performance rating score was $-.14$ ($p < .10$); and a regression analysis indicated that the altered locus of control score (i.e., without the sociopolitical scale) accounted for 1.8% of the variance in performance ratings. So, removal of the subscale did not have a significantly different effect on performance ratings than the relationship between the complete locus of control scale and the total performance rating score. Subjects did score lower (indicating externality) on the sociopolitical control subscale ($\bar{M}=41.68$) than on the personal efficacy ($\bar{M}=54.11$) and interpersonal control ($\bar{M}=50.91$) subscales, although this difference was not significant. Of the three subscales, interpersonal control accounted for the most (1.6%) variance in ratings ($F=1.15$, $df=2,87$) and was correlated with the total performance rating score

($r = -.14$, $p < .10$) at a marginally significant level. The personal efficacy subscale accounted for .04% ($F = .04$, $df = 3, 86$) of the variance and correlated $-.07$ with the total performance rating score, and the sociopolitical subscale accounted for .3% ($F = .01$, $df = 1, 88$) of the variance and correlated $-.06$ with the total performance rating score.

Overall, these results indicated that locus of control accounted for little of the variance in performance evaluation ratings, so the second hypothesis was not supported.

Attributions

To further test the second hypothesis that internal raters would rate more severely if, indeed, they tend to form more internal attributions, the ratings on the attribution items were examined for their relationship to both performance ratings and locus of control. Results of a MANOVA procedure indicated that attributions had little effect on the total performance rating score ($F = .41$, $df = 4, 85$). When locus of control and ratings on internal attributions (ability and effort) were both entered into a regression analysis, they accounted for 3.0% ($F = 1.34$, $df = 2, 86$) of the variance in performance ratings. Internal attributions alone accounted for only

.4% ($F=.39$, $df=1,87$) of the variation in performance rating scores. Internal attributions, though, were found to correlate $-.07$ with the total performance rating score. Responses to the attribution items indicated that effort was rated highest ($M=4.82$) and luck lowest ($M=1.93$) as to their effect on the ratee's performance. For internal attributions, ability correlated $-.04$ and effort correlated $-.07$ with the total performance rating score. For external attributions, task difficulty correlated $.11$ and luck correlated $.36$ ($p<.001$) with the total performance rating score. The significant correlation between luck and ratings indicated that severe performance ratings were associated with lower ratings on luck as a causal factor determining performance.

Locus of control correlated only $-.03$ with ratings on the combined internal attributions score (ability and effort). Attributions to effort correlated $.08$ and attributions to ability correlated $-.13$ with the locus of control score. Luck attributions correlated $-.11$ with locus of control, indicating that individuals with higher internal scores rated luck as having less of an effect on the ratee's performance. In the feedback condition, the correlation between locus of control and luck attributions was significant ($r=-.29$, $p<.05$).

Control scores did positively correlate ($r=.16$, $p<.10$), however, with attributions to task difficulty, which is contrary to the hypothesis that internals would make less external attributions. In summary, the hypothesis that internal raters tend to make more internal attributions and evaluate others more severely was not supported.

In another analyses, a regression procedure showed that locus of control and gender of the rater together accounted for 5.5% of the variance in performance ratings ($F=4.16$, $df=2,87$, $p<.05$). Gender alone accounted for 4.5% of the variance, with females assigning lower mean performance ratings to ratees ($M=16.28$) than did male raters ($M=17.86$). An ANOVA procedure also revealed this marginally significant effect for rater gender ($F=3.77$, $df=1,87$, $p<.10$). Females also had higher mean locus of control scores ($M=149.44$) than males ($M=145.19$), although the difference was not significant. No effect was found for a rater's race, work experience, experience as a supervisor, age, or year in graduate school on the ratings.

