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Montgomery, Linda Elaine, Ph.D.

City University of New York, 1991

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SOURCES OF VARIATION IN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS DUE TO PERSONALITY AND WORK ENVIRONMENT CHARACTERISTICS

by LINDA E. MONTGOMERY

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York.

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May 2, 1991
Date

Roger Millsap
Roger Millsap, Ph.D.
Chair of Examining Committee

5/2/91
Date

Herbert D. Saltzstein
Herbert Saltzstein, Ph.D.
Executive Officer

Edwin P. Hollander, Ph.D.
Walter Reichman, Ed.D.
Supervisory Committee

Seymour Adler, Ph.D.
Richard Reilley, Ph.D.
Outside Readers

The City University of New York

Abstract

SOURCES OF VARIATION IN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS DUE TO PERSONALITY AND WORK ENVIRONMENT CHARACTERISTICS

by

Linda E. Montgomery

Adviser: Professor Roger Millsap

The purpose of this study was to determine whether the personality traits of a rater and/or the work environment to which a rater is exposed have a significant impact on performance appraisal ratings given by a rater. Raters' personality traits that were investigated include: vocational personality characteristics and introversion-extroversion as measured by the Strong Interest Inventory (SII); and negative affectivity, positive affectivity, and constraint as measured by Tellegen's (1982) Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ).

Eighty males (N=37) and females (N=43) served as raters in assessing the work performance of ratees depicted in written scenarios. Each rater was given four performance scenarios to rate based on his/her SII profile with each of the four scenarios representing conditions where the ratee's SII profile and the work environment were either matched or unmatched with the rater's SII profile: (a) matched rater/ratee SII profiles and work environment (SPSE); (b) unmatched rater/ratee SII profile and matched work environment (DPSE); (c) matched rater/ratee SII profile and unmatched work environment (SPDE); and (d) unmatched rater/ratee SII profile and unmatched work environment (DPDE).

The results indicate that rater's NA is not significantly related to performance appraisal outcomes; low PA raters gave significantly (p=.018) more favorable ratings than high PA raters for the DPDE condition; low Constraint raters gave significantly (p=.014) more favorable ratings than high Constraint raters for the SPSE condition; for raters with differentiated SII profiles (large differences between rater's highest and lowest SII GOT scores), introverted raters gave significantly (p=.005) more favorable ratings than extroverted raters for the SPSE condition; for all raters combined, introverted raters gave significantly (p=.001) more favorable ratings than extroverted raters for the DPDE condition; raters with differentiated SII profiles rated SPSE scenarios significantly (p=.008) less favorably than they did DPSE scenarios; raters rated SPDE scenarios significantly (p=.014) more favorably than they did DPDE scenarios; caucasian raters gave significantly (p=.030) less favorable ratings than non-caucasian raters (blacks, hispanics, asians, and others); and environmental conditions were not significantly related to performance appraisal outcomes (SPSE vs. SPDE or DPSE vs. DPDE).

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INTRODUCTION

Many of the formal and informal activities that take place in organizational settings involve decision making (e.g., this individual should be offered a management level position in our company or that employee should be promoted); assigning a value to people, products or services (e.g., with her know-how, she will market our new service better than anyone else on the staff); and rendering social judgments (e.g., he is the type of person with whom I feel comfortable and can communicate with effectively). In organizations, the formal process of making judgments about people is often related to performance appraisal activities and, like most types of activities that require a person to make judgments, perceptions may vary among individuals.

For many years, researchers have been trying to understand the performance appraisal process. As Landy and Farr (1983) state,

> "In the past decades, an enormous amount of research has been directed toward eliminating or controlling variables that were thought to influence ratings. These variables included such things as scale format and rater training. They were somewhat limited in scope and tended toward the trivial...Although an issue such as the number of scale points is relevant for understanding and using rating data, many other issues, equally relevant, had been ignored during 30 years of research" (pp. 93-94).

Since the early 1980's, in an attempt to better understand the performance appraisal process, psychologists have identified two major issues involving personality and environmental characteristics that appear to have an impact on rating work performance. First, people filter information in

terms of what they pay attention to (selective attention), personal biases, etc. Secondly, organizational environments can be and often are distracting for raters in terms of work demands and time pressures. Sometimes there simply is not sufficient opportunity to observe the person who is being rated. Also, if performance appraisal activities are not considered very important by an organization and are viewed as a low priority chore, there is little motivation to devote time and attention to it.

Although there are potentially many variables of interest in trying to understand how performance appraisal ratings are arrived at, not all of them can be addressed in one research project. The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of personality and work environment factors on performance appraisal outcomes. As will be discussed in Chapter I, current research findings in the area of performance appraisal suggest that how a rater assimilates ratee performance information and forms rating judgments are influenced by the rater's personality characteristics. There is a need for research to be conducted in this area since, to date, there have been few empirical inquiries on this topic. According to Holland (1985), vocational psychology has tended to be viewed as the branch of psychology that concerns itself predominantly with vocational choice and that vocational preferences are not directly related to the personality dynamics of individuals. Contrary to this view, Holland offers research evidence that vocational interests reflect and indeed are a useful measure of personality characteristics. Therefore, his work may be quite useful in understanding performance appraisal ratings. Three additional personality dimensions will be explored to determine whether they contribute to understanding performance appraisal outcomes: negative affectivity (associated with stress reactions and feelings

of alienation); positive affectivity (associated with feelings of wellbeing, social potency, and achievement); and constraint (associated with control needs).

Also, Holland (1985) proposes that both vocational personalities and work environments (e.g., realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional) can be measured along similar dimensions. According to Schneider (1987), work environments are created by the people who work in a given setting. It is thought that people who remain with an organization over a long period of time both create and maintain the work environment. In relation to this research, the environment is an important consideration because ratees are embedded in a work situation and the degree to which they conform or deviate even subtly from that environment may influence how a rater perceives them. For instance, even if an employee is performing satisfactorily, a rater may not favorably perceive that performance because of the ratee's subtle deviation from what is considered usual or expected in a particular setting. Therefore, it is important to pay attention to environmental contingencies in designing research for this study.

To summarize, the variables of interest in this research that will be discussed in the following chapters are the personality characteristics of raters and work environments and how they affect performance appraisal ratings.

CHAPTER 1

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RESEARCH

Recent work in the area of performance appraisal has focused on social cognition theories as a way of explaining rating outcomes (e.g, DiNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983; and Landy & Farr, 1980). As presented in the following review of the literature, research results are beginning to emerge in support of the theory that cognitive operations influence raters' perceptions and, hence, performance appraisal outcomes. According to Feldman (1981), the performance appraisal process involves four cognitive tasks. The rater must:

(1) determine what is relevant versus irrelevant behavior/information to attend to in assessing performance;

(2) cognitively organize or categorize the information in some way that makes sense to the rater and is stored for later access;

(3) recall relevant information in an orderly way; and

(4) integrate the information and arrive at some type of summary judgment.

Rating Accuracy and Rating Errors

Murphy, Garcia, Kerkar, Martin, & Balzer (1982) conducted a study on performance appraisal rating accuracy. Based on the previous work of Borman (1977, 1978) and Cronbach (1955), they defined accuracy as having four distinct facets: elevation, differential elevation, stereotype accuracy, and differential accuracy. Although rating accuracy is not being assessed in this research, a brief discussion of the concept is relevant in order to better understand performance appraisal issues.

1. Elevation - the mean rating given by a rater to all ratees across all performance appraisal items. For example, if the rater's overall mean rating score is not significantly different from the established true score, then the rater is considered an accurate rater on this accuracy dimension. Elevation accuracy has an impact on decisions affecting work groups rather than individual employees. When managers have several workgroups reporting to them, they may have to make assessments about what group is working more effectively or less effectively than other groups. A lenient manager may rate work groups as being equally productive even though there are significant differences among the groups.

2. Differential Elevation - the mean rating given to each ratee across all performance appraisal dimensions. Raters who rank order ratees' performance in the same way that ratee's are ranked according to their true score performance are considered accurate raters. Differential elevation is the facet of rating accuracy that focuses on individual differences. Issues regarding differential accuracy are invoked when managers make distinctions among their employees (e.g., which employee is the most productive, which employee should receive a merit salary raise or a promotion, etc.).

3. Stereotype Accuracy - the mean rating given to each performance appraisal dimension across ratees. For example, the rater whose mean performance ratings are not significantly different from true performance scores on dimensions such as communication skills, flexibility, interpersonal relations, etc. is inaccurate rater. When managers make distinctions among the strengths and weaknesses of their employees for training programs and other employee development opportunities, stereotype accuracy becomes an important accuracy issue.

4. Differential Accuracy - the ability of the rater to accurately distinguish among ratees' differences in patterns of performance (e.g., placement decisions). Raters who make performance distinctions that are not significantly different from those reflected by true performance scores are accurate raters. According to Murphy et al. (1982), this is the component that most accurately reflects "the lay notion of accuracy or interpersonal sensitivity" (p. 321).

Mount and Thompson (1987) conducted a field study on the cognitive categorizations used by raters in rendering performance judgments and their impact on rating accuracy as well as leniency and halo effects. In this study, raters consisted of subordinates rating the performance of their supervisors. The dependent variables were defined as follows:

(1) Accuracy - the overall average difference between the subordinates appraisal of their supervisor minus the supervisor's true performance score.

(2) Leniency - the average difference between subordinates' ratings of their supervisor minus the supervisor's true performance score on items comprising a performance dimension (e.g., the category of managerial effectiveness included items such as applying innovative procedures, answering difficult questions, giving stimulating assignments, setting an example, etc.).

(3) Halo - the standard deviation of the performance ratings on the items comprising a performance dimension.

The operationalization of the accuracy rating was based on the work of Bernardin & Pence (1980) and Heneman & Wexley (1983). To arrive at what Mount et al. call a "true" performance score, they calculated a weighted average for each item based on the subordinates' ratings of their immediate supervisor (each supervisor was a mid-level manager), the manager's self-

ratings, and the ratings of the manager's supervisor. Mount et al. state that when several ratings of a target ratee are averaged, that rating produces a more accurate evaluation than ratings given by one person. This approach to defining performance rating accuracy has received empirical support in several independent studies (French & Bell, 1978; Latham, Fay, & Saari, 1979; Miner, 1968). Therefore, the researchers did not derive "true" performance scores by using ratings obtained by experts. Finally, a perceived congruence score was calculated to determine whether a manager met a subordinate's expectations. It should be noted that if a manager's behavior was incongruent with a subordinate's expectations, the manager could be doing more than the subordinate expected as well as less than the subordinate expected.

This research produced several interesting findings. When a subordinate's expectations of the manager's behavior were met, performance appraisal ratings were significantly more accurate than when expectations were not met. According to Mount et al., one explanation for this finding is that expected behaviors are looked for by raters and this makes them both more salient and more easily recalled than behaviors that are not expected. The implication is that unexpected behaviors are more difficult to integrate into categorizing a person and that makes these behaviors less likely to be recalled with any accuracy. Another finding was that leniency and halo effects were present among even the more accurate ratings. For example, more accurate ratings were more lenient and also had halo effects. Until recently, it has been assumed that leniency and halo effects lessen the accuracy of performance ratings and they are therefore treated as sources of error variance. To the contrary, several researchers, including Mount et al., have found that accuracy and rating errors are not necessarily interrelated

(Bernardin & Pence, 1980; Borman, 1978; Ilgen and Feldman, 1983). That is, even when a performance rating is free of halo, leniency, central tendencies, or stringency effects, the rating still may be less than accurate. Conversely, the presence of halo, etc. does not necessarily lessen the accuracy of a rating.

Other researchers have also grappled with the concept of accuracy in relation to performance ratings. Rater training has sometimes been recommended as a way to reduce ratings errors such as halo and thereby increase rating accuracy. Lord (1985), however, notes that a rater's cognitive simplifications reflect both true and error variance because, to some extent, the process of cognitive simplification reflects actual ratee traits or behaviors.

> "If rating errors like halo arise from cognitive simplifications that are based, in part, on real attributes or behaviors of ratees, then reducing such errors will remove true as well as error variance...Hence it will generally be unclear whether rater training or statistical corrections for errors...will improve or reduce accuracy" (Lord 1985, p.66).

This means that true score variance may be eliminated from performance ratings as well as error variance. Therefore, although rater training is a useful component of the rating process, it should be carefully designed to avoid eliminating true performance variance.

According to the results of the Mount et al. study, it appears that the way raters cognitively categorize ratees does influence rating accuracy. However, the researchers did not attempt to determine if a rater's personality characteristics have any impact on whether a ratee was viewed as being congruent or incongruent with the rater's expectations. Research in this area is necessary to ascertain how the personality dimensions of a rater affect the cognitive categorization process.

Cognitive Influences on Performance Appraisal Ratings

Implicit Personality Theory. Akin to the concept of halo, Krzystofiak, Cardy, and Newman (1988) looked at the process of cognitive categorization from the perspective of implicit personality theory which is defined as "a set of beliefs about the way traits covary in the population" (p. 525). In relation to performance appraisal ratings, the researchers hypothesized that raters attribute certain personality traits to ratees based on the behaviors they observe. That is, the personality traits attributed to a ratee represent the way a rater cognitively organizes behavioral information and may reflect something more or different than the actual behavior of the ratee. According to Cooper (1981), people develop a cognitive shorthand by which they can efficiently (although perhaps not accurately) process information according to the implicit theories they have developed as explanations for behaviors they encounter. As Krzystofiak et al. state, this is a way of "actively constructing 'reality'" (p. 515).

In a laboratory study conducted with undergraduate students in an industrial relations course, Krzystofiak et al. asked the subjects to assess the performance of professors presented in five performance vignettes. The results of the study show that raters did rely upon personality trait inferences in arriving at performance judgments above and beyond anything concretely expressed in the behaviors presented in the vignettes. For example, if a professor were depicted as showing interest in the course material and giving students a reasonable work load, positive personality traits were attributed by raters (e.g., nice, polite, likeable, friendly, etc.).

One potential problem with this study was that subjects were asked to evaluate personality traits of the professors that were pre-selected by the researchers and presented as part of the study. This could mean that the

traits attributed to the ratees were format induced (i.e., raters completed a measurement instrument which listed traits) rather than having occurred without any prompting. However, as noted by Krzystofiak et al., other research findings suggest that trait categories occur naturally as a way people have of organizing information (Fiske & Cox, 1979; Hoffman, Mischel, & Mazze, 1981; Jeffrey & Mischel, 1979).

Personal Values of Raters. Jolly, Reynolds, & Slocum (1988) conducted a study in which they investigated the cognitive concepts used by female nurse supervisors in rating their subordinates. Their premise, based on the work of Gutman (1982), is that personal values influence a person's behavior (in this case rater's assessments of a ratee's behavior). These personal values are viewed as causal factors which actually determine how a ratee's job performance is cognitively assessed by a rater.

According to Jolly et al., raters cognitively organize performance information by judging ratee attributes (traits), assessing their consequences and determining how the attributes and their consequences affect their values. For example, if a hospital nurse gets along well with the patients and their families, the trait of friendliness would be attributed to the nurse. The consequences of this behavior would be that work progresses more efficiently in a tension-free environment (e.g., few arguments or unpleasant incidents with the patients or their families, etc.) It is expected that if the supervisor receives praise for fostering positive staff-patient relations, his or her self-esteem or feelings of worth might increase in terms of pride in being a supervisor, personal accomplishment, pride in the nursing profession, etc. The researchers propose that it is the rater's increase in selfesteem (designated a value) that is cognitively stored and later recalled when a performance appraisal is completed. In other words, it is hypothesized that

the rater's personal values are more salient than ratee attributes in making performance judgments. The results of Jolly et al's. (1988) study support the hypothesis that value level cognitive categorizations produced significantly more performance rating variance than attribute or consequence level categorizations.

Rater-Ratee Similarity. Research conducted in the area of rater-ratee similarity suggests that more positive performance ratings are given by raters when they share similar values and attitudes with ratees (Miles, 1964; Pulakos & Wexley, 1982; Senger, 1971). Turban and Jones (1988) looked at rater-ratee similarity in relation to overall performance, job and organizational satisfaction and recommendations for a merit pay raise. Nurses, physical and occupational therapists, and clerks employed at a rehabilitation center served as subjects. The three types of similarity investigated were:

1. perceived similarity (similarity in outlook, values and work habits);
2. perceptual congruence (similarity of perceptions about what behaviors are necessary to earn a merit pay increase); and
3. demographic similarity (similarity of race, educational level, department tenure, and age).

The research findings reported by Turban and Jones (1988) showed that raters' perceptions of similarity to ratees were significantly correlated with both performance ratings and pay decisions. Regarding demographic similarity, measures of race, educational level, tenure and age predicted performance ratings but not pay decisions. In a regression analysis conducted by the researchers, it was found that demographic similarity significantly contributed to explained variance in the performance ratings above and

beyond perceived similarity alone. Perceptual congruence was not significantly correlated with pay decisions.

Rating accuracy was not evaluated in the Turban and Jones (1988) study. Therefore, the most that can be said is that the greater the supervisor's perceptions of similarity to the subordinate, the more positive the performance ratings. An alternative hypothesis is that employees who were viewed as more similar to the raters actually did perform at a higher level. The researchers did suggest that the higher performance ratings in the study may not reflect bias but rather that ratees experience less role ambiguity and more selfconfidence which leads to better job performance and, hence, more positive performance ratings. Although this explanation may have merit, more research is needed to explore this issue.

One finding in particular from this study may beneficially direct future research efforts on performance appraisal issues. Some evidence was presented that individual differences among raters may exist in relation to sensitivity to "similar-to-me" affects. Correlations between perceived similarity of raters to their subordinates and performance ratings ranged from .94 to -.87 (p. <.10). Even though this is not a statistically significant finding, Turban and Jones (1988) assert that "such variation suggests a strong possibility of individual differences in reactions to similarity" (p. 231). One possible explanation for this finding is that supervisors in different occupational groupings react differently to perceptions of similarity when it comes to rating performance. For example, subjects in this study worked in three different occupations (nursing, physical and occupational therapy, and clerical work). If Holland's (1985) theory of vocational personalities is valid, then perhaps people with different personality typologies (e.g., social, investigative, or conventional) might perceive similarity in different or

unique ways. Another factor might be the degree to which a rater experiences negative affectivity. Further research is needed to clarify this issue.

