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HOW TYPE A CHARACTERISTICS OF A RATER AFFECTS
THEIR RATINGS OF ANOTHER'S PERFORMANCE
AND PERCEPTION OF MOTIVATION

TERESSA PEARSON

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OF ANOTHER'S PERFORMANCE AND PERCEPTION OF MOTIVATION

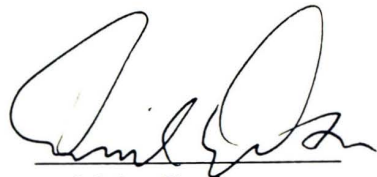
A Thesis
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Teressa Pearson


August 1999

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Teresa Pearson entitled "How Type A Characteristics of a Rater Affects their Ratings of Another's Performance and Perception of Motivation ". I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Master of the Arts, with a major in Industrial/Organizational Psychology.


Major Professor

We have read this thesis and
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Date

26 August 1999

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ABSTRACT

Accurate performance appraisals, a misnomer since the introduction by human resource departments, have been rated as a failure by employees and supervisors, alike (Painter, 1994). The subjectivity of these performance evaluations has long been a detriment to employees who had hoped to be professionally mobile. Among the non-job-related factors influencing appraisals are characteristics of the rater. One individual difference variable that has received little attention in the performance appraisal literature is the Type A behavior pattern (TABP). Burke, Weir, and DuWors (1979) have found that most employees who are in supervisory position display Type A attributes and have more supervisory responsibility for people. A supervisor can tend to exhibit more of this action-emotion complex while they are trying to master the evaluative process and control the performance, through the rating processes, of their ratees (Dembroski & MacDougall, 1978). This study attempted to show that there would be a negative relationship between a rater's level of the TABP and perceptions of job motivation and good performance for a ratee who performed poorly in the face of situational constraints. Even though the results showed an expected negative relationship, the hypotheses were unsupported.

CHAPTER I

It's no secret among employees in organizations that performance appraisals are their least favorite "decree" from human resources. This evaluation process is important for organizations that hope to succeed in a competitive business environment, because it allows for the identification of the most efficient employees to be placed in key organizational positions (McBey, 1994). The whole process should establish an environment of openness to information sharing, lead to a more intense sense of partnership in recognition of each individual's contributions, and allow employees to obtain increased accountability. This naturally should lead to increased buy-in and impact on the performance of their organization. Performance appraisals are important to all who are involved in the process. "The core of any appraisal process is the face-to-face meeting between the manager and employee, in which they discuss how the employee has performed on the job, how a high level of performance can be maintained or how his or her performance can be improved in the future" (Arthur, 1996, p. 18). The properly prepared and conducted performance appraisal can strengthen good performers, encourage average performers to greater heights, while presenting the poor performers with a realistic view of their job, allowing for opportunities to strengthen their deficiencies.

For many managers and employees, regardless of their industry, appraisal time can be one of frustration, fear and lost opportunity (Painter, 1994). The true

value of performance appraisals can only be recognized when one considers what impact they have throughout the organization. Performance appraisals are critical to an organization's retention, promotion, demotion, and termination procedures. The importance of this formal process is also manifested in the appraisal's potential to motivate and develop people. The performance appraisal can be pertinent to an organization if it is used accurately, consistently, fairly and objectively. This can facilitate a "two-way communication" that can be used as a diagnostic tool to reinforce what is right and to identify and to correct what is wrong within the organization (Somerick, 1993).

When supervisors find that performance outcomes are less easily measured objectively, most have the tendency to focus on employee behavior rather than actual results. Subjective performance ratings by supervisors usually include a plethora of non-job-related factors, leading to a violation of the most consecrated principle of performance evaluations that, they (supervisors) are evaluating the performance, not the person in the abstract. In most cases, the appraisal process is no better or worse than the manager conducting the review (Hildebrand, 1997). For employers who do not give their supervisors adequate rater training, performance appraisals can be a double-edged sword (Segal, 1995).