The total variance accounted for in all the performance dimension ratings by purpose, locus of control, gender, and internal attributions was 8.2% ($F=1.87$, $df=4,84$). Table 3 in Appendix D provides all the intercorrelations for the dependent and independent variables.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The present study provided little support for the effects of rating purpose and rater locus of control on the leniency of performance evaluations. Although no significant main effect for either of these variables was found, there was a small negative correlation between locus of control and performance ratings. This negative relationship was especially evident in the feedback condition. In fact, the correlations between two of the performance dimensions and locus of control were near zero in the administrative condition, but were marginally significant negative correlations in the feedback condition. These results indicated that feedback purpose and higher scores on the locus of control scale may be related to lower, or less lenient, performance ratings; although the results were not significant enough to support the hypotheses. Locus of control, however, did seem to have a stronger effect on the ratings than did the purpose for the appraisal, as indicated by the regression analysis.

In general, raters' attributions concerning the perceived causes of the ratee's performance were also not

significantly related to locus of control or purpose. There was a significant negative relationship, however, between locus of control scores and luck attribution ratings in the feedback condition, which may have simply been due to the low overall mean rating on the luck attribution and the high overall mean locus of control score. Luck attributions were also significantly related, in a positive direction, to performance evaluation scores. Responses to the attribution items indicate that luck was not considered an important factor in determining the ratee's performance. Effort, though, was seen as the primary cause of the poor performance on the task. This finding was also apparent in the Pence et al. (1982) study. These authors found that subjects discounted bad luck as a cause of failure and tended to attribute failure to a lack of effort by the employee. The lack of a relationship between attributions and rating behavior found in this study was also reflected in the inability of Pence et al. (1982) to find a causal link between a rater's attributions and their subsequent behavior, or recommendations for corrective actions.

There were other interesting results of the study, though, that were unrelated to the main hypotheses. The gender of the rater was a variable found to have a

marginal effect on the performance ratings. Females tended to be both more internal and more severe in their evaluations. Also, subjects tended to have a more external orientation with respect to sociopolitical factors, indicating that they felt less control over government actions and societal conditions.

One of the other subscales for the locus of control measure, interpersonal control, had the highest correlation with performance ratings of all the subscales. This seemed to imply that a subject's feelings of competency in interactions with others, which is partly indicative of successful managerial performance, was more predictive of rating behavior.

Several reasons can be posited for the results of this study and the failure to find a significant effect for purpose and locus of control. Concerning the variable of rating purpose, there have been inconsistent findings in the literature. While some researchers have shown purpose to affect leniency of performance ratings (Bernardin et al., 1981; Sharon, 1970; Sharon & Bartlett, 1969; Taylor & Wherry, 1951), other researchers have not found an effect for this variable (Couture & Barnes-Farrell, 1982; Murphy et al., 1982). Although the present study did not find purpose to be important in

determining performance ratings, several limitations existed that could account for this finding. First, the cover story manipulation may not have been strong enough or realistic to the subjects. The use of "paper people" in a lab setting may have effected the realism of rating for "administrative" and "feedback" purposes. It may have been that raters interpreted rating purpose cues in terms of the potential impact of performance evaluations on ratees, as Couture & Barnes-Farrell (1982) have suggested. In the present study, then, student raters may have perceived that their ratings would not have much impact on the ratee. Also, the anonymity of the raters in this study would not occur in an actual organization where the supervisor would have future interactions with the ratees, and where poor performance ratings would reflect negatively on the quality of supervision. The possibility of future interaction with the ratee and having to justify the ratings has been shown to enhance rating leniency (Ilgen & Knowlton, 1980; Taylor & Wherry, 1951). Several researchers have found that when raters retained anonymity, performance appraisal ratings were significantly lower (Fusilier, 1980; Stone, Rabinowitz, & Spool, 1977). Perhaps if this study were replicated in an on-going organization, the

effect for purpose would be stronger. Laboratory studies, however, do allow control of extraneous factors that exist in field settings so that ratee performance can be evaluated for its own sake, free from the effects of personal biases, interpersonal conflict, and organizational politics. Wendelken and Inn (1981) and Pence et al. (1982) noted that laboratory studies can enhance the understanding of behavior relevant to organizational settings, especially when the research focuses on basic cognitive processes operative in both settings. In addition, although the subjects in this study were students, MBAs were used to create as much realism as possible since many of these people have had organizational and supervisory experience.