Preconceived Notions. According to DiNisi et al. (1984), preconceived notions may be the product of general expectations or stereotypes, information given to the rater about the target person to be rated, previous personal interactions with the ratee, or prior performance appraisals. Research in this area has provided some interesting findings such as that preconceived notions are relied upon by people when novel or unanticipated information is presented that threatens an individual's perception of control over the situation (Swann, Stephenson, & Pittman, 1981; Wong & Weiner, 1981). Snyder (1981) and Synder and Cantor (1979) have found that neutral or disconfirming expectations tend to be ignored. Rather, people appear to seek information that confirms their preconceived notions. Other research supports the view that raters try to gather information that helps them to categorize ratees along general dimensions such as "competent" or "incompetent" (Trope & Bassok, 1982).

Research conducted by Hamilton and Huffman (1971) suggests that raters pay more attention to negative information when making rating decisions. The search for and reliance upon negative information may be a strategy raters use to reduce uncertainty. According to DeNisi et al. (1984), people may test their favorable impressions of someone else by trying to find some occurrences of negative behavior.

Another consideration is that, to some extent, personality factors may explain rating outcomes. For example, raters who experience high levels of negative affectivity may seek different types of information and/or process the information differently than raters who experience high levels of positive

affectivity. For example, raters with high levels of negative affectivity might have a preconceived notion that an enthusiastic subordinate is naive and perhaps somewhat unrealistic about organizational life whereas raters with high levels of positive affectivity might have a preconceived notion that an enthusiastic subordinate is optimistic, hopeful and a shaper of events. Regardless of the way the search for information is conducted, though, it is bound to have a discernable impact on the types of information sought and behaviors observed by a rater.

Other Personality Variables. Personality variables have not received adequate research attention and it is expected that they might influence rating behavior. A few research findings, though, have been reported regarding self-confidence, anxiety, and psychological distance. According to Mandell (1956), people with self-confidence tend to give more lenient ratings than people who are low in self-confidence. Raters who experience high levels of anxiety seem to use more extreme categories on performance rating scales than raters who are not anxiety prone (Lewis & Taylor, 1955). Also, performance ratings tend to be more negative as the psychological distance between rater and ratee increases (Rothaus, Morton, & Hanson, 1965).

Experimental Control Issues in Performance Appraisal Research

In designing performance appraisal research, it is extremely important to consider the various factors that need to be experimentally controlled in order to avoid confounding the research results.

Gender Issues. Performance appraisal research on gender issues has concentrated mainly on gender-role stereotypes and job and skill level (Klores, 1966; Myers, 1965; and Svetlik, Prien, & Barrett, 1964). It has been reported (Rose, 1978; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973) that the gender of a ratee in interaction with the gender role stereotype of the job can lead to rating

inaccuracies. For example, traditionally nursing has been considered a feminine profession and engineering a masculine profession. When a male nurse receives a performance rating, it could be less favorable than that of a female nurse although both people are performing at similar and satisfactory levels on the job. Again, this issue may be viewed in terms of person-environment fit. The male nurse does not fit into the predominantly female work environment. As a result, a male nurse may receive a more negative performance appraisal rating and be overlooked for promotions, merit salary increases, etc. It is important, therefore, to keep gender/job stereotype issues in mind when designing performance appraisal research.

Constraints on the Rater. Landy and Farr (1983) define the purpose for rating in terms of the "motivation to rate" and place the rater in the role of decision maker and strategist. This means that a rater may want to determine how a performance appraisal will affect the ratee and the organization. Also, raters may consider what undesired consequences (or what Landy and Farr call "unwanted backlash") will result from their ratings. DiNisi et al. (1984) propose that raters may modify their ratings because of the potentially negative impact that a poor performance evaluation may have on an employee. Disappointments in terms of missed promotional opportunities, lost wage increases, and lessened self-esteem may influence a rater not to give poor ratings.

Although these issues have not received adequate experimental attention, it is well to keep them in mind when designing performance appraisal research.

The Purpose of the Performance Appraisal. DiNisi et al. (1984) raise another issue that deserves attention: the purpose for which the performance appraisal is conducted (e.g., counseling and employee

development, merit salary increases, promotions, transfers, demotions, etc.). Research findings support the notion that raters may give less favorable ratings when the purpose of the rating is for counseling rather than administrative purposes (McCall & DeVries, 1976; McGregor, 1957; Meyer, Kay, & French, 1965). As DiNisi et al. (1984) point out, there is an untested assumption that a rater's willingness to give less favorable ratings means that the performance appraisal is more accurate.

Landy & Farr (1983) also cite studies in which performance ratings for administrative purposes were found to be more lenient than those for research purposes (Borrensen, 1967; Centra, 1975; Heron, 1956; Taylor & Wherry, 1951). However, Hollander (1957, 1965) reports that he found no differences in terms of reliability or validity when comparing performance ratings completed for research versus administrative purposes.

Time Pressures and Distractions. In general, time pressures and distractions are factors that may determine what behaviors are observed. Consumer behavior research has shown that when shoppers are in a hurry or otherwise pressured and distracted, they tend to seek negative information about a product and they seek fewer pieces of information (Staelin and Payne, 1976). DiNisi et al. (1984) note that when time pressures exist, negative information may be relied upon by raters as a way of quickly evaluating an employee. Unfortunately, this method may be lead to erroneous conclusions about a ratee. Further research is needed to determine whether longterm time pressures and distractions affect the performance appraisals ratings given by raters or whether performance appraisal ratings are only affected by the time pressures and distractions the rater experiences during the rating process (e.g., the rater is getting

telephone calls from an impatient and annoyed boss that the ratings were due yesterday and the rater knows he cannot get to them until next week).

Summary

The research results presented in this chapter suggest that two major factors are involved in arriving at performance ratings:

1. the way rater's cognitively process information about ratee behaviors may be directly influenced by the rater's personality characteristics; and

2. issues a rater may take into consideration before rendering a performance rating (e.g., the impact the rating will have on the ratee, the reason for completing a performance appraisal, etc.)

The focus of this research will be on the impact that a rater's personality characteristics have on the forming of performance appraisal judgments. It is proposed that the way performance information is cognitively processed is based the personality characteristics of the rater.

CHAPTER 2

VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND WORK ENVIRONMENTS

Although there may be other rater personality characteristics that have an impact on performance appraisal outcomes, only a limited number of personality variables can be explored in the context of the present research. One variable involves vocational personality characteristics and, the other variables, the levels of negative affectivity, positive affectivity, and/or constraint experienced by the rater (discussed in Chapter 3). Although little research has been conducted in this area, Holland (1985) states that available data on vocational interests (Bodden & Klein, 1973, Winer, Haase, Glenn, Cesari, & Bodden, 1979) suggest "different personality types perceive and process information differently" (p. 85). Further research is needed on this topic to clarify the link between personality traits and performance appraisal judgments.

According to Holland (1985), vocational interest inventories such as the Strong Campbell Interest Inventory (SCII) (Campbell & Holland, 1972) or the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) (Holland, 1977) are valid measures of personality characteristics. [To avoid any confusion, it should be noted that the measurement instrument used in this research is the Strong Interest Inventory of the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks, (Hansen & Campbell, 1985), henceforth referred to as the SII]. The theory of vocational preferences developed by Holland is based on the premise that individuals in our culture may be classified according to six personality typologies: realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, or conventional. Each personality type has a unique set of talents and skills as well as characteristic ways of

selecting and processing information that is behaviorally expressed through the choice of activities and goals pursued by individuals. People are portrayed as active rather than passive architects of their lives "for they both seek and avoid environments, problems and tasks" (Holland, 1985, p.3).

Vocational Typologies

Research findings from major studies conducted by Holland and his colleagues have consistently shown that an individual's vocational interests and personality characteristics tend to be significantly and positively correlated (Holland, 1962; Holland, 1963; Holland & Nichols, 1964; Holland, 1963-64); Holland, 1964; Holland, 1968; Abe & Holland, 1965a; Abe & Holland, 1965b; Gottfredson, Holland, & Ogawa, 1982). According to research findings presented in the Vocational Preference Inventory (VPI) Manual (Holland, 1977), there is a significant relationship between the VPI and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (Guilford-Zimmerman, 1949), the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough, 1957), the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (Cattell, Eber, & Tatsuoka, 1970), and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) (Edwards, 1959).

Since much of this work represents a programmatic research effort, the results can be summarized in terms of defining the vocational typologies developed by Holland. As explained by Hansen & Campbell (1985), high scores on the General Occupational Themes described below reflect the respondents overall vocational orientation. This includes the types of people and work environments respondents might be most comfortable with as well as the types of problems and issues with which respondents might want to be involved.

Realistic (R). The individual with a realistic personality typology prefers activities that involve working with objects, tools, machines, and

animals. Competencies are developed which require manual, mechanical, agricultural, electrical, or technical skills. Often social skills and educational achievement are not emphasized. Realistic types, for example, tend to describe themselves as having mechanical and athletic abilities but lacking in human relations skills. According to Holland (1985), these individuals highly value status, money, and power.

Investigative (I). Investigative types prefer activities that require observational and creative abilities in areas such as the physical, biological, and social sciences. The development of scientific and mathematical skills are emphasized over persuasive and leadership competencies.

Artistic (A). Artistic types exhibit a definite dislike for systematic, concrete, and ordered activities. Instead, they prefer activities that are ambiguous and unsystematized which allow them to create their own art forms. These behavioral tendencies encourage the development of talents in the areas of language, art, music, drama, and writing. The artistic personality is described as expressive, independent, intuitive, and as having ability in the areas of acting, writing, and speaking.

Social (S). Individuals with a predominantly social personality prefer activities that allow them to interact with others in the role of a trainer or teacher. This type of individual emphasizes human relations abilities versus manual and technical competencies and describes himself or herself as wanting to understand, help and teach others.

Enterprising (E). The enterprising type person tends to pursue activities leading to the achievement of economic gain or organizational goals. Activities requiring observational skills or systematic efforts are not preferred (e.g., scientific abilities tend not to be developed). The enterprising person develops abilities in the areas of leadership, persuasion, and

interpersonal relations and tends to perceive himself or herself as "aggressive, popular, self-confident, sociable, possessing leadership and speaking abilities and lacking scientific ability" (Holland, 1985, p. 22).

Conventional (C). The conventional type prefers concrete, systematic activities such as clerical work (e.g., record keeping, filing, accounting, etc.) in an organizational setting and highly value business and economic achievement. They tend to perceive themselves as orderly, conventional and having clerical and numerical ability. Unstructured and ambiguous activities normally would be avoided by this personality type.

A personality profile can be developed by determining which vocational typology or typologies an individual most resembles. Each individual typology represents an ideal and usually an individual resembles more than one typology. For example, a person who scores highly on the realistic dimension may also score highly on the complementary dimension, conventional. As Holland (1985) points out, categorizing a person as a single type is generally an unrealistic and overly limiting approach to understanding the complexities of human personality characteristics. Certainly, there are more than six types of behavior that people exhibit. According to Holland, there are over 700 possible personality profile combinations (e.g., RIC, CES, AIS, etc.).

In addition to determining General Occupational Themes (GOT), the SII also assesses an individual's occupational interests. Whereas the GOT compares an individual's responses to those of people in general, occupational interests compare an individual's responses solely to those of people who are satisfied with their particular vocational choice, perform typical rather than unusual duties within the occupation, and have attained a measure of success in their occupation. In this case, success is defined in terms of

removing "the bottom 10 to 15 percent of the working population - the inadequate practitioners - from the sample" (Hansen & Campbell, 1985, p. 51). Therefore, if a respondent scores high on the occupation of chemist, (s)he shares similar interests to chemists who meet these criteria.

Secondary Concepts

There are three important secondary concepts that refine and strengthen our understanding of vocational personalities (consistency, differentiation, and accurate and clearly focused self-perceptions).

Consistency. Consistency refers to the degree to which an individual's vocational personality consists of related psychological types. As shown in Figure 1, the psychological similarity among types corresponds to the distance between any two types on the hexagon. For example, a person who strongly resembles the enterprising and social type (ES) should exhibit more predictable behaviors than an enterprising type with a secondary resemblance to an investigative type (EI). That is, enterprising types are psychologically more closely related to social types than to investigative types.

In a study conducted using college freshman, Holland (1968) found that not only were there significant differences among types (e.g., realistic versus social, etc.) but also noticeable differences within types (e.g., RIS, RIC, RIE, RIA, etc.). As expected, however, the differences between types were stronger than within types.

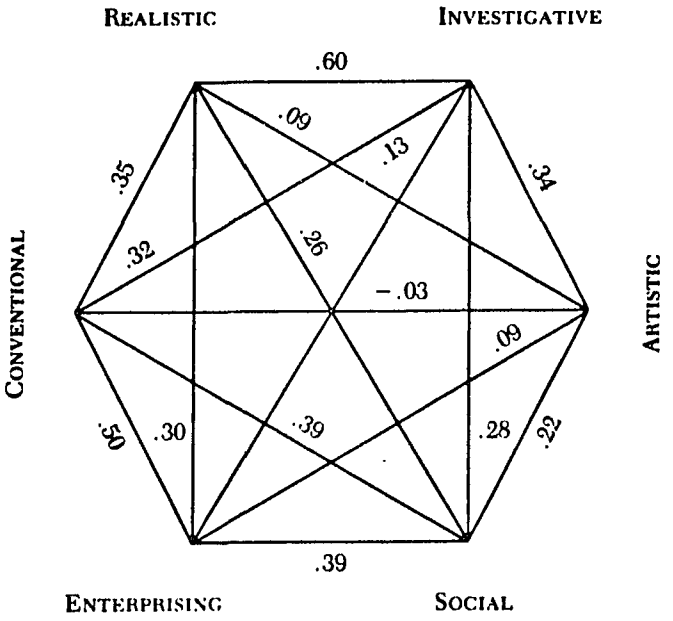

Figure 1. Intercorrelations between the General Occupational Theme (GOT) scores, arranged in hexagonal order (correlations based on 300 females and 300 males), Hansen & Campbell (1985).

The hexagon also depicts the congruence among the six psychological types and preferred work environments For example, it is logical to propose that an individual with a social typology would find a social type environment more comfortable and manageable than a realistic type environment. Table 1 shows the levels of consistency among different personality patterns.

TABLE 1
LEVELS OF CONSISTENCY AMONG VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY TYPES

Levels of Consistency	Personality Patterns
High	RI, RC, IR, IA, AI, AS, SA, SE, ES, EC, CE, CR
Middle	RA, RE, IS ,IC, AR, AE, SI, SC, EA, ER, CS, CI
Low	RS, IE, AC, SR, EI, CA

Differentiation. The concept of differentiation is used to explain why some personality types or environments are more predictable than others. Extreme examples of this would be the individual who shows a marked similarity to only one personality type (a highly differentiated profile) versus the individual who shares similarities with several personality types (an undifferentiated profile). Holland's purpose in developing the concept of differentiation was to establish what clinical psychologists or psychiatrists call a well-defined profile. The person with a highly differentiated profile has very predictable attitudes, values, and behaviors. Conversely, the person with an undifferentiated profile is unpredictable. According to Holland (1985) the undifferentiated personality would be so unpredictable "that he or she would be characterized more by unpredictability than any other trait" (p. 26). To mathematically express the concept of differentiation, Holland takes the absolute value of the difference between the highest and lowest VPI (Vocational Preference Inventory) scores. For example, if an individual received his highest VPI score on Artistic (e.g., 65) and lowest score VPI score on Social (e.g., 35), the absolute difference would be 30 points. This would

indicate a differentiated profile because there is a large difference in VPI scores reflecting an individual who has interests in some areas but not other areas (e.g., artistic endeavors versus social endeavors).

Clearly Defined Self-Perceptions and Vocational Goals. The degree to which an individual has definite and clearly focused self-perceptions and vocational goals is an estimate of that individual's identity. Combined with a differentiated vocational interest profile, a clearly formed identity presumably leads to a person having clearly defined goals and effective coping skills.

The Introversion-Extroversion Scale. On the SII, an introversion-extroversion (IE) score is calculated which reflects the degree to which each respondent prefers to working alone (i.e., with things/objects or ideas) or working with people as opposed to working alone. Most people score in the middle range (45 to 55) which indicates a preference for working with both people as well as things and ideas. High scores (55 or over) reflect more introverted people and are related to occupations such as farmers, mathematicians, and physicists. Low scores (45 or less) reflect extroverted people found in occupations such as stockbroker, auto sales dealer, public relations director, etc. This scale is included on the SII because it helps to better understand a respondents vocational profile. For example, if an individual scores high on the occupation farmer but scores low on the IE scale, a personality factor emerges that may have an effect on how satisfied the person would be with the more solitary occupation of farmer. Conversely, a high score on the occupation stockbroker and a low score on the IE scale indicates that the respondent is basically extroverted and probably feels more comfortable in situations where (s)he can regularly interact with people.

Work Environments

It is important to understand different types of work environments because they may have an impact on how a ratee is viewed by a rater. For example, although a ratee may be performing quite satisfactorily on the job, (s)he may receive a lower performance rating than is deserved due to having a somewhat different personality style than other co-workers. Conversely, a ratee who is really not a satisfactory performer may receive a higher rating than is deserved because of having a similar personality style to coworkers typically found in that particular environment. Therefore, the person-environment fit a ratee experiences in a given work environment becomes the backdrop against which the rater views the ratee.

Unfortunately, little research has been conducted using the environmental model developed by Holland and the few studies that do exist focus mainly on educational environments. Holland (1985) describes work environments in terms of the personality categories he has identified and empirically studied. Table 2 summarizes the personality traits that are rewarded (i.e., promoted and accepted) in each of the six environments. As discussed next, each environment rewards different types of behaviors.