Type A Behavior Pattern (TABP)

Among the non-job-related factors influencing appraisal are characteristics of the rater. One individual difference variable that has received little attention in the performance appraisal literature is the Type A Behavior Pattern (TABP). Although not explicitly studied, a supervisor's personality characteristics can have distal or proximal effects on their ratings during performance appraisal periods. Type A behavior pattern (TABP) has been widely researched and is prevalent among all employees (at all levels), yet not directly linked to performance appraisal ratings. Fundamentally, organizations would prefer to employ Type As because of their devotion to productivity and achievements (Caplan & Jones, 1975). Burke, Weir and DuWors (1979) have found that most employees who are in supervisory position display Type A attributes and have more supervisory responsibility for people. Relatedly, Type As tend to work more hours per week and travel more days per year. They are more upwardly mobile in their careers and are in the higher salaried group. Burke and Deszca (1982) found that individuals with high Type A scores were attracted to work environments that were compatible with their Type A propensities. In this same sense, it can also be deduced that Type As also incorporate their behavioral characteristics into their work environment. Type A individuals are attracted to organizational climates that match their own behavioral and attitudinal predisposition (Begley & Boyd, 1985). Matthews (1982) likewise encountered that Type As report rapid career

advancement, attain a higher occupational status, receive more benefits from their work and were more educated.

During the 1950s two pioneering cardiologists, Friedman and Rosenman, collaborated in the development of a conceptual definition of this behavior pattern. Dembroski and Costa (1987) cite Friedman and Rosenman's (1974) newly found behavioral pattern as a syndrome including: (a) an habitual, intense drive to accomplish usually poorly defined goals, (b) strong desire to compete, (c) extraordinary need for recognition and advancement, (d) chronic time-urgent behavior linked to deadlines, (e) persistent vigorous acceleration of physical or mental activity, and (f) extreme mental and physical alertness. Tett et al., (1992) associated Type A's behavioral quickness as a particularly reliable indicator of their personality, as well as their unconscious feelings of time urgency, impatience, and to a lesser extent, hostility.

Additionally, all of the Type A characteristics are seen as mechanisms by which the individual attempts to maintain control over the surrounding environment (McGregor & Eveleigh, 1991). Likewise, any situation that is perceived as a threat to the individual's control results in an intensification of these mechanisms. In relation to the performance appraisal period, a period of little enjoyment for superior and subordinate, a supervisor can tend to exhibit more of this action-emotion complex while they are trying to master the evaluative process and control the performance through rating processes of their ratees (Dembroski & MacDougall, 1978). Pittner and Houston (1980)

observed that Type A individuals manifested greater arousal generally in response to challenge of working on demanding tasks. The greater the arousal effects that were found to be true during challenging tasks were due to the all-out-effort that Type As exhibit.

Researchers are fairly confident to say that Type A is not a trait. Their conclusion, although not a general consensus, is that the Type A behavior pattern is a set of overt behaviors that is elicited from susceptible individuals by an appropriately challenging environment. Those environmental events that are frustrating, difficult and moderately competitive seem to evoke more of Type A behaviors (Matthews, 1982). Keltikangas-Jarvinen and Raikkonen (1993) found that Type A persons are not only known for their aggression and hostility, but they also have trouble in managing their affect. Vroege and Aaronson (1994) hypothesized that the hostility exhibited by those who were Type A had more difficulties with developing an adequate social network. Correspondingly, Morrison (1997) concluded through his study of the personality correlates of the Five-Factor model, that Type A behavior was negatively associated with agreeableness scores. Their reversion to actions instead of emotions can be felt in their extrapunitive in the form of hostility or overt aggression towards others (Flett et al., 1994). Furthermore, Flett et al., reported findings from research which indicated that Type A parents were not only extremely demanding of their children, but also utilized punitive standards when

evaluating their children. In which case, Type As were willing to inflict harm on others in the context of helping others learn (Matthews, 1982).

Constraints

The Type A research discussed suggests that those high on this characteristic are less likely to tolerate excuses for poor performance at work. The workplace, however, is often fraught with obstacles to successful performance that are legitimately beyond the control of the performer. Though marginally studied, constraints have been known to have distal affects on supervisors' ratings of subordinates. Organizational constraints are aspects of the work environment that interfere with or prevent good job performance. Physical task characteristics and/or situational conditions can directly affect performance. Situational conditions are also hypothesized to affect the display of high levels of motivation. They can arise from any dimension of the job, including the supervisory practices, physical environment and the lack of needed training or time.

Peters and O'Connor (1980) realized that organizational constraints have a detrimental effect on job performance. These authors cited Schneider's comment that situational constraint "probably deserve attention as potential moderators of ability/performance" (Peters & O'Connors, 1980, p. 394) as one comment critical for supervisors to hear and understand. Schneider (1978), himself, rationalized that situational conditions should be designed to promote the display of performance-relevant individual differences if such differences are to be reflected

in performance variance. In many work situations, persons who are both willing and able to accomplish a task may be either inhibited in or prevented from doing so due to situational characteristics. As pointed out by Villanova (1996), constraint perceptions may have consequences for self-efficacy, a construct shown to be a strong link to aspiration levels. As a result, constraints can affect performance through mediated processes, by lowering expectancies in a goal-setting framework of performance. Herman (1973) argued that performance satisfaction relationships could only be expected to be significant in the absence of situational constraints.