The present study also showed little support for the effect of locus of control on leniency of performance evaluations. While locus of control was slightly related to attributions and performance ratings, the relationship was nonsignificant. This was the first study exploring this variable's effect on performance ratings, so further research is encouraged. Future research should consider some of the limits encountered in this study with locus of control. A major problem affecting the locus of control variable was the restricted range of locus of

control scores. The distribution of scores was significantly above the mean for a normal distribution. The range of internality-externality in the present sample may have been too small to produce differences in performance ratings and attributions. Perhaps a more representative sample of individuals who would be conducting appraisals in an organization would not be as internal as MBAs, so that the control score distribution would be less skewed. Also, more variation in performance evaluation scores is needed to allow for significant differences in means and a leniency effect. One possible correction for this problem would be to present subjects with a description of average, rather than poor, ratee performance.

Since this was an exploratory study on the effects of a rater personality characteristic and the rating context on performance evaluations, several suggestions can be made concerning the direction of future research. First, differences in ratings for administrative and research, rather than feedback, purposes could be examined. A possible confound existed in the present study in that subjects were told that their ratings would also be used in a research project. Second, although this study examined the effects of rater demographic

characteristics on ratings, the gender and race of the ratee were not given in order to control for those effects on the results. However, a large body of literature exists which suggests that these ratee characteristics are important factors to consider because of the biases they may elicit (Bigoness, 1976; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973; Taynor & Deaux, 1973). Ratee race and gender can affect causal explanations of performance and the perception of appropriate responses, such that more coercive actions are often implemented toward male rather than female employees (Pence et al., 1982). Also omitted from this study was consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus information of the ratee's behavior, which is typically given to raters in attribution studies (Kelley, 1973). This was done so that subjects' ratings would be based upon their own internal standards of performance, in order to facilitate the effect of locus of control on the ratings. Perhaps future research could be conducted to determine if differences in ratings would occur as a function of the presence of such information about the ratee.

The raters' experience with the task on which they are evaluating the ratee may also affect the ratings. A means of increasing the salience of external

forces in determining subordinate performance so that poor performance does not tend to be attributed to internal factors has been investigated by Mitchell and Kalb (1982). These authors found that supervisors who have experienced the task tended to blame the environment more for the poor performance since they are aware of the factors that may limit effective performance. Since Mitchell and Kalb (1982) feel that this information could lead to a more accurate diagnosis of the causes of poor performance, task experience should be further examined. Other individual characteristics of the rater, especially personality variables, could also be investigated for their effects on ratings. A study on the interactive effects of different variables in the ratings model proposed by Landy and Farr (1980) would help increase the understanding of the rating process.

This study could also be replicated using the Rotter I-E Scale instead of the Sphere-specific Scale (Paulhus, 1983) to assess scale differences. More research has been done employing Rotter's scale, so results could be related more easily to other findings in the locus of control literature. Another possible alteration on the present design is to use only subjects falling in the extreme tails of the I-E distribution to assess if an

effect of this variable exists. This would require a much larger sample size and limit generalizability in that raters in real organizations do not just represent the extremes of the distribution, but would increase the power of the study to find an effect. In addition, rater training could be included in future research to determine its effectiveness in increasing rater accuracy, and to examine possible differential effects of its impact on raters with differing control expectancies and on ratings for differing purposes. For example, self-efficacy training (Bernardin & Buckley, 1981) may be even more successful in reducing rating errors for raters with an internal locus of control. Also, a group task requiring member interdependence could be used in future research instead of an individual task. Liden and Mitchell (1983) found that supervisors rate poor performers higher and good performers lower when the group was portrayed as highly interdependent than when the group members were relatively independent. Social context and contrast effects may also operate to affect the leniency of ratings of individuals within a task group (Ivancevich, 1983; Mitchell & Liden, 1982).