TABLE 2
PERSONALITY TRAITS REWARDED IN DIFFERENT ENVIRONMENTS

THE REALISTIC ENVIRONMENT

Asocial	Materialistic	Self-effacing
Conforming	Natural	Inflexible
Frank	Normal	Thrifty
Genuine	Persistent	Uninsightful
Hardheaded	Practical	Uninvolved

THE INVESTIGATIVE ENVIRONMENT

Analytical	Independent	Rational
Cautious	Intellectual	Reserved
Critical	Introspective	Retiring
Complex	Pessimistic	Unassuming
Curious	Precise	Unpopular

THE ARTISTIC ENVIRONMENT

Complicated	Imaginative	Intuitive
Disorderly	Impractical	Nonconforming
Emotional	Impulsive	Original
Expressive	Independent	Sensitive
Idealistic	Introspective	Open

THE SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

Ascendant	Generous	Responsible
Cooperative	Helpful	Sociable
Empathic	Idealistic	Tactful
Patient	Kind	Understanding
Friendly	Persuasive	Warm

TABLE 2 CONTINUED
PERSONALITY TRAITS REWARDED IN DIFFERENT ENVIRONMENTS

THE ENTERPRISING ENVIRONMENT

Acquisitive	Energetic	Optimistic
Adventurous	Exhibitionism	Self-Confident
Agreeable	Excitement	Sociable
Ambitious	Seeker	Talkative
Domineering	Flirtatious	

THE CONVENTIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Careful	Inflexible	Persistent
Conforming	Inhibited	Practical
Conscientious	Methodical	Prudish
Defensive	Obedient	Thrifty
Efficient	Orderly	Unimaginative

Realistic environments tend to be traditional and pragmatic. This type of environment does not demand that employees have strong interpersonal skills and people may be quite direct in dealing with one another. In investigative environments, as one would expect, abstract and analytical skills are encouraged. Acceptable behaviors cluster around rational and analytic problem solving. Also, it is expected that people will be dealt with in subtle rather than confrontational ways. In artistic environments, emotional responses, expressiveness, and unconventional behavior are considered acceptable. Social environments, however, encourage and reward behaviors that stress friendliness, helpfulness, and cooperativeness.

Traits such as dominance, energy, and persuasiveness are rewarded in an enterprising environment. In conventional environments, however, focusing on money, position, power, and control are acceptable interests and people are rewarded for traits such as practicality and conformity. Unfortunately,

virtually no published research exists that has tested Holland's environmental model in organizational settings. The few studies that have been conducted in this area focus mostly on educational settings. If vocational personalities do have an impact on an individual's perceptions, then it is expected that these perceptions also influence work performance judgments. By applying Holland's theory of vocational personalities and work environments to performance appraisal research, problems with rating issues may be better understood and problems resolved. One other issue, however, needs to be addressed. Over and above an individual's vocational personality characteristics, dispositional factors such as negative affectivity, positive affectivity, or constraint may influence a rater's perceptions and, in turn, affect his or her performance judgments. This is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY, POSITIVE AFFECTIVITY, AND CONSTRAINT

In addition to understanding how the vocational personality characteristics of a rater influence performance appraisal ratings, the general outlook of the rater (pessimistic or optimistic) along with his or her level of self-constraint or cautiousness may have an impact on rating outcomes. Although vocational interest measures appear to capture several major facets of personality, they do not specifically address the individual's propensity toward negativity, positivity, or self-constraint. For example, an enterprising, investigative, realistic, artistic, conventional, or even a social type might be negative in outlook and it is important to determine how this affects rater behavior. Although it is possible that other personality variables influence raters' job performance assessments, the vocational personality characteristics measured by the SII and the personality dimensions captured by the MPQ provide a fairly thorough overview of the rater.

Tellegen (1982) developed the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) (Appendix I), the measures used in this study to assess the rater's level of negative affectivity (NA), positive affectivity (PA), and Constraint. (Scoring procedures for the MPQ are included in Appendix I.) NA, PA, and Constraint represent separate and distinct constructs. Specifically, comparing NA (related to stress reactions, alienation, and aggression) and PA (related to wellbeing, social potency, and achievement), a person who has a high level of NA is described differently than a person who has a low level of PA. For example, according to Tellegen (1982), people with high levels of NA typically experience anxiety, anger, and related states of

negative engagement whereas people with low levels of PA typically experience joylessness, fatigue, and loss of interest possibly reflecting depression. According to research conducted by Tellegen (1982), NA, PA, and Constraint exhibit similar convergent-discriminant patterns as those in the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) and the California Psychological Inventory (CPI). The results of the study, as presented by Tellegen, are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF HIGHER-ORDER FACTOR SCORES DERIVED FROM THE MPQ, CPI, AND EPQ

	Higher-Order Factors Across Inventories					
	College Females (N = 99)			College Males (N = 56)		
	I	II	III	I	II	III
MPQ PA	67	00	14	80	-06	27
CPI Person Orientation	80	-18	-19	81	-26	15
EPQ Extraversion	79	-08	-06	76	-16	-05
MPQ NA	-04	81	10	08	78	12
CPI Value Orientation (reversed)	-01	80	-21	-21	80	-13
EPQ Neuroticism	-40	68	05	-25	70	18
MPQ Constraint	-11	-05	74	-13	12	84
CPI Rigidity	03	32	65	26	33	72
EPQ Psychoticism (reversed)	03	-21	45	-03	-37	56

Note: Decimals omitted. Highest loading of each variable underlined.

Negative Affectivity

NA is the propensity to assess oneself and others negatively and view the world pessimistically. It is related to stress reactions (nervousness, feelings of vulnerability, guilt feelings, etc.); alienation (feeling mistreated, a victim of bad luck, etc.); and aggression. According to Watson and Clark (1984), high NA individuals tend to exaggerate and think about their mistakes, frustrations, and disappointments. However, they are thought to be more introspective and honest with themselves and they do not try to deny or avoid confronting life's sometimes unpleasant events. In general, they do not seem to value popularity and positive social relations as much as other people. However, Watson and Clark note that high NA individuals are not necessarily repressed or fearful. Commingled with their negativity, however, high NA people do have the capacity to feel joy, enthusiasm, and excitement.

It has been reported that high NA individuals tend to judge ambiguous stimuli more negatively (Goodstein, 1954; Haney, 1973; Phares, 1961) and that even in relaxed, low stress situations, they report more discomfort than other people (Costa & McCrae, 1980). In a study conducted by Brief et al. (1988), there was a significant positive correlation between high NA and perceptions of job stress. Another finding is that high NA is a stable dispositional variable. Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986) found that measures of NA taken of subjects in early adolescence were predictive of overall job satisfaction for these people later in life.

Positive Affectivity

PA is the tendency to assess oneself and others positively and view the world optimistically. It is related to wellbeing (feeling good about oneself, envisioning a bright future ahead, etc.); social potency (decisiveness,

persuasiveness, a desire to assume a leadership role, etc.); and achievement (enjoyment of hard work, demanding projects, perfectionism, etc.).

Constraint

Constraint is a "response-inhibition or self-restraint factor" (Tellegen, 1982, p. 4). It is related to control needs (caution, care, anticipating events, etc.); harm avoidance (avoiding the excitement of adventure and danger, etc.); and traditionalism (disapproves of permissiveness, values propriety, approves of strict child rearing practices, etc.). As shown in Table 4, there are distinct attitudinal and behavioral manifestations related to NA, PA, and constraint.

TABLE 4
CONTENT SUMMARIES OF NA, PA, AND CONSTRAINT VARIABLES AS DESCRIBED BY TELLEGEN (1982)

NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY	
Stress Reaction	
Description of High Scorers:	Is nervous; feels vulnerable and is sensitive; is prone to worry; is easily upset and irritable; has changing moods; can feel miserable without reason; is troubled by guilt feelings.
Description of Low Scorers:	Can put fears and worries out of his/her mind; quickly gets over upsetting emotional experiences; is not troubled by emotional turmoil or guilt feelings.
Alienation	
Description of High Scorers:	Perceives self as victim of bad luck; feels mistreated; is a target of false rumors; believes that others wish him/her harm; feels betrayed and used by "friends".
Description of Low Scorers:	Does not see self as victim; feels treated fairly; does not feel taken advantage of.
Aggression	
Description of High Scorers:	Will hurt others for own advantage: is physically aggressive; is vindictive; likes to frighten and discomfit others; likes violent scenes.
Description of Low Scorers:	Will not take advantage of others; is not violent; would rather turn the other cheek than seek revenge; does not enjoy others' misfortunes; does not like to witness physical aggression.

Summary: (1) High NA Traits: anxiety, anger, and related states of negative engagement; (2) Low NA Traits: calm and relaxation, a more phlegmatic temperament.

TABLE 4 CONTINUED
CONTENT SUMMARIES OF NA, PA, AND CONSTRAINT VARIABLES AS DESCRIBED BY TELLEGEN (1982)

POSITIVE AFFECTIVITY	
Wellbeing	
Description of High Scorers:	Has a happy, cheerful disposition; feels good about self; sees a bright future ahead; lives an exciting, active life.
Description of Scorers:	Reports few experiences of joy and Low excitement; is seldom really happy.
Social Potency	
Description of High Scorers:	Is forceful and decisive; is persuasive and likes to influence others; enjoys or would enjoy leadership roles; takes charge of and likes to be noticed at social events.
Description of Low Scorers:	Prefers others to take charge and make decisions; does not like to persuade others; does not aspire to leadership; does not enjoy being center of attention.
Achievement	
Description of High Scorers:	Works hard; likes long hours; enjoy demanding projects; persists where others give up; puts work and accomplishment before many other things; is a perfectionist.
Description of Low Scorers:	Does not like to work harder than is strictly necessary; avoids very demanding projects; sees no point in persisting when success is unlikely; is not terribly ambitious or a perfectionist.

Summary: (1) High PA Traits: joy, excitement, and vigor; (2) Low PA Traits: joylessness, fatigue, loss of interest reflecting possibly depressive disengagement.

TABLE 4 CONTINUED
CONTENT SUMMARIES OF NA, PA, AND CONSTRAINT VARIABLES AS DESCRIBED BY TELLEGEN (1982)

CONSTRAINT	
Control	
Description of High Scorers:	Is reflective; cautious, careful, plodding; is rational and sensible; likes to anticipate events; likes to plan his/her activities.
Description of Low Scorers:	Is impulsive and spontaneous; can be reckless and careless; prefers to "play things by ear".
Traditionalism	
Description of High Scorers:	Endorses high moral standards; supports religious values and institutions; condemns selfish disregard of others; deplores permissiveness; endorses strict child-rearing practices; values propriety and a good reputation.
Description of Low Scorers:	Does not belabor the importance of high morals; considers traditionalism outdated; questions established authority; sees merit in selfishness; values rebelliousness and freedom of expression; does not believe in punitive discipline; is not very prudish.
Harmavoidance	
Description of High Scorers:	Does not enjoy the excitement of adventure and danger; prefers safer activities even if they are tedious or aggravating.
Description of Low Scorer:	Goes for risky stunts and adventures; may enjoy excitement of a dangerous emergency or disaster; might expose self to possible attack or injury.

Summary: (1) High Constraint Traits: self-restrictiveness and cautiousness; (2) Low Constraint Traits: more self-indulgent and impulsive.

To summarize, it is useful to explore raters' levels of NA, PA, and constraint in relation to understanding the types of performance appraisal ratings they give (e.g., more negative or more positive) primarily for two reasons. First, the three variables appear to capture peoples' propensities to view themselves and others in ways reflect dispositional (trait rather than state) tendencies (e.g., negative, positive, or cautious). For example, it is expected that high NA raters will be more negative in their views of the ratees than other raters because high NA people have a propensity to generally experience feelings of anger, anxiety, and pessimism whereas low NA people are calmer and more phlegmatic. High PA raters are expected to assess ratees more favorably than other raters do because temperamentally they have a general propensity to experience feelings of joy, excitement, and optimism whereas low PA people appear to be more melancholy. High Constraint raters are also expected to assess ratees more negatively than other raters do because attitudinally and behaviorally they tend to be more cautious and self-restricting than other people whereas low Constraint people seem to be more spontaneous and impulsive.

Second, these three variables will provide additional information about personality factors that have an impact on performance appraisal ratings than that provided by the SII alone. That is, although the vocational personality characteristics measured by the SII will provide useful information about raters, the SII does not assess negativity or positivity. Therefore, to get as comprehensive a picture of rater's behavior as possible, it is important to include measures such as NA, PA, and Constraint.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN

The Research Problems

In the foregoing review of the literature, two issues were stressed that are highly related to this research:

1. Performance ratings represent a rater's cognitively filtered and, therefore, possibly distinctive view of a ratee's actual work performance level. According to recent social cognition research findings in the area of performance appraisal, it appears that ratings are influenced by raters' intrinsic personality theories about ratees, raters' personal values, and rater's perceptions of similarity to ratees.

2. The large body of research findings on vocational interests indicate that they are a strong measure of an individual's values, attitudes, interests, self-concepts, perceptions of the work environment, etc. In other words, vocational interests reflect an individual's personality characteristics. In relation to the performance appraisal studies presented in this literature review, the research results suggest that a measure of vocational personality may be used to advantage in explaining rating differences. In addition, the level of NA, PA, or constraint a rater experiences may have a significant impact on how a ratee is perceived above and beyond the personality characteristics reflected on a vocational interest measure. By including NA, PA, and constraint in the study, important information may be obtained that enhances our understanding of rating differences. Occasionally, however, another set of circumstances may arise. Sometimes the rater may not match the environment in which (s)he works. For example, a rater whose vocational personality characteristics are primarily realistic and who works in a social

work environment may rate subordinates differently from a rater whose vocational personality characteristics are primarily social and who works in a social environment. To date, virtually no research has been conducted that integrates theory and research on performance appraisal, vocational personalities, and work environments. Therefore, the research issues that will be addressed in this dissertation are as follows:

1. how rater's personality characteristics influence the performance appraisal judgments (s)he makes; and

2. how the environment in which the rater works influence the performance appraisal judgments (s)he makes.

Hypotheses:

1. Raters who experience high levels of NA, PA, or Constraint will give significantly different performance ratings than raters who experience low levels of these personality characteristics. Specifically, it is expected that high NA raters will give less favorable ratings than low NA raters; high PA raters will give more favorable ratings than low PA raters; and high Constraint raters will give less favorable ratings than low Constraint raters.

2. Raters who share similar vocational personality characteristics with ratees will give significantly different performance ratings to ratees than raters whose vocational personality characteristics are dissimilar to the ratees they are assessing. Specifically, it is expected that raters will give more favorable ratings to ratees who are similar to themselves than to ratees who are dissimilar to themselves.

3. Raters assessing ratees who work in an environment that is similar to the raters vocational personality characteristics will give significantly different performance appraisal ratings than raters assessing ratees who work in an environment that is dissimilar to the raters vocational

personality characteristics. Specifically, it is expected that raters will give more favorable ratings to ratees who work in an environment that is similar to the raters' vocational personality characteristics than an environment that is dissimilar to the raters' vocational personality characteristics. In other words, if the ratee is different from other people in his/her work setting (and this defines what is meant by work environment), the rater will assess the ratee less favorably than if the ratee is similar to other people in his/her work setting.

CHAPTER 5

SAMPLE, PROCEDURES, AND RESULTS

Method

Subjects

The eighty males (N=37) and females (N=43) who served as volunteer participants in the study completed a Background Information Questionnaire (Appendix II). Subjects were either enrolled in evening graduate programs at Baruch College and/or work for corporations in the New York metropolitan area. Subjects range from 22 to 68 years of age with a mean age of 33.6 years. The majority of subjects are caucasian (71.3%). However, other ethnic groups are represented in the sample: Asian (13.8%); Black (10%); Hispanic (3.8%); and Other (1.3%).

More than three-quarters of the subjects either hold a bachelor's degree (77.5%) or have also completed a graduate level degree (17.5%). At the time of the study, 56.3% of the subjects were enrolled in academic programs. A high percentage of subjects (73.8%) indicate that they were employed full-time in comparison to 15% of the subjects who respond that they were employed part-time and 8.8% of the subjects who were not employed at the time of the study. Among employed subjects, mean on-the-job tenure is 5.2 years. Although 66.3% of the employed subjects responded that they do not supervise others, almost one-quarter of the subjects (24%) state that they have supervisory responsibilities. Also, although a majority of subjects (63.8%) indicate that they have not completed performance appraisals, almost one-third of the subjects (31.8%) respond that they have formally rated the job performance of subordinates.

Most subjects (62.6%) indicate that they enjoy the business or industry in which they work and another 22.5% indicate that they find their industry satisfactory compared to 3.8% of the sample who note that they are somewhat dissatisfied with their industry. Over three-quarters of the subjects state that they are comfortable with their co-workers (76.3%) in terms of sharing similar interests, values, etc., although 11.3% of the subjects respond that they do not feel comfortable with their co-workers. Also, slightly over onehalf of the subjects (52.5%) state that they plan to be working in the same business/vocation five years from now. About one-quarter of the subjects (25.1%) indicate that they expect to be working in a different type of business/vocation whereas 10% of the subjects are not sure what they will be doing five years from now. Another 8.8% of the subjects indicate that they will be retired.

Finally, it should be noted how the eighty subjects represented the six SII vocational characteristic types: Realistic (N=4); Investigative (N=11); Artistic (N=15); Social (N=11); Enterprising (N=21); and Conventional (N=18). Therefore, a little under one-half of the subjects (48.8%) are either Enterprising or Conventional types.

Procedures

As shown in Table 5, the 2x2x2 research design consists of: (a) rater/ratee vocational personality characteristics; (b) work environment contingencies and; (c) MPQ dimensions (NA, PA, and Constraint). Personality and environmental similarity factors are withinsubject manipulations.

TABLE 5
RESEARCH DESIGN (2x2x2)

LOW NA, PA, OR CONSTRAINT (RATER)

	Matched Environment	Unmatched Environment
Rater/Ratee Personality Similar		
Rater/Ratee Personality Dissimilar		

HIGH NA, PA, OR CONSTRAINT (RATER)

	Matched Environment	Unmatched Environment
Rater/Ratee Personality Similar		
Rater/Ratee Personality Dissimilar		

Subjects (hereafter referred to as raters) completed two personality questionnaires and four performance appraisals. In addition to the Background Information Questionnaire previously discussed, the SII, Form T325 (1985), measured raters' vocational characteristics in terms of their overall personality orientation (R, I, A, S, E, C) and occupational compatibility. Tellegen's (1985) 300-item MPQ was also administered to subjects during Part I of the two-part study. Based on the computerized results of the SII provided by Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., raters were assigned to one of the six vocational General Occupational Themes

(GOT) appearing on the SII. (It should be noted that raters were not asked to complete experimental materials in class or at work. For Part I of the study, raters were asked to return the SII, MPQ and Background Information Questionnaire as soon as possible. The average turnaround time was one week. For Part II of the study, raters were asked to complete and return the four performance appraisals within a two-week period. The raters were given postage paid addressed envelopes in which to return their rating forms. The average turnaround time was two weeks.) For Part II of the study, raters received a total of four performance scenarios to assess based of his/her highest GOT score. Table 6 details how scenarios were distributed and Appendix III presents all scenarios in their entirety along with the performance appraisal rating forms raters completed.