Spector et al., (1996) found that high levels of employee-reported constraints were associated with low levels of supervisor-rated performance. Constraints on performance tend to account for a great deal of the disagreement between raters and ratees. Bernardin (1989) found that perceptions of the impact of constraints might also explain discrepancies between self and supervisory performance evaluations. The supervisor very often disagrees with employees on the extent to which different factors constrained their performance (Peters et al., 1982). Most supervisors make some allowances for situational constraints.

Hypotheses

Flett et al., (1994) discovered that Type A individuals are said to demonstrate higher levels of the interpersonal perfectionism dimension. Along these lines, Flett also detected that those who were found to be Type A tended to demand perfection from others, and would respond negatively when others fail

to meet their prescribed Type standards. Moreover, Flett et al., suggested that it was the socially prescribed perfectionism dimension that is associated with most Type As' indices of negative affect. This research suggests that Type A's cognitive belief system, which focuses on the theme that a person must prove himself through achievements, may also be the personal motivation standards that subordinates are expected to adopt. Therefore,

Hypothesis 1: There will be a negative relationship between a rater's level of Type A and perceptions of motivation for a subordinate who performed poorly in the face of situational constraints.

This tendency towards perfection spills over into Type A's work-orientation, and their competitive drive, which makes them determined to achieve as much as possible in as short an amount of time as possible (Hayes & Davis, 1993). Dembroski and Costa (1987) reported that Type As' were perpetually struggling to achieve more and more in less and less time, and if required to do so, against the opposing efforts of other things or persons. It is possible that these incessant demands that Type As place upon themselves, will be future expectations subordinates are anticipated to succumb to, as well. Accordingly, in order for them to achieve a series of goals as quickly as possible, Type As feel it necessary to work rapidly, and to persist in spite of fatigue or possible failure (Matthews, 1982). This could be another one of the Type A supervisor's informal motivation requirement for their subordinates. Although unspoken, it is obvious that a person exhibiting such qualities would require,

and Type As have mastered, their subordinates to ignore potentially interfering distractions as well as they do.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a negative relationship between a rater's level of Type A and performance ratings assigned to a subordinate who performed poorly in the face of situational constraints.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 71 psychology student volunteers (57 female, 14 male) from Austin Peay State University. Sixty-nine percent of participants were between 18 and 24 years of age, and 31% of participants were between 25 and 52 years old. As well, sixty-nine percent of the participants were Caucasian, 25% African-American, and 6% were either Hispanic, Native American, or chose not to identify themselves.

Materials

Constraints. A vignette approach was used which describes an employee and his work situation. This vignette was used as a stimulus instrument to evoke participants' Type A characteristics. The details of this vignette not only described the employee's job tasks, but also the situational constraints that prevented proper job performance (see Appendix 1). These situational constraints illustrated how the lack of resources and improper contacts hinder other employee's job performance.

Type A Behavior Pattern. Scale A of the Survey of Work Styles (SWS) instrument was used to assess the Type A behavior pattern (Jackson & Mavrogiannis-Gray, 1989). The Survey of Work Styles itself is a 96-item measure in which respondents are asked to indicate the degree of agreement using a 5-point scale (extremely uncharacteristic to extremely characteristic) and requires approximately fifteen minutes to complete. There are six subscales containing 16 unique items, and a seventh scale, Scale A, made up of thirty-five items, selected from among the original collection of 96 items. The subscales are labeled Impatience, Anger, Work Involvement, Time Urgency, Job Dissatisfaction and Competitiveness. The authors of the SWS describe their six subscales as:

Table 1

Survey of Work Styles Scale Definitions

Scale	Definition
Anger	One's propensity to be or become antagonized, resulting in an emotional excitement characterized by an evident display of feelings, and a desire or intent to punish or seek revenge.
Competitiveness	Tendency to struggle to defeat others in order to achieve recognition, or obtain a "prize", even in non-competitive situations
Impatience	Intolerance of time delays, or anything that hinders one's desired progress
Job Dissatisfaction	Absence of a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job on: co-worker friendliness and competence, supervisory styles, working conditions, etc.
Time Urgency	Preoccupation with work deadlines and similar pressures, resulting in hurried, abrupt motor mannerisms and style.
Work Involvement	Preoccupation with one's job, to the exclusion of recreational or social activities.