Although the results of this study do not support the effect of rater locus of control and rating purpose

on evaluation leniency, emphasis might still be placed on process variables in future performance appraisal research. Special attention should be given to the problem of leniency effects in performance appraisal and to rater characteristics that may facilitate this problem. Rater biases can be serious barriers to obtaining accurate employee assessments. The failure of raters to be critical in evaluations is one of the major shortcomings in appraisal systems (Bernardin et al., 1981). For administrative purposes, rater leniency could seriously affect the accuracy of ratings that will be the basis for important decisions affecting employees. For feedback purposes, lenient ratings would only serve to provide subordinates with a distorted picture of their behavior. In fact, since recipients tend to perceive negative feedback to be more positive than it is reported to them, subordinates may hold quite inflated views of their own performance (Ilgen & Knowlton, 1980). This would not benefit the organization since poor behavior and low performance would go uncorrected. Likewise, employees' own self-development and personal goals would suffer. Researchers have found that feedback informing individuals that their goal progress is low induces a greater amount of effort to improve performance (Matsui,

Okada, & Inoshita, 1983). Despite the inability of this study to find that the tendency to inflate performance ratings is a function of both rater personality and rating purpose, it is still important that researchers try to determine the effect of such variables in both lab and field studies. More research in this area may prove to be a worthwhile departure from rating instrument research and may provide more understanding of the reasons behind rater biases or lenient tendencies.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

EXPERIMENTAL MANIPULATIONS

CONDITION 1: ADMINISTRATIVE

The following page contains a description of an undergraduate's performance on an "in-basket" assignment, which is worth 1/3 of the final grade in a management class. You are being asked to serve as the outside evaluator of this student's performance. Your evaluation will determine approximately 50% of the student's grade for this assignment. If you volunteer to participate, your data will also be used in a research study examining how raters process written performance information.

Remember: Your ratings will determine 50% of this student's grade for this in-basket task. Thank you for your assistance as the outside rater.

CONDITION 2: FEEDBACK

The following page contains a description of an undergraduate's performance on a first (practice) trial of an "in-basket" task in a management class. Performance on the second trial will determine 1/3 of the student's final class grade. You are being asked to serve as the outside evaluator of this student's performance. Your ratings will be given back to the student as feedback information which the student can use to improve performance on the second trial of the in-basket assignment. If you volunteer to participate, your data will also be used in a research study examining how raters process written performance information.

Remember: Your ratings on this practice trial will be used for feedback purposes, to help this student improve performance on this task. Thank you for your assistance.

IN-BASKET SIMULATION#0000

- Established guidelines that aided employees' progress towards goals.
- Went through in-basket items in order of their appearance and didn't prioritize items.
- Didn't budget time sufficiently to finish the exercise.
- Didn't delegate a project to an employee who was an expert in the area.
- Ignored 7 of 18 items requiring some type of decision.
- Scheduled a meeting with subordinates after consulting them for a convenient time.
- Didn't notice that they planned the meeting for a date that they were to be out of town (on calendar).
- Did not tie together four related groups of memos.
- Perceived the basic instructions and underlined key phrases.
- Put off scheduling a meeting with a subordinate who wanted to discuss serious personal problems.
- Authorized travel funds for 2 employees, even though travel money was not available.
- Delegated at least 1 work assignment to every employee.
- Didn't respond to a request from another supervisor for a copy of a report.
- Issued an incomplete memo to employees on a scheduled meeting by leaving out the purpose of the meeting.
- Drafted 3 memos on the same topic that could have been combined.
- Sent a letter to the supply division which was clear on the quantities of supplies ordered.
- Sent a memo to employees concerning a new regulation that contained technical and difficult vocabulary.
- Scheduled a meeting with employees when there was evidence to suggest problems with production.

APPENDIX B

MEASURES

DEPENDENT MEASURES

On the basis of the attached description, please evaluate #0000's performance in the following items by simply checking the performance level that you feel is most representative.

1. Analytical skills: perceives subtle relationships; pays attention to detail; observant; assimilates data to derive overall meaning and implications.

<u>Very</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
Poor		Average		Average		

2. Decision-making: uses logical, sound judgment; decides when to do things as well as what to do; demonstrates confidence and conviction; takes action.

<u>Very</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
Poor		Average		Average		

3. Interpersonal: Consideration of the needs and feelings of others; develops rapport and trust; deals effectively with others regardless of level or status.