TABLE 6
GOT DESIGNATIONS AND PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SCENARIO TYPES

GOT	*SPSE	*DPSE	*SPDE	*DPDE
R	Veterinarian	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)	Guidance Counselor Teacher	Special Education
I	Pharmacist	Professor	Buyer	Realtor
A	Librarian	Reporter	Banker	CPA
S	Special Education Teacher	Guidance Counselor	Emergency Medical Technician (EMT)	Veterinarian
E	Realtor	Buyer	Professor	Pharmacist
C	CPA	Banker	Reporter	Librarian

*SPSE: Rater and ratee share similar vocational personality characteristics. The work environment matches both raters' and ratees' vocational personality characteristics. (This scenario represents the rater's highest GOT score.)

*DPSE: Rater and ratee do not share similar vocational personality characteristics. The work environment matches both raters' and ratees' vocational personality characteristics.

*SPDE: Rater and ratee share similar vocational personality characteristics. The work environment does not match the raters' or ratees' vocational personality characteristics.

*DPDE: Rater and ratee do not share similar vocational personality characteristics. The work environment matches the ratees', but not raters' vocational personality characteristics.

A subject whose vocational personality characteristics are primarily investigative, for example, received four different scenarios: (a) one for a ratee whose vocational personality characteristics are investigative and who works in an investigative setting (a pharmacist working in a pharmacy); (b)

one for a ratee whose vocational personality characteristics are enterprising and who works in an investigative setting (a college professor who has enterprising personality characteristics); (c) one for a ratee whose vocational personality characteristics are investigative and who works in an enterprising setting (a discount department store); and (d) one for a ratee whose vocational personality characteristics are enterprising and who works in an enterprising setting (a realtor). Scenarios were counterbalanced prior to distribution to the raters to avoid a potential confound due to order of presentation of materials.

Work environments were depicted with which people are generally familiar and each scenario was carefully designed to accurately reflect conditions that are typically found in a given environment. Each scenarios was presented in the same way. After explaining the rater's supervisory position, the ratee's specific job duties were described. The job duties for each position were derived from those listed in the DICTIONARY OF OCCUPATIONAL TITLES (1977). The ratee was then described in terms of his educational background, career interests and leisure time activities.

Ratee job performance was depicted somewhat ambiguously to minimize as much as possible the tendency for raters to simply transform concrete statements made in the scenario into ratings on the appraisal form (e.g., if it were stated in a scenario that the ratee was surly with co-workers, then the rater might automatically rate the ratee less than satisfactory on interpersonal relations without having to really think about his performance). The idea was to create scenarios where raters were required not to just observe and record behavior, but think about and interpret each ratee's performance, thereby reflecting their own personalities and judgment tendencies. To eliminate the possibility of inadvertently introducing a

confounding effect, all ratees were clearly described as male (John Baker, Thomas Smith, Joe Anderson, etc.). No ratee was depicted as working in an occupation or environment that is unusual for his gender (e.g., a male midwife). The dimensions used to rate each candidate are shown in Table 7.

As shown in Appendix IV, raters were carefully instructed on how to handle the performance appraisal task. Raters were told to assume that they supervise each ratee who was depicted. In addition, raters were told that their subordinates had only just completed their first year on-the-job and that they (the raters) had not had the opportunity to closely monitor the ratee's performance. This control was introduced to make the experimental conditions seem more realistic by emphasizing that they were rating someone whom they did not know all that well rather than someone who had longer tenure (e.g., three or five years, etc.) and with whom they were more familiar. To avoid any potential confounding of the results, raters were also told that the purpose of the ratings was to help ratees develop their work skills. This was done to encourage the raters to be as frank and honest about their ratings as they could be rather than be concerned about the correctness of high-stake decisions. In other words, raters were not put in a situation where they had to make decisions about ratees' promotional opportunities or merit salary increases.

TABLE 7
PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL DIMENSIONS USED TO ASSESS RATEES

RATING DIMENSIONS	DEFINITIONS
Organizes Work Effectively (Item #1)	Effectively prioritizes work; anticipates problems.
Performs a Full Day's Work (Item #2)	Attends to assigned tasks and and responsibilities
Problem Solving (Item #3)	Ability to resolve problems through the use of reasoning skills and innovation.
Communication (Item #4)	Informs others accurately clearly, and adequately orally and in writing.
Interpersonal Relations (Item #5)	Demonstrates tact and consideration in working with co-workers, superiors the public, etc.
Motivation (Item #6)	Continually attempts to improve work improve work performance.

The dependent variables are the performance appraisal ratings given by the raters. Each rating consisted of nine items. As described above, the first six items represented specific facets of job performance (organizes work effectively; performs a full day's work; problem solving; communication skills; interpersonal relations; and motivation). These dimensions were arrived at after having studied a variety of rating dimensions discussed in the literature (Thornton & Byham, 1982) and reviewing performance appraisal materials currently used by public and private sector organizations. Raters were also asked to provide an overall rating for each ratee. A five-point rating scale (from a low of one to a high of five) was used for each of the seven rating dimensions: clearly below performance standard (1); needs to improve (2); satisfactory (3); good (4); and superior (5).

In addition, using a five-point rating scale ["dislike very much" (1); "dislike somewhat" (2); "ok/tolerable" (3); "like somewhat" (4); and "like very much" (5)], raters were asked to indicate how they would feel about the candidate if they knew him in "real life". This item was included to determine if raters made a distinction between the performance rating they gave a ratee and their personal feelings about him. The final item asked raters to describe the individual they rated using SII categories (R, I, A, S, E, C). This was a manipulation check to assess whether the raters were able to identify ratees' vocational personality characteristics. Raters were provided with a brief description of each SII type (Appendix III) so that, in case they were unfamiliar with the SII typologies, they could make a more educated judgment.

RESULTS

It should be noted that all performance appraisal mean scores referred to in the Results were derived by averaging the six performance dimensions for each scenario rated by the raters. The Overall Rating was used only as a check to determine if there were differences between the averaged ratings and the Overall Rating. As shown in Table 8, the only difference between Overall Ratings and Mean Performance Appraisal Scores is for SPDE. Although this is a statistically significant difference (p=.008), it is doubtful whether this finding is of practical significance. These performance appraisal scores are numerically so similar (2.88 vs. 2.99), however, it is unlikely that the use of one type of average score over the other would have led to substantial differences in the results of the study.

TABLE 8
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OVERALL PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL (OAR) RATINGS AND MEAN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS (AVERAGE OF THE SIX PERFORMANCE DIMENSION RATINGS): T-TESTS

MEAN PERF APPR'L SCORE/S.D. S.D.	OAR/SPSE S.D. P VALUE	OAR/DPSE S.D. P VALUE	OAR/SPDE S.D. P VALUE	OAR/DPDE P VALUE
SPSE 2.85 .887	(N = 80) 2.87 .782 p=.623	--	--	--
DPSE 3.09 .839	--	(N = 80) 3.05 .614 p=.657	--	--
SPDE 2.88 .786	--	--	(N = 80) 2.999 .678 p=.008	--
DPDE 2.833 .889	--	--	--	(N = 78) 2.86 .761 p=.592

An analysis of the data also supported the use of the average score of the six rating dimensions rather than only analyzing the data for each individual performance appraisal dimension. As shown in Table 9, Table 10, Table 11, and Table 12, the six dimensions for each of the four types of scenarios presented to the raters (SPSE, DPSE, SPDE, AND DPDE) are generally significantly and positively correlated with one another. There are a few exceptions especially among the correlations for the DPSE condition. In addition to the generally consistent finding among all four conditions, however, non-significant relationships among performance rating variables

for the DPSE condition emerged in the data analysis. For example, neither DPSE2 (performs a full day's work) and DPSE4 (communications) are significantly correlated nor are DPSE3 (problem solving) and DPSE4 (communication). It is possible that this reflects differences in the ways the scenarios were written more than any material differences in the ways the raters assessed the scenarios. Therefore, the use of the average of the six performance dimensions in analyzing the results of the study seems warranted. It should be noted, however, the results of the statistical analysis of the six individual dimensions will be presented and discussed wherever warranted.

TABLE 9
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG SPSE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL DIMENSIONS

	SPSE1	SPSE2	SPSE3	SPSE4	SPSE5	SPSE6
SPSE1	1.000					
SPSE2	.7383**	1.000				
SPSE3	.5009**	.5594**	1.000			
SPSE4	.3973**	.3683**	.5378**	1.000		
SPSE5	.1775	.0649	.3106*	.5350**	1.000	
SPSE6	.6040**	.6628**	.5914**	.4972**	.3158*	1.000

NOTE: (N = 80) 1-TAILED SIGNIFICANCE: * = .01; ** =.001

TABLE 10
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG DPSE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL DIMENSIONS

	DPSE1	DPSE2	DPSE3	DPSE4	DPSE5	DPSE6
DPSE1	1.000					
DPSE2	.5486**	1.000				
DPSE3	.5397**	.6035**	1.000			
DPSE4	.3150*	.2118	.2060	1.000		
DPSE5	.1421	.0445	.1086	.3848**	1.000	
DPSE6	.5187**	.5212**	.6827**	.3394*	.2878*	1.000

NOTE: (N = 80) 1-TAILED SIGNIFICANCE: * = .01; ** = .001

TABLE 11
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG SPDE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL DIMENSIONS

	SPDE1	SPDE2	SPDE3	SPDE4	SPDE5	SPDE6
SPDE1	1.000					
SPDE2	.6518**	1.000				
SPDE3	.4631**	.4059**	1.000			
SPDE4	.3106*	.1646	.3674**	1.000		
SPDE5	.2652*	.1871	.3656*	.4020**	1.000	
SPDE6	.4773**	.5346**	.5747**	.3812**	.3281*	1.000

NOTE: (N = 80) 1-TAILED SIGNIFICANCE: * = .01; ** =.001

TABLE 12
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG DPDE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL DIMENSIONS

	DPDE1	DPDE2	DPDE3	DPDE4	DPDE5	DPDE6
DPDE1	1.000					
DPDE2	.6712**	1.000				
DPDE3	.5254**	.4658**	1.000			
DPDE4	.3910*	.4509**	.5034**	1.000		
DPDE5	.1875	.3246*	.3588**	.5788**	1.000	
DPDE6	.3997**	.5432**	.5477**	.5769**	.5627**	1.000

NOTE: (N = 78) 1-TAILED SIGNIFICANCE: * = .01; ** = .001

An alpha coefficient was also calculated for each condition (SPSE, DPSE, SPDE, AND DPDE) to assess the internal consistency of each of the scales. The following alpha coefficients show that the six same items in each scale are homogeneous in content: SPSE (.8306); DPSE (.7666); SPDE (.7972); and DPDE (.8437).

As shown in Table 13, a correlational analysis was conducted to determine the strength of the relationships among demographic variables (age, sex, and education) and personality variables (NA, PA, and Constraint as measured by the MPQ and the I/E as measured by the SII).

TABLE 13
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES (AGE, SEX, AND EDUCATION) AND PERSONALITY VARIABLES (NA, PA, CONSTRAINT, AND I/E)

VARIABLES	AGE	SEX	EDUCATION
NA	-.0928	.1309	-.0286
PA	.0628	.0552	-.0671
CONSTRAINT	.2312	.1991	-.1575
I/E	.3018*	.0819	-.2815

NOTE: (N=78) 1-TAILED SIGNIFICANCE: * = .01; ** = .001

According to the results of this analysis, there are significantly positive relationships between (a) age and I/E (the younger the raters, the more they tend to be "people" oriented; the older the raters, the more they tend to be "things and ideas" oriented); and (b) ethnicity and PA [caucasians tend to have higher PA scores than other ethnic groups (black, hispanic, asian, and other)]. It is not clear whether these two significant correlations are coincidental to the sample of raters who participated in this study or are indicative of actual trends that are present among people in general.

There is one additional issue that requires discussion before presenting the results of the study. An analysis was conducted to determine whether raters' occupational interests (as determined by scores on the SII Occupational Scale) are similar or dissimilar to the occupations depicted in the scenarios. For example, how similar are "Artistic" raters' occupational interests to the occupations presented in the scenarios (e.g., librarian, reporter, banker, and CPA)? This was achieved by determining the SII Occupational Scale score for each rater in relation to the occupations depicted in each of the performance scenarios rated by the raters. In other words, it

was determined whether an "Artistic" rater scored high on the artistic occupations of librarian and reporter and, conversely, whether the same "Artistic" rater scored low on the conventional occupations of CPA and banker. The same process was used to assess each rater who participated in the study.

As previously mentioned, the SII Occupational Scale scores compare respondents responses only to people who are satisfied with and derive enjoyment from their particular occupation. The higher the respondent's Occupational Scale score, the more likes and dislikes the respondent shares with people who enjoy their respective occupations.

On the SII report, there are seven categories used to compare the respondent to same gender people in that occupation ("very dissimilar", "dissimilar", "moderately dissimilar", "mid-range", "moderately similar", "similar", and "very similar"). The "midrange" category means that the respondent indicated that (s)he shares the same dislikes as people who are occupationally satisfied, but not their likes. Therefore, the respondent might not really enjoy the work or the people in a particular occupation. For example, a person who scores in the "mid-range" on the occupation mathematician may be similar to the mathematician in not liking to follow many rules and regulations on the job, but does not share the enthusiasm many mathematicians have for solving abstract problems. For the purpose of this study, the seven categories on the Occupation Scale were collapsed into three categories:

(a) "very dissimilar", "dissimilar", and "moderately dissimilar" are designated "dissimilar"; (b) "mid-range" is designated "moderate"; and (c) "moderately similar", "similar", and "very similar" are designated "similar".

Table 14 shows that raters were basically similar to same gender people in each of the occupations selected for the "similar" condition scenarios and dissimilar to same gender people in each of the occupations selected to represent each "dissimilar" condition scenarios. Therefore, for instance, a high percentage of Enterprising types received high Occupational Scale scores on the job, Realtor (Enterprising), and low Occupational Scale scores on the job Pharmacist (Investigative). Since the raters in this study have rather strong occupational similarities and dissimilarities in relation to the scenarios presented, it is likely that the scenarios had greater relevance for them as well as more impact.

TABLE 14
PERCENTAGES OF RATERS DESIGNATED SIMILAR, MODERATE, OR DISSIMILAR TO THE OCCUPATIONS PRESENTED IN SCENARIOS (N=80)

	SCENARIOS			
LEVEL OF OCCUPATIONAL SIMILARITY	*SPSE	*DPSE	*SPDE	*DPDE
Similar	62.5%	76.3%	7.5%	5.0%
Moderate	30.0%	22.5%	20.0%	22.5%
Dissimilar	7.5%	1.3%	72.5%	72.5%

*SPSE: Job depicted in performance scenario is similar to rater's vocational personality characteristics as determined by SII Occupational Scale Scores.

*DPSE: Job depicted in performance scenario is similar to rater's vocational personality characteristics as determined by SII Occupational Scale Scores.

*SPDE: Job depicted in performance scenario is dissimilar to rater's vocational personality characteristics as determined by SII Occupational Scale Scores.

*DPDE: Job depicted in performance scenario is dissimilar to rater's vocational personality characteristics as determined by SII Occupational Scale Scores.

Hypothesis one tests the impact of the raters' levels of NA, PA, and Constraint on performance appraisal ratings. Table 15 shows the intercorrelations of these variables. There is a significant although rather low correlation between NA and Constraint (r=.1927, p=.055). This means that raters who are high on NA (angry, aggressive) are somewhat high on Constraint (cautious, traditional). Raters who scored high on NA did not score low on PA. In other words, as one would expect from non-significant

correlation between the two variables (r=-.0.0262, p=.415), joylessness and depressive disengagement (low PA traits) are not shared by those high on NA.

TABLE 15
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG NA, PA, AND CONSTRAINT

VARIABLES	NA	PA
PA	-0.0262 (p=.415)	1.00
CONSTRAINT	0.1927 (p=.055)	0.0241 (p=.422)

Table 16 shows the intercorrelations among the personality variables NA, PA, Constraint, and I/E with the performance appraisal assessment for the SPSE, DPSE, SPSE, and DPDE scenarios. The only two significant intercorrelations are between Constraint and the SPSE ratings (r=-.3312, p=.01) and I/E and the DPDE ratings (r=.3768, p=.01). This means that the higher the raters Constraint level, the less favorably (s)he tended to rate the ratee. Also, the higher the raters I/E score ("things and ideas" versus "people" oriented), the more favorably (s)he rated the ratee.

TABLE 16
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG NA, PA, CONSTRAINT, AND I/E WITH RATER ASSESSMENTS OF SPSE, DPSE, SPDE, AND DPDE SCENARIOS

VARIABLES	NA	PA	CONSTRAINT	I/E
SPSE	-.0285	.0549	-.3312*	-.0370
DPSE	-.2230	.1616	-.1466	-.1309
SPDE	.0505	.1630	.0376	-.1667
DPDE	-.0227	.2408	.0499	.3768*

NOTE: (N = 78) 1-TAILED SIGNIFICANCE: * = .01; ** = .001

It should be noted the all MANOVAS reported in this study were calculated using a 4 x 2 repeated measure analysis of variance using the SPSS/PC MANOVA program.

In fact, the entire data analysis was completed using the SPSS/PC statistical program. ANOVAs for the variables NA, PA, Constraint, and I/E were calculated by independently comparing each dependent variable to two levels of each independent variable [e.g., SPSE by NA (Low, High); DPSE by NA (Low, High), etc.].

Low and high levels of each independent variable (NA, PA, Constraint, and I/E) were determined by calculating the numerical point at which the two groups were significantly different from one another. This procedure began with calculating the mean score for each of the above mentioned variables. Then, using a t-test, it was determined at what scores, above and below the mean, the two groups were significantly different. For example, for the variable NA, scores of less than or equal to 130.0 (designated low NA) were significantly different from scores of 140.0 or higher (designated high NA). Finally, it is important to keep in mind that raters rated four different performance scenarios (SPSE, DPSE, SPDE, and DPDE).

Using the MANOVA procedure, no overall statistically significant relationship (p=.222) emerged for the NA variable. As shown in Table 17, NA, which consists of the MPQ dimensions stress reaction, alienation, and aggression, the ANOVA results are also non-significant. NA scores for the raters who participated in this study range from 109.96 to 171.61 with a mean score of 133.793 and a standard deviation of 14.374. The mean NA score and standard deviation found in this study compares fairly favorably with those reported by Tellegen (1982). In his group with an age range of 23 to 54, the mean NA score was 129.75 with a standard deviation of 13.7. Low

scorers and high scorers on NA were categorized on the basis of a statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups. Raters were categorized as low NA if they scored less than or equal to 130.0 on this dimension. High scorers received scores of 140.0 or higher.