Note. from the Survey of Work Styles Manual

The coefficient alpha reliability coefficients for the SWS scales were as follows: anger, .81, competitiveness, .73, impatience, .77, job dissatisfaction, .84, time urgency, .82, and work involvement, .84. These values indicate that the SWS subscales are suitably homogeneous with regard to item content to permit reliable interpretations of SWS scores.

The Scale A scores were used to determine participants' level of TABP because the thirty-five items that made up this subsection were found to be the most predictive of the Rosenman Structured Interview (Jackson & Mavrogiannis-Gray, 1989). This type of interview was arguably the most reliable and valid measure of the Type A Behavior Pattern (Byrne, Rosenman, Schiller, & Chesney, 1985). The coefficient alpha reliability for Scale A of the SWS is $r = .81$. Therefore, as suggested by Jackson and Mavrogiannis-Gray, the Scale A scores were divided by six to obtain a TABP score.

Performance. Two items were constructed to measure performance. Individuals responded to these items on a 5 point Likert scale (disagree to agree). The performance rating was obtained by computing the mean for the following two items: "Kent Kohn should receive negative feedback" and "I would tell Kent Kohn that his performance was poor". Each of these items were significant enough to be correlated with a participant's Scale A score, but for the sake of consistency an aggregation of these two items were calculated. Therefore, the Cronbach's alpha for these two statements was .48.

Motivation. Two items were constructed to measure motivation.

Individuals responded to these items on a 5 point Likert scale (disagree to agree). The performance rating was obtained by computing the mean for the following two items: "Kent Kohn did not work hard enough to succeed" and "Kent Kohn did not care enough to succeed". The reliability of each of these items were so low that only upon aggregation was there enough significance for a correlation. Again, Cronbach's alpha for these two statements was .24.

Manipulation Check. A manipulation check item was presented to the participants to assess whether or not the participants were able to detect the presence of situational/work constraints. That one-item, 5-point check was listed as "Kent Kohn faced obstacles to good performance".

Procedure

The participants who volunteered for this study were given a four-page packet of information that contained an Informed Consent form (see Appendix B), the Survey of Work Styles (SWS), the scenario, and a Demographic Sheet (see Appendix C). The whole process took approximately twenty minutes, upon completion of their packet, the participants were handed their own copy of the informed consent form.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

This research attempted to test these two hypotheses: (a) there will be a negative relationship between a rater's level of TABP and perceptions of motivation for a subordinate who performed poorly in the face of situational constraints, and (b) there will be a negative relationship between a rater's level of TABP and performance ratings assigned to a subordinate who performed poorly in the face of situational constraints. The overall assumption of these hypotheses is that those raters who exhibit Type A characteristics were more likely to ignore the situational constraints of those they were rating on performance and perception of motivation. These Type A characteristics were invoked through a vignette approach, which depicted situational constraints. To verify the 'accuracy' of the vignette's success in its purpose a manipulation check ("Kent Kohn faced obstacles to good performance") was included whose mean score was $\bar{M} = 3.65$, $\underline{SD} = 1.15$. This was a good indication that the participants were aware of the situational constraints presented within the vignette. As well, the mean scores and standard deviations of the composite motivation and performance ratings, and six subscales, including Scale A, are listed in Table 2.

To address Hypothesis 1, a Pearson product-moment correlation was calculated between the Scale A score and the composite of the motivation items. The results, $r(69) = -.09$, $p < .05$, indicated that the correlation between rater's level

of TABP and motivation were negative, yet not statistically significant. The same statistical analysis was used to test Hypothesis 2, conversely, though, the correlation between a rater's level of TABP and assigned composite performance ratings were positive, $r(69) = 0.06$, $p < .05$, and as well, not statistically significant.

Although not a premise in the researcher's hypotheses, Time Urgency and performance ratings yielded significant results. The Pearson product-moment correlation indicated that most persons who scored high on the Time Urgency facet of the SWS gave high ratings the paper employee on the performance rating. This result illustrated how those who were time urgent felt that the paper employee was a poor performer and should receive negative feedback ($r(69) = .24$, $p < .05$).