<u>Very</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
Poor		Average		Average		

4. Organizing and planning: structures tasks, plans, and objectives; establishes priorities; schedules and categorizes information; manages personal and staff time.

<u>Very</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
Poor		Average		Average		

5. Communication (Written): use of appropriate vocabulary level, sentence structure, and spelling; ability to effectively present information to others; legibility, completeness, brevity, and clarity.

<u>Very</u>	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u>	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
Poor		Average		Average		

6. Delegation: ability to direct and coordinate activities of others, maintain control of situations, and achieve results through delegation and follow-up.

<u>Very</u> Poor	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u> Average	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u> Average	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
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7. Overall performance:

<u>Very</u> Poor	<u>Poor</u>	<u>Below</u> Average	<u>Average</u>	<u>Above</u> Average	<u>Good</u>	<u>Outstanding</u>
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Using the following 7-point scale, please rate how much of an effect you think each of the following factors had in determining #0000's performance:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very little effect						Very strong effect

1. Ability (high or low) _____
2. Difficulty or ease of task _____
3. Effort (high or low) _____
4. Luck (good or bad) _____
5. Other (please describe): _____

BACKGROUND QUESTIONS

MANIPULATION CHECKS

Sex: M___ F___

Age: ___

Race (check one): ___ Caucasian
___ Black
___ Asian or Pacific Islander
___ Hispanic
___ American Indian or Alaskan native

Years in graduate school: 1___ 2___ 3___ 4___ Over 4___

Area of study: _____

Are you presently employed? ___ Yes ___ No
___ Full-time ___ Part-time

Total years working experience: _____

Experience as a supervisor: ___ Yes ___ No
___ Full-time ___ Part-time ___ Total years

What do you feel was the hypothesis of this study (i.e., what question was it designed to test)?

Why were you asked to evaluate #0000's performance?

Would you like to know the results of this study? ___ Yes ___ No

If "yes", please put your name and address below so that we may send them to you:

SPHERE-SPECIFIC LOCUS OF CONTROL MEASURE

Using the following 7-point scale, please respond to the questions listed below by placing the number you think is most appropriate on the space next to each item. This scale assesses your personal opinions. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly Disagree
- 4 = Neutral
- 5 = Slightly Agree
- 6 = Agree
- 7 = Strongly Agree

- 1. I can learn almost anything if I set my mind to it.
- 2. Even when I'm feeling self-confident about most things, I still seem to lack the ability to control social situations.
- 3. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
- 4. When I get what I want it's usually because I worked hard for it.
- 5. I have no trouble making and keeping friends.
- 6. By taking an active part in political and social affairs we, the people, can control world events.
- 7. I'm not good at guiding the course of a conversation with several others.
- 8. When I make plans I am almost certain to make them work.
- 9. Bad economic conditions are caused by world events that are beyond our control.
- 10. I can usually establish a close personal relationship with someone I find attractive.
- 11. I prefer games involving some luck over games requiring pure skill.
- 12. The average citizen can have an influence on government decisions.
- 13. I usually don't set goals because I have a hard time following through on them.
- 14. When being interviewed I can usually steer the interviewer toward the topics I want to talk about and away from those I wish to avoid.
- 15. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.

- 16. If I need help in carrying off a plan of mine, it's usually difficult to get others to help.
- 17. Competition discourages excellence.
- 18. One of the major reasons we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
- 19. I often find it hard to get my point of view across to others.
- 20. My major accomplishments are entirely due to my hard work and ability.
- 21. There is nothing we, as consumers, can do to keep the cost of living from going higher.
- 22. On any sort of exam or competition I like to know how well I do relative to everyone else.
- 23. In attempting to smooth over a disagreement I usually make it worse.
- 24. When I look at it carefully I realize it is impossible to have any really important influence over what big businesses do.
- 25. Often people get ahead just by being lucky.
- 26. If there's someone I want to meet I can usually arrange it.
- 27. In the long run we, the voters, are responsible for bad government on a national as well as a local level.
- 28. It's pointless to keep working on something that's too difficult for me.
- 29. I find it easy to play an important part in most group situations.
- 30. I prefer to concentrate my energy on other things rather than on solving the world's problems.