TABLE 17
IMPACT OF RATER'S LEVEL OF NA ON PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS

SCENARIOS	(LOW NA) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 35)	(HIGH NA) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 24)	(ANOVA) LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
SPSE	2.92	2.90	.918
DPSE	3.09	2.91	.293
SPDE	2.90	3.08	.359
DPDE	2.81	3.03	.314

As shown in Table 18, PA (a combination of wellbeing, social potency, and achievement) had a significant impact on DPDE performance appraisal ratings. However, the results of the 4 x 2 MANOVA indicate that, overall, PA only approaches statistical significance (p=.075).

TABLE 18
IMPACT OF RATER'S LEVEL OF PA ON PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS

SCENARIOS	(LOW PA) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 24)	(HIGH PA) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 25)	(ANOVA) LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
SPSE	2.86	2.95	.674
DPSE	2.92	3.11	.294
SPDE	2.83	3.10	.212
DPDE	3.20	2.67	.018

PA scores for the raters who participated in this study range from 125.36 to 179.39 with a mean score of 155.288 and a standard deviation of 11.894. The mean PA score and standard deviation found in this study compares favorably with those reported by Tellegen (1982) whose group ranged in age from 23 to 54. The mean PA score was 153.025 with a standard deviation of 12.7. Low scorers and high scorers on PA were categorized on the basis of a statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups. Raters were categorized as low PA if they scored less than or equal to 150.0 on this dimension. High scorers received scores of 160.0 or higher.

Comparing the ratings of low and high PA raters using an ANOVA statistical procedure, the only significant difference between the two groups was for the DPDE scenarios; that is, scenarios depicting a ratee whose vocational personality characteristics are different from the raters and works in a setting that is not compatible with the rater's vocational personality. This means that low PA raters were significantly more likely to rate a different SII type above average ($\bar{X}$=3.20) than high PA raters who rated

DPDE scenarios below average ($\bar{X}$=2.67). Based on the data, it appears that high PA raters are more conservative in their ratings than low PA raters when assessing people who are different from themselves. This is the exact opposite of what predicted in hypothesis one. It was expected that high PA raters would give more favorable ratings than low PA raters, regardless of whom they were rating [i.e., ratees similar to themselves (SPSE or SPDE) or ratees dissimilar to themselves (DPSE or DPDE)].

Constraint scores (a combination of traditionalism, control, and harmavoidance) for the raters who participated in this study range from 135.05 to 195.7 with a mean score of 162.818 and a standard deviation of 13.368. The mean Constraint score and standard deviation found in this study also compares favorably with those reported by Tellegen (1982). In Tellegen's group with a mean age range of 23 to 54, the mean Constraint score was 163.45 with a standard deviation of 13.25. Low scorers and high scorers on Constraint were categorized on the basis of a statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups. Raters were categorized as low Constraint if they scored less than or equal to 158.0 on this dimension. High scorers received scores of 169.0 or higher. An analysis of the Constraint data using a 4 x 2 MANOVA procedure shows that there is a significant difference (p=.021) in the way raters assessed the four scenarios. As shown in Table 19, comparing the ratings of low and high Constraint raters using an ANOVA statistical procedure, the only significant difference between the two groups was for the SPSE scenarios; that is, scenarios depicting a ratee whose vocational personality is the same as the rater and works in a setting that is compatible with the rater's vocational personality. This means that low Constraint raters were significantly more likely to rate

similar types above average ($\bar{X}$=3.25) than high Constraint raters who rated SPSE scenarios below average ($\bar{X}$=2.72).

TABLE 19
IMPACT OF LEVEL OF RATER'S CONSTRAINT ON PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS

SCENARIOS	LOW CONSTRAINT MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 25)	HIGH CONSTRAINT MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 20)	(ANOVA) LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
SPSE	3.25	2.72	.014
DPSE	3.16	2.96	.252
SPDE	3.04	3.10	.788
DPDE	2.79	2.93	.566

More research is needed to better understand why high Constraint raters are significantly more conservative with their ratings. It could mean that, when confronted with a somewhat ambiguous situation or a situation where the rater simply is not familiar with the ratee, high Constraint raters are cautious and give lower ratings. However, it also could mean that they expect more from ratees who are similar to themselves and who work in environments that are familiar to them.

Therefore, hypothesis one received partial support. It is interesting to note that raters reacted strongly to certain scenarios (i.e., DPDE for the PA variable and SPSE for the Constraint variable) but not others (DPSE and SPDE). More research, however, is needed to understand these outcomes.

Comparing similarity between rater and ratee personality, the second hypothesis predicted that vocational personality characteristics influence performance appraisal ratings. Specifically, it was predicted that raters

would assess similar type ratees more favorably than dissimilar type ratees. As shown in Table 20, a paired t-test was performed to compare the performance appraisal ratings for SPSE versus DPSE for all subjects (N=78). The results show that, in a work environment that is similar to the vocational personality characteristics of both the rater and the ratee, there is no difference between the way raters assessed ratees who are similar to themselves (the raters) or dissimilar to themselves (the raters).

TABLE 20
COMPARISON OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS BY SII VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS FOR SPSE VS. DPSE (N =78)

(SPSE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	(DPSE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
2.9573 /.800	2.9765/ .631	.877

As reflected in Table 21, however, this finding changes when only raters with differentiated SII profiles are included in the analysis (N=21). These raters have a strong preference for certain types of people and activities and a strong aversion to other types of people and activities. This analysis was conducted specifically to determine the rating consequences when a rater has a differentiated SII. It should be noted that there is a slight difference in the way that Holland calculates a differentiated profile and the way it has been calculated in this study. Holland recommends calculating the absolute difference between the highest and lowest VPI profile scores. However, in this study, differentiation is defined as the absolute difference between the rater's designated GOT typology on the SII and his or her opposite GOT typology. For example, raters with high "E" SII profiles have

an opposite profile of "I". The differentiation score is the absolute difference between the two GOT scores. According to Holland, the individual's actual VPI profile is not taken into consideration since the differentiation score is simply the absolute difference between the highest and lowest scores that appear on the profile. A decision was made to use a slightly different way to calculate the differentiation score in this study because it provides a clearer view of how the raters behave when confronted with people who are both similar and dissimilar to themselves. Holland's differentiation calculation simply provides an indication of whether an individual has a VPI profile indicating that the individuals attitudes and behaviors are generally more or less predictable. His calculation does not offer the amount of control that is achieved using the calculation used in this study. However, in comparing the two ways to calculate GOT scores, there were almost no statistical differences in the outcomes of ANOVA or t-test analyses.

TABLE 21
COMPARISON OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS BY SII VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS FOR SPSE VS. DPSE (N = 21)

(SPSE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	(DPSE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
2.746 / .810	3.333 / .615	.008

For raters with differentiated SII profiles, these results support the hypothesis that performance appraisal ratings were influenced by the raters' vocational personality characteristics. Differentiated SII profiles were defined as raters whose highest GOT score and lowest GOT score had an

absolute difference of at least 20 points. For the 80 raters who participated in the study, GOT scores ranged from zero to 39 with a mean score of 13.9.

Therefore, raters with differentiated SII profiles gave ratings that were significantly different from the ratings they gave to ratees who were dissimilar to themselves. It is interesting to note that raters gave below average ratings to similar types ($\bar{X}$=2.746) and above average ratings ($\bar{X}$=3.333) to dissimilar types. Once again, this is the opposite of what was hypothesized. It was expected that raters would assess similar type ratees significantly more favorably than dissimilar type ratees. Perhaps the raters with differentiated SII profiles expected more from the ratees depicted as similar to themselves and therefore rated them less favorably than ratees who are different from themselves. As shown in Table 22, comparing rating differences between SPDE vs. DPDE scenarios for all 80 raters, significant differences appear. When raters assessed ratees depicted as working in environments that were different from the raters vocational personality characteristics, the raters gave higher ratings ($\bar{X}$=3.0563) to similar type ratees and lower ratings ($\bar{X}$=2.772) to dissimilar type ratees. This is an interesting finding because this is really the only time in this study that raters gave significantly more favorable ratings to similar types and less favorable ratings to dissimilar types. Perhaps when the work environment is either not familiar to the raters or the work environment is one in which the raters do not feel comfortable, the raters feel more positive about ratees who are similar to themselves.

TABLE 22
COMPARISON OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS BY SII VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS FOR SPDE VS. DPDE (N = 80)

(SPDE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	(DPDE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
3.0563/ .661	2.7729 / .732	.014

The purpose of the third hypothesis was to determine whether environmental conditions have an impact on performance appraisal ratings. Personality variables (NA, PA, and Constraint) were excluded from this analysis. As shown in Table 23, the results of a paired t-test show that ratings do not vary as a function of environmental similarity when raters and ratees share similar vocational personality characteristics but the environmental conditions are different (SPSE vs. SPDE).

TABLE 23
COMPARISON OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS BY WORK ENVIRONMENT FOR SPSE VS. SPDE (N = 78)

(SPSE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	(SPDE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
2.9573/ .800	3.0342/ .651	.512

As shown in Table 24, however, there is a significant difference in the way raters assessed the DPSE vs. DPDE scenarios. Although there is really no practical difference between the two rating (2.9917 and 2.7729), it should be noted that a difference exists.

TABLE 24
COMPARISON OF PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS BY WORK ENVIRONMENT FOR DPSE VS. DPDE (N = 80)

(DPSE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	(DPDE) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE / S.D.	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
2.9917/ .632	2.7729/ .732	.019

The results of testing hypothesis three may reflect the fact that the scenarios presented in this study simply could not sufficiently simulate the complexity of "real life" work situations. Therefore, actual rating differences may not have been elicited due to the use of rather artificial stimuli rather than an absence of any real differences.

Although not hypothesized, an additional finding that emerged in the data analysis is that the introversion-extroversion (I/E) scores calculated on the SII profile served as a significant indicator of how raters assessed the performance scenarios presented to them. (I/E was measured on the SII and, therefore, had no item overlap with the MPQ which assesses NA, PA, and Constraint). However, as previously presented in Table 13, for this sample there is a significant positive correlation between age and I/E (r=.3018, p=.01). It is likely that this finding is specific to the sample used in this study (i.e., that younger raters tend to be more "people" oriented and older raters more "things and ideas" oriented). However, this finding should be investigated further in future research efforts. As explained earlier, raters who received high I/E scores (55 and over) tend to be "things and idea" oriented (designated "I") versus raters who received low I/E scores (45 and under) who tend to be "people" oriented (designated "E"). A correlation analysis of I/E with NA, PA, and Constraint shows that I/E is significantly correlated with PA (r=.5114, p=.000) but not with NA (r=.0516, p=.336) or

Constraint (r=.0587, p=.315). Therefore, the more "things and ideas" oriented the rater, the lower the rater's PA score. Conversely, the more "people" oriented the rater, the higher the rater's PA score. In practical terms, it is logical to find that high PA people (high scorers on social potency, one of the PA dimensions) would also be "people" oriented.

The results of a 4 x 2 MANOVA procedure does not indicate a significant overall relationship among the dependent variables (p=.155). Table 25 shows the results of the ANOVA analysis.

TABLE 25
IMPACT OF LEVEL OF RATER'S INTROVERSION/EXTROVERSION (I/E) ON PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS

SCENARIOS	(LOW I/E*) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 24)	(HIGH I/E*) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 26)	(ANOVA) LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
SPSE	2.76	2.82	.770
DPSE	3.13	2.97	.330
SPDE	2.97	2.79	.355
DPDE	2.48	3.19	.001

* LOW I/E = "PEOPLE" ORIENTED RATERS
* HIGH I/E = "THINGS AND IDEAS" ORIENTED RATERS

Among the variables analyzed, only DPDE is significant (p=.001). However, as shown in Table 26, when the same data is analyzed using only raters with differentiated SII profiles, significant differences emerge with both the SPSE and DPDE performance appraisal ratings. It could be that "people" oriented raters with a differentiated SII profile are more stringent in rating similar type ratees simply because they expect more of these people.

Of course, due to the small sample size, these results should be interpreted cautiously.

TABLE 26
IMPACT OF LEVEL OF RATER'S INTROVERSION/EXTROVERSION (I/E) ON PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL RATINGS USING ONLY RATERS WITH DIFFERENTIATED SII PROFILES

SCENARIOS	(LOW I/E*) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 6)	(HIGH I/E*) MEAN PERF. APPR'L SCORE (N = 10)	(ANOVA) LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
SPSE	2.06	3.17	.005
DPSE	3.19	3.13	.845
SPDE	2.86	2.78	.836
DPDE	2.06	3.35	.000

* LOW I/E = "PEOPLE" ORIENTED RATERS
* HIGH I/E = "THINGS AND IDEAS" ORIENTED RATERS

One other important finding that was not hypothesized is that in this study the ethnicity of the rater had a significant impact on rating outcomes. This finding is quite interesting because there is only one condition in the entire study in which the ethnicity of the rater is significantly related to rating outcomes. As shown in Table 27, for the DPDE condition only, caucasian raters gave significantly (p=.034) less favorable mean performance appraisal scores (2.74) than non-caucasian raters (3.14). The results of an independent samples t-test comparing the two groups on the variable PA uncover a significant difference (p=.023) based on ethnicity: caucasians ($\bar{X}$=157.2374, S.D. 11.264) versus non-caucasians ($\bar{X}$=149.2094, S.D. 12.080).

TABLE 27
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST COMPARING THE MEAN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SCORES OF CAUCASIANS (N=53) VS. NON-CAUCASIANS (BLACKS, HISPANICS, ASIANS, AND OTHERS) (N=17) FOR DPDE

CAUCASIAN MEAN PERF APP'L SCORE / S.D.	NON-CAUCASIAN MEAN PERF APP'L SCORE / S.D.	(T-TEST) LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
2.39 / .739	3.38 / .755	.039

The results of three other findings will also be presented: (a) the correlation between how well raters personally liked ratees (item eight on the performance appraisal) and mean performance appraisal scores; (b) how accurate raters were in recognizing the SII types presented in the scenarios; and (c) a breakdown of raters' mean scores on personality variables (NA, PA, Constraint, and I/E) by each of the six SII typologies. As shown in Table 28, there is a strong positive relationship between how well raters liked ratees and the performance appraisal ratings ratees received. Likability was rated on a five-point scale: "dislike very much" (1); "dislike somewhat" (2); "ok/tolerable" (3); "like somewhat" (4); "like very much" (5). This analysis was conducted as a way of finding out if raters discriminated between their personal feelings and their formal assessments of ratees' job performance. The results indicate that performance appraisal ratings and personal feelings about the ratee were similar. If a rater gave a low performance appraisal rating, s(he) generally did not personally like the ratee; conversely, if a rater gave a high performance appraisal rating, s(he) generally personally liked the ratee.

TABLE 28
CORRELATION BETWEEN HOW WELL RATER PERSONALLY LIKED RATEE AND MEAN PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SCORE (N=80)

HOW WELL RATER LIKED RATEE		MEAN PERF APPR'L SCORE	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT	LEVEL OF SIGNIFICANCE
SPSE	vs.	SPSE	r=.5828	.000
SPDE	vs.	SPDE	r=.5957	.000
DPSE	vs.	DPSE	r=.4531	.000
DPDE	vs.	DPDE	r=.6785	.000

As a manipulation check, raters were asked to identify the SII typology of each ratee they assessed. They were provided with a brief explanation of each type (Appendix V) to give them some idea of how to proceed with the task of identifying the different SII types. Although, in actuality, each candidate assessed only two types of ratees (i.e., realistic and social, investigative and enterprising, or artistic and conventional), they were supplied with a description of all six types. As shown in Table 29, there was some variability among raters in how accurate they were in identifying the different SII vocational personality typologies. The column to the left (Ratees' SII Typology Selected by the Rater) indicates how the rater answered Item nine on the performance appraisal (e.g., How would you describe C. Metcalf?). The other two columns are tallies of how raters responded to each type of scenario. For example, "Realistic" and "Social" raters received the same four scenarios to assess. Therefore, the "Realistic" column enumerates how raters classified the realistic type scenarios and the "Social" column enumerates how raters classified the social type scenarios.

TABLE 29
NUMBER OF RATERS WHO IDENTIFIED RATEES' VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY TYPOLOGIES EITHER CORRECTLY OR INCORRECTLY

RATEE'S SII TYPOLOGY SELECTED BY RATER	NUMBER OF IDENTIFICATIONS PER SII CATEGORY SCENARIO TYPE REALISTIC	SOCIAL
Realistic	20*	4
Investigative	7	3
Artistic	1	3
Social	-	11*
Enterprising	-	5
Conventional	2	4

* Number of correct identifications per SII category.

NOTE: Each "Realistic" rater and "Social" rater rated two realistic scenarios and two social scenarios.

TABLE 29
NUMBER OF RATERS WHO IDENTIFIED RATEES' VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY TYPOLOGIES EITHER CORRECTLY OR INCORRECTLY

RATEE'S SII TYPOLOGY SELECTED BY RATER	NUMBER OF IDENTIFICATIONS PER SII CATEGORY SCENARIO TYPE INVESTIGATIVE	ENTERPRISING
Realistic	7	7
Investigative	42*	7
Artistic	3	4
Social	1	24
Enterprising	3	18*
Conventional	7	4

* Number of correct identifications per SII category.

NOTE: Each "Investigative" rater and "Enterprising" rater rated two investigative scenarios and two enterprising scenarios.

TABLE 29
NUMBER OF RATERS WHO IDENTIFIED RATEES' VOCATIONAL PERSONALITY TYPOLOGIES EITHER CORRECTLY OR INCORRECTLY

RATEE'S SII TYPOLOGY SELECTED BY RATER	NUMBER OF IDENTIFICATIONS PER SII CATEGORY SCENARIO TYPE	
	ARTISTIC	CONVENTIONAL
Realistic	2	17
Investigative	13	10
Artistic	21*	1
Social	14	1
Enterprising	10	1
Conventional	3	34*

* Number of correct identifications per SII category.

NOTE: Each "Artistic" rater and "Conventional" rater rated two investigative scenarios and two enterprising scenarios

Where the percentage of correct identifications was rather low (Enterprising, 28.13% Artistic, 33.33%; and Social, 36.67%), raters generally tended to make logical although incorrect judgments. For example, quite a few raters (N = 24 or 37.5%) thought the enterprising types were actually social types. Since some of the traits of enterprising types are shared by social types (e.g.,liking to be around people), the raters judgments are not surprising. Another example is where raters thought the artistic types were investigative (N=13, 20.6%) or social (N=14, 22.2%) types. These judgments were probably made because the scenarios did include behaviors that could be interpreted as investigative or social. For example, the librarian was described as having planned a program to introduce patrons to library resources and services (possibly interpreted as investigative behavior) and

taking time to educate patrons about the library (possibly interpreted as social behavior). The important point is that raters' assessments were basically understandable and, as a manipulation check, this shows that the raters appear to have paid careful attention to the scenarios they rated.