Table 2
Means, Standard Deviations, & Inter-correlations for Dependent Measures & SWS

	<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>
1.	Motivation	4.85	2.56	1.00									
2.	Performance	4.45	2.02	.42*	1.00								
3.	Anger	47.80	5.40	-.18	-.02	1.00							
4.	Competitiveness	49.52	5.32	-.08	.09	.41**	1.00						
5.	Impatience	50.52	6.55	-.15	-.04	.52**	.40**	1.00					
6.	Job Dissatisfaction	51.13	5.72	-.15	.06	.23	.33**	.54**	1.00				
7.	Time Urgency	48.35	5.96	.14	.24*	.40**	.41**	.55**	.41	1.00			
8.	Work Involvement	49.04	5.95	-.11	-.06	.40**	.23	.51**	.40	.50	1.00		
9.	Scale A	108.35	10.71	-.09	.06	.68**	.55**	.72**	.58**	.66**	.53**	1.00	
10.	Age	1.69	1.24	-.09	.06	.16	-.24	.04	-.15	.12	.26**	.06	1.00

* $p \leq .01$ and $p \leq .05$ using Bonferroni correlation adjustments

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study sought primarily to assess whether or not there would be a relationship between a superior's action-emotion complex (personality characteristics) and their rating judgements. According to the results, there was no relationship between Type A raters' ratings for a person who performed poorly in the face of situational constraints, whether the rater was assigning performance ratings or perceiving a ratee's job motivation. This research can be viewed as one less confounding factor in the subjectiveness of superior's performance appraisals. Although the subjectivity of work evaluations is inherent, the exclusion of the Type A personality characteristic is not a moderating factor of concern.

There are many possible explanations for the given results in this study. The first rationale could stem from the subject pool. Most research conducted on the Type A construct was studied in middle class, middle-aged, employable, Caucasian males. It is quite evident that the late teen-young adults, who made up this study's sample, were not equivalent, by any means, to the original Type A normative population of fifteen-hundred men in the Western Collaborative Group first studied in 1969. In addition, this study's sample contained an inordinately large amount of females (sixty-nine percent), a direct contrast to the initial normative population of the 1500 men who were the subjects of the

Western Collaborative Group. This dissimilarity can also be the source of discrepancy for this study. Not only are the demographics vastly different from the prescribed, original, normative sample as studied in 1969, the technological advances and industrial changes are correspondingly mitigating factors.

When studied in the late 60s, early 70s, (the starting age of computers), the hard-driving and competitive work environments, were not only warranted, but also expected. During the introduction of this action-emotion complex, most business executives truly had to exhibit such characteristics (time urgency, work involvement, impatience, etc.) as part of an assured success in their particular industry. Again, with the start of the information age (advancements in telecommunications), and the ready availability of information (internet access, e-mail, cellular services), the 'hussle and bussle' to survive or succeed has been relieved to some extent. With this new 'ease' established within the business world, there comes delineation from the old Protestant work ethics and to some extent, the hard-ball efforts required for success.

Even though undergraduate Type A men and women reported studying and working more hours than Type Bs without sleep, it's possible (Burke & Deszca, 1982), too, that without a degree, the jobs held by student Type As are not as stressing and require less responsibility and/or no subordinate supervision. The feasibility of this explanation lies in the fact that most courses have syllabi, which, in itself, provides the students with course requirements, due dates for assignments, as well as preparation time. Additionally, professors

and students both know the required performance standards, which is in direct contrast to those in the business world, who are usually guessing about the sufficiency of their exerted efforts, when projects are due, and how well they are performing before the appraisal process comes around. The presence of stated guidelines (i.e., syllabi), constant superior and subordinate interaction (professors acting as mentors, as well), and required group cooperation (i.e., study groups for tests, and class projects), can negate the effects of a competitive environment (which most business persons may find themselves in), thus, the low scores on that particular subscale.

Furthermore, the lack of transfer of the sampled Type As' characteristics to the rating of ratees can be explained by Matthew, who cites Carver, Blamey, and Scheier's 1979 research, which stated that Type As compare their performance to internal standards of excellence while working on a task. Their research also found that Type As were highly self-focused and remained acutely aware of themselves; another indication of a lack of transfer of personal standards to others.

The results of this study should be interpreted critically. Future researchers who wish to reference this study should take into account that it was researched in a laboratory setting, thereby lessening its generalizability. Another consideration of this study lies in its "paper-people" research methodology that was utilized.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Austin Peay State University

You are being asked to voluntarily participate in a research study. **Please read the following material carefully.** It describes the purpose of the study, the procedures to be used, risks and benefits of your participation, and what will happen to the information that is collected from you.