APPENDIX C

BACKGROUND DATA

TABLE 2

Frequency background data on subjects.

Background Variables	Condition ^a		Total
	1	2	
<u>Gender</u>			
Male	32	26	58
Female	11	21	32
<u>Age</u>			
18-22	3	1	4
23-27	20	24	44
28-32	13	13	26
33-37	4	5	9
38-42	2	4	6
43-47	1	0	1
<u>Race</u>			
White	39	43	82
Black	2	1	3
Asian	2	3	5
Hispanic	0	0	0
American Indian	0	0	0
<u>Presently Employed</u>			
No	8	19	27
Yes	35	28	63
Full-time	17	13	30
Part-time	18	15	33
<u>Supervisory Experience</u>			
No	19	23	42
Yes	24	22	46
Full-time	19	15	34
Part-time	5	7	12
<u>Year in Graduate School</u>			
1	5	13	18
2	21	20	41
3	6	7	13
4	4	4	8
Over 4	6	3	9

Note: ^a1=Administrative (n=43), 2=Feedback (n=47).

APPENDIX D

ADDITIONAL ANALYSES

TABLE 3

Intercorrelations of independent and dependent variables.

	Total Rating Score	Rating ^a							Attribution Items ^b				Total Locus of Control Score	Locus of Control ^c		
		Dimensions												Subscales		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4		PE	IP	SP
Total Rating Score	1.0	.68	.68	.62	.66	.59	.69	.83	-.04	.11	-.07	.36***	-.12	-.07	-.14*	-.05
All ***																
Dimensions																
1	1.0	.43	.39	.43	.21	.30	.61		-.09	.05	-.05	-.18**	.00	.08	-.07	.01
2		1.0	.25	.39	.26	.41	.58		.00	.01	-.00	-.35***	-.14*	-.10	-.04	-.16*
3			1.0	.14	.25	.30	.43		.03	.16*	-.03	-.14*	-.04	-.01	-.06	-.01
4				1.0	.37	.47	.52		-.02	.04	-.15*	.20**	-.06	-.05	-.09	.01
5					1.0	.26	.43		-.09	.04	-.04	.20**	-.14*	-.13	-.13	-.06
6						1.0	.47		-.05	.04	-.01	.26**	-.11	-.06	-.16*	-.02
7							1.0		.05	.17*	-.05	.42***	-.09	-.08	-.12	-.00
Attributions																
1									1.0	.16*	.16*	-.09	-.13	-.12	-.02	-.13
2										1.0	-.07	.31**	.16*	.03	.11	.19**
3											1.0	-.05	.08	.20**	.03	-.02
4												1.0	-.11	-.26**	-.07	.04
LC (Locus of Control Score)													1.0	.61	.80	.72
															All ***	All ***

Notes: ^a Performance Dimensions:

- 1-Analytical Skills
- 2-Decision-making
- 3-Interpersonal
- 4-Organizing & Planning
- 5-Communication
- 6-Delegation
- 7-Overall Performance

^b Attributions:

- 1-Ability
- 2-Task Difficulty
- 3-Effort
- 4-Luck

^c Locus of Control Subscales:

- PE-Personal Efficacy
- IP-Interpersonal Control
- SP-Sociopolitical Control

All items were rated on 7-point Likert-type scales.

VITA

Michelle L. Kinne was born in Washington state on February 12, 1960. Because her father was a career military officer, her family traveled extensively and she attended many different elementary and secondary schools. For the past eight years, they have resided in Fairfax, Virginia. She graduated from Lake Braddock Secondary School in June 1978, and was listed in Who's Who in American High School Students for that year. The following September she entered Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, and graduated from there, Magna Cum Laude, in June 1982 with a Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology. She began study toward a Master's degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology when she accepted an assistantship at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in September 1982.

Ms. Kinne is a member of Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Kappa Phi, Psi Chi, and a student affiliate of APA and SEPA. She plans a career in personnel administration and human resource development after graduation.