As shown in Table 30, it is useful to look at a breakdown of mean personality variable scores by rater's SII typology. Although no hypotheses were developed to investigate possible rating differences that exist among the six SII types (R, I, A, S, E, C), future research certainly should be conducted in this area. For instance, high "C" raters have high mean Constraint scores (high is defined as scores equal to or greater than 169.0); high "I" and high "A" raters have low mean Constraint scores (low is defined as scores equal to or less than 158.0). Therefore, it may be that high "C" raters will generally be more conservative in their ratings than other groups and, conversely, high "I" and high "A" raters may tend to be more lenient in their ratings than other groups. Also, it is important to note that these findings are in agreement with and give additional support to vocational personality theory and research developed and reported by Holland (1985), Hansen & Campbell (1985), etc. For instance, it is not surprising to find that raters with high "C" profiles also scored higher than average on Constraint. High "C" raters are defined (Holland, 1985) as being careful, conforming, and conventional which is rather similar to Tellegen's definition of high constraint individuals (traditional and cautious). High "S" raters (friendly, sociable, and ascendant) scored well above average on PA which reflects individuals who are social, achievement oriented, have a high sense of wellbeing.

TABLE 30
BREAKDOWN OF MEAN RATINGS ON PERSONALITY VARIABLES (NA, PA, CONSTRAINT, AND I/E) BY RATERS' SII TYPOLOGY

RATERS' SII TYPOLOGIES	NA MEAN S.D.	PA MEAN S.D.	CONSTRAINT MEAN S.D.	I/E MEAN S.D.
Realistic	124.970 2.109 (N=3)	156.427 11.925 (N=3)	166.503 14.204 (N=3)	64.750 2.217 (N=4)
Investigative	133.887 12.677 (N=10)	154.259 8.244 (N=10)	157.665 14.489 (N=10)	57.091 8.300 (N=11)
Artistic	134.293 15.545 (N=15)	155.759 13.790 (N=15)	156.902 14.561 (N=15)	48.467 9.288 (N=15)
Social	127.119 11.181 (N=9)	161.328 8.509 (N=9)	161.806 11.783 (N=9)	44.000 5.621 (N=11)
Enterprising	137.349 15.593 (N=18)	158.889 12.355 (N=18)	163.884 10.803 (N=18)	45.095 8.706 (N=21)
Conventional	134.731 15.598 (N=15)	147.329 10.104 (N=15)	170.760 12.444 (N=15)	56.833 7.350 (N=18)
All Groups Combined	133.793 14.374 (N=70)	155.288 11.894 (N=70)	162.818 13.368 (N=70)	50.850 9.939 (N=80)

One other issue requires discussion. According to Cohen (1990), a major problem in the interpretation of research data is that researchers generally do not consider the power of the research design to detect significant between group differences. In other words, researchers may be accepting the null hypothesis when significant differences actually exist. As Cohen states,

> "...for a two-independent-group-mean comparison with n=30 per group at the sanctified two-tailed .05 level, the probability that a medium-sized effect would be labeled as significant by the most modern methods (a t test) was only .47. Thus, is was approximately a coin flip whether one would get a significant result, even though, in reality, the effect size was meaningful" (p. 1304).

Using the computer program developed by Borenstein and Cohen (1988), a power analysis was conducted for the data in this study. A between group difference of 1.0 (i.e., the difference between 2.5, a below average performance rating, and 3.5, an above average performance rating) was selected as representing a meaningful rating difference. Using a population difference of 1.0 (a large effect size according to the power analysis program), for the variables included in this study there is between a 93%-100% chance (power) that significant between group differences will be detected.

The probabilities for the variables included in this study are: NA (100%); PA (100%); Constraint (100%); I/E (100% for low vs. high I/E raters and 93% for low vs. high I/E raters with highly focused SII profiles); caucasian vs. non-caucasians (100%); SPSE vs. DPSE (100%); SPSE vs. DPSE (99%); SPDE vs. DPDE (99%); SPDE vs. DPDE (100%); SPSE vs. SPDE (100%); and DPSE vs. DPDE (100%);

It should be noted that even using a population difference of .75 (performance appraisal mean scores of 3.25 minus performance appraisal mean scores of 2.50), the study is still adequately powered (i.e., using .80 or higher as the generally accepted standard of an adequately powered study). Therefore, it appears that the sample size used in the study is sufficient to detect meaningful between group differences.

The following is a summary of the major findings of this study:

1. Raters' levels of NA are not significantly related to any of the four performance appraisal ratings (i.e., SPSE, DPSE, SPDE, or DPDE conditions).

2. Low PA raters gave significantly (p=.018) more favorable mean performance appraisal ratings (3.20) than high PA raters (2.72) for the DPDE conditions.

3. Low Constraint raters gave significantly (p=.014) more favorable mean performance appraisal ratings (3.25) than high Constraint raters (2.72) for the SPSE condition.

4(a). Low I/E ("people" oriented) raters with differentiated SII profiles gave significantly (p=.005) less favorable mean performance appraisal ratings (2.06) than high I/E ("things and ideas" oriented) raters (3.17) for the SPSE condition.

4(b). Regardless of whether raters have differentiated SII profiles or not, low I/E ("people" oriented) raters gave significantly (p=.001) less favorable mean performance appraisal ratings (2.48) than high I/E ("things and ideas" oriented) raters (3.19) for the DPDE condition.

5. Raters with differentiated SII profiles rated SPSE scenarios significantly (p=.008) less favorably ($\bar{X}$=2.746) than DPSE scenarios ($\bar{X}$=3.333).

6. Raters rated SPDE scenarios significantly (p=.014) more favorably ($\bar{X}$=3.06) than DPDE scenarios ($\bar{X}$=2.77).

7. Caucasian raters gave significantly (p=.039) less favorable mean performance appraisal ratings (2.39) than non-caucasian (blacks, hispanics, asians, and others) raters (3.38) for the DPDE condition.

8. Environmental conditions do not appear to have a significant impact on performance appraisal ratings. For the SPSE vs. SPDE scenarios, there was no significant difference between mean performance appraisal ratings (2.96 and 3.03, respectively). For the DPSE vs. DPDE scenarios, there was a significant difference (p=.019) between mean performance appraisal ratings. However, the ratings are so close that there really is no practical difference between them (2.99 and 2.77, respectively).

CHAPTER 6
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to determine whether a rater's personality characteristics and/or the characteristics of the work environment in which the rater is embedded influence the performance appraisal judgments (s)he makes. Overall, the results of the study indicate that certain rater personality characteristics do seem to have an impact on rater judgments whereas environmental factors only marginally appear to influence rating outcomes. In relation to NA, PA, and Constraint, it is important to note that currently there is no existing body of research that links these variables to behavioral outcomes and specifically performance appraisal ratings. This is a new area of inquiry and much more research is needed to understand these constructs and how they are manifested behaviorally.

Negative Affectivity (NA)

The variable NA was included in the study because negative emotional states indicative of aggression (vindictiveness, vengefulness), alienation (viewing self as a victim of bad luck, feelings of betrayal by friends), and stress (nervousness, vulnerability, upset) were expected to have an impact on how people perceive others. NA appeared to be an important variable to include in the research since previous research findings indicated that high NA individuals tend to evaluate ambiguous stimuli more negatively than low NA individuals (Goodstein, 1954; Haney, 1973; Phares, 1961) and it is a measure of anger and mistrustfulness. Although in the present study NA was not significantly related to performance appraisal outcomes, this variable should be included in future research efforts. It could be that in a

laboratory study using written scenarios ("paper people"), the actual influence of a rater's high level of NA could not be elicited. In other words, a behavioral manifestation of high NA might become apparent in situations where the rater is more actively and emotionally involved. It is recommended that NA be included in future performance appraisal studies conducted in organizational settings including settings where raters perceive that stressful or demanding job situations exist. This would integrate the findings of Brief et al. (1988) (i.e., that high NA and perceptions of job stress are positively correlated) into performance appraisal research. Perhaps under these conditions, it would be found that a high level of NA does influence the work performance assessments of raters.

However, if NA is indeed a trait rather than a state construct as defined by Watson & Clark (1984), then there should have been a significant difference between the performance appraisal ratings of low and high NA raters. As a personality trait, it should be consistently displayed, regardless of whether the situation is depicted in a written scenario or is a "real life" situation. More research is required to determine if NA is a trait construct or if it is actually a state construct. The behavioral ramifications of NA must be better understood.

Also, it should be noted that high NA raters in this study do not share similar personality traits with low PA raters. As mentioned in the literature review, NA and PA are considered to be two separate personality dimensions with little overlap between the high end of NA and the low end of PA. The 24 high NA raters' (raters with NA scores greater than or equal to 140.0) mean PA score is 153.877, S.D. 12.494. The mean PA score for all subjects in the study is 155.288, S.D. 11.894. This is not surprising since it was shown in Table 15 that there is no correlation between NA and PA ($r=-0.0262$, $p=.415$).

What this means is that the high NA raters report that they are not in a state of depressive disengagement (joyless, fatigued, etc.) which is characteristic of low PA people. High NA raters are neither joyful nor joyless; however, they report that they feel stressed, alienated and have aggressive tendencies.

Constraint

It is interesting to note that, although the variable Constraint is somewhat positively correlated with NA (r=.1927, p=.055) and Constraint is significantly related to performance appraisal ratings, one variable is significantly related to rating outcomes whereas the other is not. For the SPSE condition in the present study, it is not surprising that a high level of Constraint was related to significantly (p=.014) lower mean performance appraisal ratings (2.72) than the mean performance appraisal ratings (3.25) given by low Constraint raters. Given that the scenarios presented to the ratees were purposely somewhat ambiguous in terms of describing the ratee, it was perhaps easier to elicit the cautious and conservative behaviors of high Constraint raters. For example, in general, high Constraint people may not give others the "benefit of the doubt" in ambiguous situations. Therefore, their assessments may be less favorable than that or low Constraint raters in similar situations. Also, raters, of course, had no prior familiarity with the ratees and this might have an impact on the high Constraint raters. In other words, the stimuli presented to the raters were probably well-suited to draw out the differences between low and high Constraint raters whereas the stimuli were not as wellsuited to draw out any existing differences between low and high NA raters. Therefore, the effect of NA might be more discernable in actual work settings. More research is needed, however, to understand the role of these variables in work performance assessments.

Regarding Constraint, it is expected that this finding would be confirmed in an organizational setting, perhaps especially where there is ambiguity about the ratee. This could mean that a new employee who is not well-known by a high Constraint rater might be at a rating disadvantage compared to another new employee performing the same tasks and working at the same performance level who is rated by a low Constraint rater. Another issue that should be explored is why low and high Constraint raters differed significantly only in their ratings of SPSE ratees. It could be that raters were able to recognize people who are similar to themselves as well as being familiar with the occupation depicted. This, in turn, could have led the raters to expect more from the ratees in terms of job performance. It appears, therefore, that high Constraint raters are either particularly cautious and conservative when rating people who are similar to themselves or possibly have greater expectations about similar types. Although not previously mentioned, it is also interesting to note that there is no significant correlation between age and level of constraint. Therefore, these findings cannot be explained in terms of people becoming more cautious and conservative as they become older. More research is needed in an organizational setting to better understand the impact of Constraint on performance appraisal outcomes.

Positive Affectivity (PA)

The effect of PA on performance appraisal ratings was somewhat different from previously discussed findings in that there was only a significant difference between low and high PA raters for the DPDE scenario (p.=.018). Low PA raters gave much higher ratings to DPDE ratees (3.20) than did high PA raters (2.67). This finding is rather difficult to interpret at this time since it is not clear why raters with personality characteristics

related to high levels of achievement, social potency, and wellbeing would rate DPDE ratees differently than other types of ratees presented to them, particularly SPSE types. It is also unclear why the means PA scores of caucasians (157.2374) in this sample are significantly higher than the mean PA scores of non-caucasians (149.2094). As previously noted, the difference in PA scores for these two groups was also reflected in differences in mean performance appraisal scores in the DPDE condition (caucasians, 2.74; non-caucasians, 3.14).

The research issues raised here focus on why the high PA raters found it logical to rate DPDE scenarios below average and, conversely, why low PA raters found it logical to rate DPDE scenarios above average. What is about DPDE people and situations that elicited this type of response? Is ethnicity an issue? Do non-caucasians in general experience lower levels of PA than caucasians? If so, it is important to understand the psychological implications of this finding.

Are non-caucasians simply less negative in their assessments of people who are dissimilar to themselves (e.g., DPDE conditions), regardless of any consideration of PA? It could be that people who have experienced what it means to be a minority (e.g., a Chinese immigrant working in a corporate setting that is mostly caucasian) are more sensitive to people who are dissimilar to others (e.g., DPDE conditions). Only more research can answer these questions.

As noted previously in the discussion on NA, it is necessary to better understand whether PA is a trait or state construct and how it affects peoples' behavior. To date, little research on this topic has been published and more research is needed on these issues.

Introversion-Extroversion (I/E)

The impact of the rater's level of I/E on performance appraisal results is another example of how raters with differentiated SII profiles assessed SPSE (p=.005) in addition to DPDE (p=.000) scenarios significantly differently. As noted in the results, I/E is significantly correlated with PA (r=-.5114, p=.000). In other words, the higher the rater's PA score, the lower the rater's I/E score or the more "people" oriented the rater. This makes sense because high PA raters are concerned with assuming leadership roles, persuading and influencing others, taking charge, being the center of attention at social gathering, etc. It is understandable, then, that high PA raters would be "people" oriented rather than "things and ideas" oriented.

The mean SPDE performance appraisal score for low I/E ("people" oriented) raters was 2.06 versus a mean SPDE performance appraisal score of 3.17 for high I/E ("things and ideas" oriented) raters. The mean DPDE performance appraisal score for low I/E ("people" oriented) raters was 2.06 versus a mean DPDE performance appraisal score of 3.35 for high I/E ("things and ideas" oriented) raters. Low I/E raters with differentiated SII profiles are much more stringent when rating ratees who are similar to themselves than are high I/E raters. Raters with a differentiated SII profile who are "people" oriented are much more demanding in terms of performance expectations than are raters with differentiated SII profiles who are "things and ideas" oriented. This is a very important finding because it means that people with differentiated SII profiles who are also "people" oriented appear to be more influenced by their own personality characteristics and, therefore, perceptions, when rating others than how a ratee is actually performing on the job. Although rating accuracy was not investigated in this study, no ratee was depicted as being so extremely below average as to deserve a mean

rating score of 2.06. Also, as with the findings related to PA, we need to determine via further research just what it is about DPDE people and situations that such produced such a large response differences. Also, due to the fact that PA and I/E are so significantly correlated, it is recommended that both variables be simultaneously studied in an organizational setting.

One other finding reported in this study is that I/E is positively correlated to age (r=.3018, p=.01). The SII literature makes no mention of the existence of this type of relationship and there is really no reason to expect that older people consistently prefer different types activities and occupations than younger people (e.g., agriculture vs. teaching; science vs. sales; writing vs. office practices, etc.). Although it is possible that this finding is specific to the sample used in this study, it should be investigated in future research efforts.

Differentiated SII Profiles

Another finding in the study that deserves further investigation is how raters with differentiated SII profiles perceive ratees. It will be recalled that when comparing performance appraisal ratings by SII vocational personality characteristics (SPSE vs. DPSE) the findings were significantly different (p=.008) for raters with differentiated profiles. The mean rating for SPSE scenarios (2.746) was significantly lower than the mean rating for DPSE scenarios (3.333). This group of raters might have expected more from the performance of ratees whom they somehow recognize as having similar vocational personality characteristics than ratees who have dissimilar in vocational personality characteristics. In terms of assessing performance, therefore, the descriptions of similar types appear to have been interpreted more negatively than for dissimilar types. Given that each scenario was carefully designed to present all ratees in a similar manner, it could be that

rater expectations and demands are a possible explanation for these rating outcomes. Perhaps people expect more from people who are similar to themselves. If this is accurate interpretation of the findings, then expectations and demands can have discernable and possibly powerful consequences for ratees regardless of their actual performance level. These results should be interpreted cautiously because the sample size for this analysis was small. It certainly would be worthwhile, however, to conduct more research on this issue.

Caucasian vs. Non-Caucasian Raters

It is interesting to note that in this study ethnicity is related to performance appraisal outcomes for the DPDE scenarios. Caucasian raters were significantly (p=.034) less favorable in their assessments (X=2.74) of DPDE ratees than non-caucasian raters (blacks, hispanics, asians, and others) (X=3.14). One reason for this finding might be that noncaucasians are not as prone as caucasians are to negatively judge people who are different from themselves because they are sensitized to the possibility of making erroneous and unfair judgments about others, particularly where the information about another person is somewhat limited and/or ambiguous and the environment in which the other person works is unfamiliar.

Another possible explanation to consider, though, is that ethnicity and PA are significantly correlated (r=-.3223, p=.01) and that caucasians have significantly (p=.023) higher mean levels of PA (157.2374) than non-caucasians (149.2094). This could mean that the sample of raters in this study is somehow skewed and these findings may not generalize to other raters in other settings. However, this finding should be investigated further to determine if, in fact, non-caucasians do generally have (a) significantly lower levels of PA than caucasians and; (b) if non-caucasians actually are

more favorable in their performance appraisal ratings than caucasians in DPDE conditions.

Raters Assessing Ratees' Work Performance in Environments Dissimilar to the Raters' Vocational Personality Characteristics

As presented in the results, the one time that raters gave significantly (p=.014) more favorable ratings to similar types (X=3.0563) rather than dissimilar types (X=2.7729) was when the ratees were depicted as working in an environmental setting that was dissimilar to the raters' vocational personality characteristics (SPDE vs. DPDE). It appears that the ratee somehow becomes more "attractive" when the rater and the ratee are placed in an environment that is dissimilar to their personality characteristics (e.g., SPDE, an artistic type rater and ratee working in an enterprising work environment). Conversely, the ratee seems to become significantly less "attractive" when the ratee matches his environment but the rater is unmatched (e.g., DPDE, an artistic type rater rating an enterprising type ratee in an enterprising work environment). Therefore, ratees may be at an rating advantage when their performance appraisal is completed by a rater who is similar to them (the ratee) but neither the rater nor the ratee are similar in personality to their work environment. Field research is definitely needed to further explore this finding.