The purpose of this study is to determine if certain personality traits have an influence on performance ratings given to employees. Additionally, the relationship between demographic information and certain personality traits will be observed.

Procedures to be used. You will be asked to complete a survey that measures certain personality traits. After the completion of this survey, you will be asked to read a few paragraphs that describe an employee and his/her work situation. Following this short story, there will be four questions that ask how you would rate the performance of the employee. This whole procedure will take approximately twenty minutes.

The potential risks of participation in this study are minimal. It is possible that you may not be comfortable answering some of the questions. If you become uncomfortable, you may skip the question or stop participating.

Benefits of participation. Participating in this study can be a learning experience for you. You may also enjoy learning about the influence of personality traits on performance ratings.

What will happen to the data collected. The data obtained from you will be coded with a series of numbers placed on the form provided to you. Your name will not be directly linked or attached to the responses that you provide. Only the principle investigator and her faculty sponsor will have access to the data obtained from you. Your identification number will be kept with your data in the event that you would like to be dropped from the study.

If you would like a summary of the findings of this study, you may contact:

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INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Please read the statements below. They describe your rights and responsibilities as a participant in a research project.

1. I agree to voluntarily participate in the present study conducted by Teressa Pearson.
2. I have been informed orally and in writing of the procedures to be followed as well as the risks and benefits to me for participating in this study. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about my participation.
3. I have been informed that I may end my participation at any time without penalty or prejudice. I will have the opportunity to have all data that could be connected to me destroyed up to one week after my participation in this study.
4. I have been given a copy of this consent form to keep.

Appendix B

Please read this short story and answer the four questions that follow.

The Assured Shipment Company had been shipping ceramic bowls and porcelain figurines for almost two years. Their success rate was due to a veteran manager's business sense, quick response to customer/client requests and willingness to get in with his subordinates to pitch in when needed. He was a dependable shipping manager.

The veteran manager had forsaken his first opportunity for vacation last year, yet was adamant about not missing this June's. Therefore, in March, the veteran manager began training another supervisor from the Packing department of Assured Shipment. Although the shipping and packing departments depended upon one another's cooperation, their duties and responsibilities differed. Kent Kohn, the packing supervisor of Assured, became the veteran manager's shipping supervisor-trainee. Kohn was good with numbers and could recall large amounts of information. Even though the veteran manager knew Kohn was more than qualified and equipped for this job, the veteran manager often 'quizzed' Kohn on what to do in case of an "emergency" shipping problem (i.e., lack of boxes or low tape supply).

As luck would have it, two weeks into the veteran manager's vacation an "emergency" arose. Kohn was quick to recall all necessary procedures for such an occasion, but was unable to make any outside connections since the previous night's thunderstorm downed the phone lines. Kohn had even tapped his packing manager for possible solutions, which, hopefully, excluded canceling this important client's shipment. Upon the packing manager's advice, Kohn called the client to request a possible two-day extension, but only to find out that the shipment had previously been back-ordered and was already four days late.

Based on the above information.....

1. Kent Kohn should receive negative feedback.

Disagree

Agree

1 2 3 4 5

2. I would tell Kent Kohn that his performance was poor.

Disagree

Agree

1 2 3 4 5

3. Kent Kohn did not work hard enough to succeed.

Disagree

Agree

1 2 3 4 5

4. Kent Kohn did not care enough to succeed.

Disagree

Agree

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C

Please complete this worksheet. If any question makes you feel uncomfortable please feel free to skip that question or stop participating without fear of penalty or prejudice.

Please indicate the following:

Considering the brief story you read a few moments ago, answer the following question:

Kent Kohn faced obstacles to good performance.

Disagree **Agree**
1 2 3 4 5

Your

Age:

18-24 yrs. old _____
25-31 yrs. old _____
32-38 yrs. old _____
39-45 yrs. old _____
46-52 yrs. old _____
53-59 yrs. old _____
Other _____

Your

Ethnic Background:

Asian American _____
Hispanic-American _____
Native American or Alaskan _____
Native _____
African American _____
Caucasian _____
Other _____

Your

Gender:

Male: _____

Female: _____

VITA

Teressa Pearson, born in Nashville, Tennessee on December 9, 1974, attended grades 6 through 8 at Meigs Magnet School, and grades 9 through 12 at Hunters Lane Comprehensive High School, graduating there in May 1993. She received her bachelor of the arts degree in Psychology from Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee in May of 1997. She is presently attending the U.S. Army's Officer Candidate School course.