Work Environments

In relation to work environments, raters did not really make any meaningful distinctions among ratees based on environmental factors. The mean rating for SPSE scenarios (2.9573) was quite similar to those for SPDE scenarios (3.0342). Also, although there was a significant difference (p=.019) between the mean rating for the DPSE scenarios (2.99171) and the mean rating for the DPDE scenarios (2.7729), the difference is actually very small.

The use of written scenarios may not have been the best way to study the impact of the work environment on rater behavior. It is likely that raters simply were not actively and emotionally involved in the environments depicted because they were not embedded in them on a day-to-day basis. The next logical step is to conduct research on this issue in an organizational setting. Although this study did not uncover any significant rater-environment relationships, it may have been due more to the experimental conditions to which the raters were exposed than an actual absence of a relationship. More research is certainly required in this area.

Issues in Interpreting the Research and Research Ideas

In discussing the results of this study, it has been continually noted that further research should be conducted in organizational settings. It is too great an interpretive leap to generalize these findings to what one would find in actual performance appraisal conditions. Therefore, these results must be interpreted cautiously because the study was not conducted under natural conditions. Although the scenarios were written in a way to maximize their impact in terms of "realness", there is no substitute for field research in this area.

The strength of the study is that the results support the idea that the personality of the rater does appear to influence performance appraisal rating outcomes. Also, the results were based on the assessments of a majority of raters who work full-time (73.8%, mean tenure of 5.2 years) and some of whom who are experienced with rating the performance of subordinates (31.8%). Therefore, the ethnically diverse sample was made up of people who are familiar with work situations. This lends authenticity to the results of the study. The next step is to determine whether these findings hold up in an organizational context. By necessity, this study was carefully

controlled in terms of gender issues (only male ratees were described in the scenarios); the purpose of the performance appraisal (raters were asked only to assess ratees in terms of helping them to develop their skills rather than making recommendations for rewards such as raises or promotions); constraints on the rater (a frank rater assessment was requested without any reference to concerns such as forced distribution ratings or considering undesired consequences resulting from an honest yet negative evaluation), etc. Time pressures and distractions on the rater were indirectly rather than directly addressed in the study. Most of the raters understandably wanted to expeditiously complete their participation in this rather time consuming study so they could return to their regular duties (work, school, etc.). These are all important issues that require further investigation.

Another aspect of the study that should be expanded upon in future research is to focus on the rating styles of each SII type. In the present study, rating were compartmentalized into four groupings (SPSE, DPSE, SPDE, DPDE). Future research efforts should look at each SII type (R, I, A, S, E, C) to determine if different types produce different rating outcomes. Also, this might be the most appropriate place to investigate the issue of rater accuracy. For example, does an Investigative type rater rate a similar type more accurately than does an Enterprising type rater? In conjunction with conducting more research on work environments, this may help to more fully explain rating outcomes (e.g., do different type environments make different demands on raters?). The research conducted in this study may have broader implications than just for understanding performance appraisal outcomes. For example, employee selection is often based on interview situations. This is, in essence, a rater-ratee situation and rater perceptions may very well be influenced by their (the raters) personality characteristics.

In team building efforts, it is often important to develop a highly effective working group that is composed of people with different personalities and outlooks. Who is the best group leader to productively manage a work group made up of individuals with diverse personalities? The same holds true for efforts at conflict resolution and negotiation. For example, in a negotiation situation it is not enough to know that an opponent is different from you in personality style. An appreciation of that difference and an understanding of how to deal with that difference can sometimes produce more positive results with less difficulty.

By understanding the way people perceive others, advances may be made in educating people about their own styles and, in turn, help them to better comprehend their own attitudes and behavior as well as the attitudes and behaviors of others.

APPENDICES

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION SHEET.

(1) SOCIAL SECURITY NO.: _____

(2) AGE: _____ Years (3) SEX: MALE ____ FEMALE ____

(4) ETHNICITY: WHITE ____ BLACK ____ HISPANIC ____
ASIAN ____ OTHER ____

(5) EDUCATION (INDICATE HIGHEST LEVEL ATTAINED):

HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA ____ SOME COLLEGE ____

COLLEGE GRADUATE (B.S., B.A., ETC.) ____
MAJOR: _____

GRADUATE SCHOOL (M.S., M.A., ETC.) ____
MAJOR: _____

(6) ARE YOU CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN SCHOOL NOW? YES ____ NO ____
IF YES, WHAT DEGREE DO YOU EXPECT TO EARN (MBA, M.S., M.A., ETC.)?_____ MAJOR: _____

(7) ARE YOU CURRENTLY EMPLOYED? YES ____ NO ____
(8) IF YES, DO YOU WORK FULL-TIME ____ (AT LEAST 35 HRS. PER WEEK) OR PART-TIME ____ (LESS THAN 35 HRS. PER WEEK)?

(9) TYPE OF BUSINESS: _____

(10) YOUR TITLE: _____

(11) HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED IN YOUR CURRENT JOB? _____ Yrs./Mos.

(12) DO YOU SUPERVISE OTHER EMPLOYEES? YES ____ NO ____
(13) IF YES, HOW MANY EMPLOYEES DO YOU SUPERVISE? ____

(14) HAVE YOU EVER COMPLETED A PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL IN WHICH YOU FORMALLY EVALUATED THE WORK PERFORMANCE OF A SUBORDINATE?
YES ____ NO ____
(15) IF YES, HOW MANY EMPLOYEES HAVE YOU EVALUATED? _____
(16) FOR HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN RESPONSIBLE FOR EVALUATING THE WORK PERFORMANCE OF SUBORDINATES? _____ Yrs./Mos.

(17) DO YOU ENJOY THE TYPE OF BUSINESS, INDUSTRY, ETC. IN WHICH YOU ARE CURRENTLY WORKING? (CIRCLE YOUR RESPONSE.)

1	2	3	4	5
DEFINITELY DISLIKE	DISLIKE SOMEWHAT	SATISFACTORY	LIKE SOMEWHAT	DEFINITELY LIKE

(18) DO YOU FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH YOUR CO-WORKERS (E.G., SHARE SIMILAR INTERESTS, OUTLOOK, VALUES)? YES ____ NO ____

(19) DO YOU EXPECT TO BE IN THE SAME OR SIMILAR BUSINESS/VOCATION FIVE YEARS FROM NOW? YES ____ NO ____

(20) IF NO, INDICATE THE TYPE OF BUSINESS/VOCATION YOU WANT TO BE ASSOCIATED WITH FIVE YEARS FROM NOW?_____

SCENARIO

Imagine you are a veterinarian who owns and operates a small animal medical clinic. Most of your patients are household pets. Although there is another veterinary clinic in your area, your practice has grown substantially during the ten years it has been in operation. Vets working at your clinic can be described as generally modest, practical, uncomfortable talking about themselves, and likely to maintain traditional values.

The clinic is open Monday through Friday, 10:00 an to 9:00 pm and Saturday, 9:00 am to 6:00 pm. In the event of a medical emergency, you and your veterinary staff are available when the clinic is closed. Assignments for emergency off-hour duty are rotated regularly among the doctors.

At the present time your staff consists of four full-time vets and various support staff. Three full-time assistants care for the animals who require boarding as part of their treatment process or during post-operative recovery. The assistants also help the vets in the examining rooms when required. Two full-time receptionists work at the front desk answering the telephone, scheduling appointments, preparing patient invoices, etc. You also employ three high school students on a part-time basis who help the assistants and receptionists as needed.

All the vets are expected to perform basically the same duties: (a) conduct general health examinations; (b) inoculate animals against diseases; (c) diagnose and treat animal diseases and disorders; (d) perform general surgery (e.g., spaying, neutering, stitching wounds, etc.); and (e) provide advice on the proper care and breeding of animals. You and your staff also provide referrals when an animal exhibits on-going behavioral problems or requires a medical specialist.

Michael Jordan, the newest addition to your staff, has just completed his first year as a state licensed veterinarian working in your clinic. He was unsure that he wanted to become a vet because he was always interested in refurbishing older homes. However, he accepted a scholarship to attend a veterinary medical school from which he graduated in 1988. His favorite hobbies are home remodeling projects and fishing.

Michael is often ahead of schedule so his patients ordinarily do not have to sit in the waiting room for a long time. Sometimes after seeing him, pet owners will ask one of the receptionists to review what Michael told them to do about administering medication, how often surgical dressings need to be changed, etc.

Michael recently performed emergency surgery on a dog who had lost a lot of blood and gone into shock after having been hit by a car. He was able to stabilize the dog's condition. Occasionally, when handling a frightened animal who is reacting aggressively, Michael has been known to order the animal to behave. Although the assistants have offered to help him with an animal who is difficult to handle, he generally prefers to work independently.

When he is not seeing patients, Michael usually relaxes in his examining room. However, he can often be found looking under the hood of the clinic's emergency service vehicle. You recently told him you believe he works quickly with the patients so that he can go back to tinkering with the clinic's van.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are a municipal employee who supervises Emergency Medical Technicians (EMTs). EMTs transport sick or injured people to hospitals by ambulance. The EMTs working for the city's busy Emergency Medical Services Agency generally can be described as conservative in their values, pragmatic, reserved and uneasy talking about their thoughts and feelings.

Emergency medical services must be available 24 hours a day, every day of the year and EMTs work in shifts (7:00 am to 3:00 pm; 3:00 pm to 11:00 pm; and 11:00 pm to 7:00 am). Shift assignments are rotated fairly and logically among the EMTs.

Working as a member of an emergency medical team, all the EMTs perform basically the same duties: (a) administer first aid and/or CPR treatment and transport injured or sick persons in need of further medical care to a hospital; (b) determine the nature and extent of illness, injury, or magnitude of catastrophe, to establish first aid and/or CPR procedures to be followed; (c) communicate with professional medical personnel at emergency treatment facility to obtain instructions regarding further treatment and to arrange for reception of the sick or injured at the medical facility; and (d) inform the Emergency Medical Services Agency if additional assistance is required to handle a situation.

Joe Anderson has just completed his first year as an EMT at your facility. After completing one year of college, he decided that he wanted to work for a while in a job that allowed him to help people. Upon earning his EMT certificate, he was hired by your agency. He thinks about going back to school to become a high school social science teacher. In his spare time, he likes to entertain and help with community service work.

Joe enjoys interacting with others. He will go beyond just treating people medically and/or transporting them to the hospital. When possible, he wants to get to know the people he is treating. He often chats with the family or friends of the patient after (s)he has been delivered to the hospital even if he and his partner have been assigned to other calls.

When problems arise, Joe tries to find a solution through discussions with others. He seems to enjoy guiding others. Co-workers sometimes interpret his attempts to "talk out" problems as unlikely to resolve an issue. The attitude is that things are how they are and talk probably won't change them.

EMTs require some physical strength because they are required to carry patients to and from ambulances. They also need to be good drivers. Although physically fit, Joe sometimes complains when he and his partner have to carry a heavy person on a stretcher. He also prefers to have his partner drive the ambulance. He thinks EMTs should concentrate on providing medical services rather than carrying patients and driving ambulances.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the Supervising Pharmacist in the pharmacy of a busy health maintenance organization (HMO) clinic which provides medical services in a variety of specialties (e.g., cardiology, internal medicine, neurology, obstetrics-gynecology, orthopedics, pediatrics, psychology, etc.). Generally, the pharmacists working at the clinic pharmacy can be described as independent, self-motivated, analytical, and curious.

The pharmacy is open Monday through Friday, 8:00 am to 8:00 pm and Saturday, 9:00 am to 12:00 pm. Although many of the clinic's patients do have their prescriptions filled at your pharmacy, they may use any pharmacy they prefer.

At the present time, you supervise three full-time pharmacists and two assistants. The assistants are responsible for helping customers by accepting prescriptions, placing filled prescriptions in alphabetical order for pick-up, working the cash register, making correct change, etc.

The pharmacists are expected to perform basically the same duties: (a) compound and dispense medications following prescriptions issued by physicians, dentists or other authorized medical practitioners; (b) weigh, measure, and mix drugs and other medicinal compounds, and fill bottles or capsules with correct quantity and composition of the specified preparation; (c) provide information and answer patients' questions on how to use medication, the proper storage of medication, potential drug interactions and potential adverse drug reactions; (d) properly store medicines subject to deterioration; and (e) order and maintain supply of drugs, chemicals and other pharmaceutical stock.

Andrew Balmore joined your staff one year ago after having received his B.A. degree in Pharmacology. He seriously considered becoming a Chemical Engineer before settling on pharmacology. In his leisure time, he enjoys scuba diving and designing computer programs for use on his home PC.

Andrew seems to prefer working independently. Sometimes, even when the pharmacy is busy, he spends time performing chemical analyses on medications to calculate their purity and strength. He says that he likes to double-check the quality standard statements published by the pharmaceutical companies on drugs they manufacture.

There is occasionally some discussion among the HMO administrators about the cost-effectiveness of the clinic pharmacy (there are other pharmacies that patients can use) and space in the clinic is tight. You have asked the pharmacists to think of ways to make the pharmacy more cost effective and yet a special place for patients. Andrew has suggested that pamphlets be handed out to patients describing the results of his drug purity and strength studies. He also suggested that pharmacy hours could be shortened to save on salary expenses.

The assistants occasionally ask the pharmacists to speak with a customer. At these times, Andrew wants to know exactly what the customer wants before he speaks directly with the person. He says that his time is precious and he only wants to respond to questions that cannot be answered by anyone except a pharmacist.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the Chairperson of the Mathematics department at a small four-year college. You are responsible for all professional and non-professional staff in your department. This includes five full-time professors, three part-time adjuncts who teach evening courses, and two full-time secretaries. Generally speaking, the faculty in your department can be described as being analytical, introspective, self-reliant, task-oriented, and somewhat unconventional in values and attitudes.

The college offers two six-week summer sessions in addition to the regularly scheduled fall and spring semesters. Most of the faculty works all year round because mathematics courses are popular at your college.

The professors are expected to perform basically the same duties: (a) conduct classes at the undergraduate and master's degree levels; (b) prepare and deliver lectures, compile bibliographies and specialized materials; (c) compile, administer, and grade examinations; (d) conduct research in mathematics and publish findings in professional journals; (e) perform related duties such as advising students and working with student organizations; and (f) serve on faculty committees and provide professional consulting services to government and industry.

Ralph Smith was appointed as an Assistant Professor one year ago after having received his Ph.D. Degree in Mathematics. He sometimes thinks that he should have studied finance since it would have been a more lucrative occupation. An avid skier, he often vacations in Gstaad, Switzerland during winter recess. Also known as a horse lover, he enjoys going to the race track.

Ralph teaches three courses a semester and does enough research to meet the standards for a tenure track faculty member. In response to his request, he has been assigned to teach some statistics courses. He once took students to casinos in Atlantic City to teach them about probability theory and odds making. Unfortunately, some of the students lost a fairly substantial amount of money trying to test out a gambling system they had devised. He was subsequently asked not to encourage students to make wagers.

In the classroom, Ralph is an energetic teacher who likes to debate with the students about the ways statistics can be used to hide the true facts in relation to advertising, political issues, TV ratings, etc. He doesn't lose an argument easily and he will pursue a point with the tenacity of the best prosecuting attorney. Some of the students find him a stimulating and persuasive lecturer, but others think he is overly domineering and aggressive.

In terms of testing the students, Ralph is known to give difficult exams that are sometimes based on material that was not covered in class. He rarely gives A's to students, but about 10% of the class usually receives a B+.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the Supervising Librarian at the main library of a large university who is responsible for circulating and reference materials. The typical librarian in your department can be described as independent, expressive, intuitive, emotional, and drawn to beauty and aesthetic qualities.

The library is open Monday through Friday, 7:00 am to 9:00 pm, Saturday, 9:00 am to 6:00 pm, and Sunday from 1:00 pm to 9:00 pm. The library is very busy all year long because it is open to residents of the town in which the university is located as well as to university students, faculty, staff, and alumni.

At the present time, you supervise four full-time librarians and three full-time and three part-time assistants. The assistants are responsible for checking circulating materials out and in; calculating late charges when overdue materials are returned; working the cash register and making correct change; answering routine questions from patrons; and answering the telephone.

All the librarians are expected to perform basically the same duties: (a) maintain the library's collection of circulating and reference materials; (b) help patrons locate and obtain materials kept by the library; (c) explain the use of reference sources which includes describing and/or demonstrating procedure for searching catalog files and shelf collections to obtain materials; (d) catalog, classify, and, with your approval, select and order materials; and (e) may plan and carry out special projects involving library promotion and outreach activities.

Patrick Alcott joined your staff one year ago after having received his M.S. Degree in Library Science. After earning a B.A. degree in English Literature, he was uncertain about whether he wanted to study for a Ph.D. Degree. He was concerned that he might have difficulty finding a full-time university teaching position. Patrick enjoys photography and writing short stories.

Patrick thinks that libraries should be well-stocked. Although you have reminded him that the library's budget for acquisitions has been frozen, he spends time locating unusual out of print works and preparing lists of new publications that he wants the library to acquire.

According to Patrick, people should be familiar with library resources. When he is assisting a patron, he not only answers their questions but takes the opportunity to educate them about the library in general even when there are other people waiting for help.
At the beginning of each school semester, your department offers patrons half-day introductory sessions on how to effectively use the library. When given responsibility for this special project for the Spring Semester, Patrick suggested that the program be expanded from a half-day to two days. The rationale he gave was that by showing people how to use the library, patrons would have fewer questions and this would free the librarians' time to do other work.

One day when you stopped to see Patrick, you marveled at how he managed to fill his cubicle in the time he had been working at the library. You told him that pretty soon he wouldn't be able to fit into his room because of all the papers and books he has crammed in there. He claims that part of the clutter is because he mends some material himself rather than sending them to the library's book bindery.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are a Supervising Editor at a medium size newspaper who is responsible for overseeing the reporting of metropolitan area and local news. The typical reporter at your newspaper can be described as expressive, independent, intense, and unconventional.

At the present time, you supervise a staff that consists of five full-time reporters and two secretaries. You also employ three part-time college students interns who are journalism majors. The interns perform a variety of tasks from helping to gather facts on a news story to typing copy.

All of your reporters are expected to perform basically the same duties: (a) collect and analyze facts about newsworthy events by conducting interviews, investigations, or observations; (b) write newspaper stories; (c) take notes and read publicity releases, copies of speeches, or similar materials to facilitate the organization and writing of stories; (d) receive and evaluate news tips and suggestions for future stories; and (e) monitor police and fire radio communications to obtain news-story leads.

Walter Grant joined your staff one year ago after having received his B.A. degree in Journalism with a minor in business administration. He considered becoming a credit manager for a visa and mastercard company but felt he needed more business courses. He might return to school on a part-time basis. To relax, Walter enjoys working on home improvement projects and doing some volunteer work for his favorite civic organization.

Walter believes that the accurate reporting of the news is his most important job task. His definition of "accurate reporting" sometimes differs from that of other reporters and this has led to some interesting discussions. Even though he will handle any story assigned to him, he says he is more comfortable covering a story where the facts are apparent. When a story is up for grabs, he willingly gives other reporters an opportunity to cover the stories that will probably require interpreting a variety of conflicting facts and opinions. Walter usually does not become very wrapped up with a news story.

Although the newsroom can be a hectic and noisy place, Walter does not complain too much. Given a choice, however, he prefers a quiet work setting. He is a nine-to-five worker who prefers not to work overtime.

The reporters occasionally go out for a beer after work. They like to relax by discussing the stories they are working on and the ethical and life issues that emerge in covering the news. These sessions are usually lively. Walter usually doesn't join in on these after-hour get togethers because he thinks the discussions can get too heated. For him, eight hours a day covering the news is enough.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are a Supervising Special Education Teacher at a school for the mentally retarded. The school also runs a popular summer camp for the students and is active in the Special Olympics, a competitive sports program for the mentally retarded. The Special Education Teachers at the school can be described as generally concerned for the welfare of others, cooperative, friendly, humanistic, and insightful.

At the present time, you supervise a staff of four Special Education Teachers in the "Yes I Can" program who work exclusively with mentally retarded adults who have the potential to work productively in paying jobs. A growing number of corporations are hiring graduates from your program to work for them in a variety of jobs (e.g., mail room clerks, messengers, photocopying and print shop assistants, restaurant and cafeteria workers, etc.).

The teachers in the "Yes I Can" program perform basically the same duties: (a) plan curriculum and prepare lessons and other instructional materials; (b) instruct students in areas such as reading, writing, and basic arithmetic; (c) instruct students in subjects and personal skills required to prepare them for independent maintenance and economic self-sufficiency; (d) administer ability and achievement tests and interpret results; and (e) observe, evaluate, and prepare progress reports on the students.

John Baker joined your staff one year ago after having received his Master of Education (M.Ed.) Degree in Special Education. As an undergraduate, he was a Physical Education major and had planned to become a gymnastic's coach. However, while doing volunteer work for the Special Olympics, John became interested in working with the mentally retarded. In his leisure time, John enjoys attending amateur and professional sporting events with friends.

John stresses that the students must be confident of their academic skills in order to succeed in real life situations. Known as a tough grader, some of the students think he is too demanding. The reports he prepares on the students at the end of each term reflect his interest in academic achievement. Issues such as how well a student gets along with others is usually not included in most of his progress reports.

The teachers are often asked to develop challenging and fun exercises for the students. One of the exercises John developed was to give the students a list of errands to complete that involves taking two busses. When this exercise was presented at the weekly staff meeting, some of the teachers suggested that students be sent out in pairs the first time they completed the assignment. John felt that pairing the students with one another just "waters down" the challenge of the exercise.

In group discussions, John likes to concentrate on the effective management of common situations such as buying groceries, asking a store clerk where an item is located, exchanging goods, receiving correct change, etc. When the students ask him about managing social situations (e.g., how to handle people who stare at them), he tends to remind them that they should focus on learning basic life skills that will prepare them for independent maintenance and economic self-sufficiency.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the head of the Student Guidance Services at a large high school. You are responsible for all professional and non-professional staff in your department. This includes seven full-time guidance counselors, two secretaries and one clerical assistant. Generally speaking, the Guidance Counselors can be described as sociable, understanding, cooperative, somewhat idealistic and as people who care about the well-being of others.

The high school is open both during the regular fall and spring terms and during a ten week summer session. Two Guidance Counselors and one secretary work part-time while summer school is in session.

All the Guidance Counselors perform basically the same duties: (a) assist students with course selection and class scheduling; (b) ensure that students understand graduation requirements; (c) aid students in understanding and overcoming social and emotional problems; (d) collect and organize information about individual students through records, tests, interviews, etc., to appraise their interests, aptitudes, abilities, and personality characteristics for vocational and educational planning; and (e) offer students appropriate vocational and/or college counseling.

Thomas Smith, the newest addition to your staff, has just completed his first year working as a Guidance Counselor in your high school. He was unsure that he wanted to become a Guidance Counselor because he was always interested in repairing and restoring boats. However, after earning a B.S. Degree in Education, he was given a scholarship for Master's degree studies in Secondary School Education. His favorite hobbies are camping and boating. He is currently rebuilding an older model motorboat that he bought last year.

Tom enjoys going to high school sporting events. His favorites are football and hockey. The students appreciate his attendance at their games because it boosts their morale when school personnel show an interest in their activities. Occasionally, he shows up in a shop class to teach the students how to improve their carpentry skills.

When assisting students with course selection, he lets the students choose the courses that interest them. Generally, he will give them basic information about what courses they need to complete and, for the college bound, what course averages and SAT scores the various colleges and universities require. He is also concerned that students understand what requirements they have to meet in order to graduate. Tom has been known to encourage some of the students to go into the trades (e.g., carpentry, plumbing, electrical work, etc.). Some of the students, however, think he should be more encouraging about the professions (e.g., medicine, law, teaching, etc.).

Although he understands the peer pressure that adolescents experience, he is of the opinion that keeping busy is an alternative to negative environmental influences. He believes that outdoor activities such as hiking, camping, fishing, etc. are often the best ways for young people to release all their excess energy. Occasionally, Tom has asked another Guidance Counselor to speak with a student who is having personal problems.

SCENARIO

Imagine you own a real estate firm which has been in business for the past ten years. The firm specializes in selling and leasing residential properties. Your business has grown from a two person operation to one that employs fifteen people. Business hours are from 10:00 am to 9:00 pm Monday through Thursday and from 9:00 am to 6:00 pm on Friday and Saturday. The realtors working at your company generally can be described as ambitious, aggressive, energetic, sociable and attracted to money, material possessions and positions of prominence.

At the present time, your staff includes ten real estate brokers and five secretarial and clerical support personnel. The secretaries and clerks assist the brokers by typing, filing, preparing invoices, making deposits at the bank, answering the telephone, ordering supplies, etc.

The brokers perform a variety of duties: (a) rent and sell properties for clients on a commission basis; (b) interview prospective clients and accompany them to property sites; (c) quote the purchase prices of property and discuss conditions of sale or leasing terms; (d) draw up real estate contracts such as deeds and negotiate loans on properties; and (e) review trade journals to keep informed of market conditions and property values.

Eliot Stevenson has been working at your firm as a realtor for one year. After completing an Associate's Degree in Business Administration, he earned his real estate brokers license. Sometimes, though, he talks about becoming a life insurance agent. Eliot enjoys vacationing at luxury resorts where he can play golf, swim, or downhill ski.

Eliot prefers to concentrate his efforts on selling cooperatives and condominiums. He gets quite excited when he gets to show properties to people who are prominent in the business community or to the occasional well known person who does business with his firm. He says that these clients can be fussy, demanding, indecisive and sometimes unpleasant, but he likes to meet them even if he doesn't always get the sale. Some months he may earn sizeable commissions but other months he just scrapes by financially.

Eliot receives more telephone calls than any of the other realtors. He is constantly on the telephone when he is at the office. When he has some free time, however, he can often be found telling the secretaries or the other realtors about his amusing adventures with clients or the latest joke he heard. He also enjoys debating with the staff about anything from politics to sports. You occasionally tell him he has more opinions than a Supreme Court judge.

He usually has a backlog of paperwork on his desk that needs attention. Clients sometimes have to remind Eliot about deadlines. If the matter is critical, he will ask one of the secretaries or clerks to work overtime to get the work done.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the Sales Manager of a large discount department store. The store sells a variety of goods from men's, women's and children's wear to jewelry, furniture and appliances. You are in charge of the buyers and sales personnel in three departments: small household appliances (e.g., irons, cookware, toasters, etc.); large household appliances (e.g., washers, dryers, refrigerators, stoves, dishwashers, microwave ovens, etc.); and entertainment units (e.g. televisions, stereos, radios, etc.). The buyers and salespersons working in your area can typically be described as animated, persuasive, status-conscious, talkative, sure of themselves, and enjoy the competition involved in earning commissions.

At the present time, your full-time staff consists of two buyers and twelve salespersons. Store hours are from 10:00 am to 9:00 pm Monday through Saturday and 12:00 pm to 5:00 pm on Sunday. Although your sales staff rotates work hours, the buyers work a five day week (40 hours).

The buyers perform a variety of duties: (a) purchase merchandise for resale; (b) select and order merchandise from showings of manufacturing representatives, basing selection on the nature of the clientele, demand for specific merchandise, and experience as a buyer; (c) authorize payment of invoices or return of merchandise; (d) conduct staff meetings with selling personnel to introduce new merchandise; and (e) may price items for resale.

Charles Metcalf has been working at the store as a buyer for one year. After completing a B.S. degree in Electronics Design, (Engineering), he decided to work for a while. Once he gets some money together, he thinks he might enroll in graduate school. In his spare time, Charles enjoys sailing and reading.

Charles likes to understand how appliances and electronic equipment are put together before he commits to purchasing new brands or models. Although he stocks items that are popular with the public, he encourages the sales staff to only "push" items that he considers good quality. This occasionally leads to some controversy because Charles may say that the house brand manufactured by the store does not meet his quality standards in comparison to the price being asked. Customer satisfaction with the appliances and electronic equipment sold by the store, however, has been at an all-time high for the past three years.

He will sometimes tell the sales staff that he realizes the store may not make quite as much money offering a certain product, but they will have the satisfaction of knowing that the customers have purchased something that will give them years of trouble-free use. He is opposed to buying products that may be obsolete in the not too distant future even if customers complain that an item they want is not in stock.

Some of the buyers are friendly with one another and occasionally go out for a beer after work. They like to relax by telling stories about how they handled a difficult customer, who will be named sales leader of the month, the latest things they have bought (e.g., automobile, house,) etc. Charles usually doesn't join in on these after-hour get togethers because he thinks his co-workers sometimes brag too much.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the Vice President and Manager of Corporate Accounting for a large corporation. At the present time, your staff includes eight Certified Public Accountants (CPAs) and one secretary. The typical CPA in your department can be described as comfortable working for a large corporation, conservative, orderly, practical, and interested in money and material possessions.

The accountants on your staff perform a variety of duties: (a) prepare quarterly and year end balance sheets to reflect the company's assets, liabilities, and capital; (b) prepare profit and loss statements for specified accounting periods; (c) prepare quarterly earnings' estimates; (d) prepare and file required SEC reports; and (e) oversees the preparation of the bank's Annual Report.

Jack McPherson has been working in your department for the past year. He received his B.S. in Business Administration and is currently enrolled in a part-time evening MBA program. Jack sometimes mentions that if he hadn't already taken so many undergraduate and graduate level accounting courses, he would have concentrated in taxation. In his spare time, he enjoys building scale models of ships and working on his stamp collection.

Responsible for gathering the numbers for each quarter's earning statement, he generally reports directly to your assistant. Although Jack has not developed any computer spreadsheet programs to help him with his work, he is able to use programs created by co-workers who are familiar with Lotus 1-2-3. He sometimes has to work overtime to meet reporting deadlines.

To perform his job, Jack has to ask other department to supply him with financial data. However, disregarding simple computational errors, the numbers provided to Jack are sometimes inaccurate due to a lack of understanding by employees working in other departments of how a figure should be derived. At times like this, Jack must point out the problem to these people. Now and again, this can cause tension and Jack will let people know quite clearly that he is intent on getting what he wants. Some employees think he is too hard on others.

Jack is a quiet person who does not to socialize very much with the other staff members. He is deferential with superiors, perhaps more so than some of his co-workers. In terms of running the organization, Jack says that he can understand the policy of management to avoid dealing with controversial situations.

SCENARIO

Imagine you are the Manager of a small retail bank. At the present time, you have six full-time operations officers (bankers) assisting customers. The bankers generally can be described as conscientious, pragmatic, self-controlled, traditional, and who admire people who have positions of power and leadership.

All the bankers on your staff perform basically the same duties: (a) conduct the bank's monetary programs, transactions, and monitor security measures in accordance with the banks rules and regulations; (b) sign documents approving monetary transactions; (c) ensure the safekeeping and control of assets and securities; (d) approve some loans and participate as a member of committees concerned with lending and customer-service functions; and (e) maintain financial and community business affiliations.

Frank Ellis has been working at your bank for the past twelve months. He received his B.A. degree in Spanish Language and Literature. He is currently thinking about attending graduate school on a part-time basis in the evening. For relaxation, Frank enjoys photography and attending art exhibits and musical concerts.

Frank likes to encourage the bank to be active in community affairs. Recently, he requested approval to organize a display of the paintings of local residents at the bank. As he explained it, events such as an art exhibit are good public relations for the bank. When it was mentioned to him that other organizations or community groups might want to use the bank as a place to advertise their programs or products, he indicated that he was only talking about accepting responsibility to arrange one art exhibit.

One part of the job that Frank especially enjoys is speaking Spanish with customers who are fluent in that language. He takes time with these customers to discuss various banking transactions and to chat casually with them even if the bank is busy and other customers are waiting. Usually, he only handles less complex banking transactions. When a customer's request is somewhat complicated, he will ask one of the other bankers handle it.

When reviewing loan applications, Frank tries to follow the bank's guidelines for approving these applications. However, in certain cases, he feels that the bank should be more lenient with a customer. He has a special interest in people who are trying to get started in more non-traditional occupations (e.g., performance artists, musicians, etc.). The bank takes the view that they are fairly lenient but they want to know that an applicant is credit worthy before they will lend the individual money. This has led to some interesting discussions between Frank and some of his colleagues.

EMPLOYEE'S NAME:_____TITLE:_____

1. ORGANIZES WORK EFFECTIVELY: (Effectively prioritizes work; anticipates problems.)

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

2. PERFORMS A FULL DAY'S WORK: (Attends to assigned tasks and responsibilities.)

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs to Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

3. PROBLEM SOLVING: (Ability to resolve problems through the use of reasoning skills and innovation.)

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs To Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

4. COMMUNICATION: (Informs others accurately, clearly, and adequately orally and in writing.)

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs To Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

5. INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS: (Demonstrates tact and consideration in working with co-workers, superiors, the public, etc.)

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs To Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

6. MOTIVATION: (Continually attempts to improve work performance.)

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs To Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

7. THE EMPLOYEE'S OVERALL RATING IS

Clearly Below Performance Standard	Needs To Improve	Satisfactory	Good	Superior
1	2	3	4	5

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8. If you knew _____ in "real life", how would you feel about him?

1	2	3	4	5
DISLIKE VERY MUCH	DISLIKE SOMEWHAT	OK/ TOLERABLE	LIKE SOMEWHAT	LIKE VERY MUCH

9. How would you describe _____?
(Select only one description. A brief explanation of each choice is provided on the last page of these materials.)

_____Realistic _____Investigative _____Artistic
_____Social _____Enterprising _____Conventional

SOCIAL SECURITY NO.: _____

INSTRUCTIONS TO RATERS

Attached you will find four scenarios that describe the work performance of people who are employed in different positions and settings.

Imagine that you supervise each of the employees depicted in the scenarios. Your task is to complete a performance appraisal on these employees. After you read a scenario, complete the performance appraisal for the employee who has been described. Do not wait until you have read all the scenarios to begin rating the employee's work performance. Treat each scenario as a separate case (i.e., you are a supervisor in a different setting with a different employee).

The performance appraisal form that you must complete is printed on the reverse side of the page on which the scenario appears. It is very important that you respond to all the items on the performance appraisal form. ANSWER ALL ITEMS. DO NOT LEAVE ANY BLANKS.

Assume that the following work conditions exist for each of the four performance appraisals you complete:

1. You evaluate the work performance of individual staff members at the completion of each 12 month period they have worked. All the people you are rating have just completed their first year on the job.

2. The purpose of each performance appraisal that you complete is to review the work performance of your subordinate and set goals for the coming year. Decisions regarding salary increases, promotional opportunities, transfers, etc. will be made at a later time. For the present, you want to focus solely on the development of the employees' skills.

3. You are very busy and have not had the opportunity to closely observe the work performance of the employees presented in the scenarios.

USE THE ADDRESSED POSTAGE PAID ENVELOPE PROVIDED TO RETURN THE ATTACHED MATERIALS. THE COMPLETED PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS SHOULD BE RETURNED BY MAY 15, 1990.

NOTE: TO RECEIVE THE RESULTS OF THE STRONG INTEREST INVENTORY WHICH YOU COMPLETED FOR PART I OF THE STUDY, ENCLOSE A STAMPED, SELF-ADDRESSED ENVELOPE WHEN YOU RETURN THESE MATERIALS.

THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY WILL BE AVAILABLE AS OF OCTOBER 1, 1990. IF YOU WISH TO OBTAIN A COPY OF RESULTS, PLEASE STOP BY THE MAIN OFFICE, DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY, BARUCH COLLEGE, 11TH FLOOR, ROOM 1125, 111 E. 16TH STREET, NEW YORK, NEW YORK 10013, (212) 725-3080.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE AND COOPERATION!

DESCRIPTIONS

THE FOLLOWING DESCRIPTIONS ARE PROVIDED SO THAT YOU MAY ANSWER QUESTION 9 ON THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISALS YOU ARE COMPLETING. IT IS NOT NECESSARY TO MAIL THIS SHEET TO ME WHEN YOU RETURN THE COMPLETED EXERCISE.

REALISTIC: People who prefer activities, jobs, and co-workers involving nature and the outdoors; mechanical, construction, and repair activities; and/or military activities. Interested in action rather than thought, and prefer concrete problems to ambiguous, abstract problems.

INVESTIGATIVE: People who enjoy gathering information, uncovering new facts or theories, and analyzing and interpreting data. Prefer to rely on themselves in their work rather than participating in group projects.

ARTISTIC: People who value aesthetic qualities and have a great need for self-expression.

SOCIAL: People who enjoy working in groups, sharing responsibilities, and being the center of attention. They like to solve problems through discussions of feelings and interaction with others.

ENTERPRISING: People who seek positions of leadership, power, and status. Enjoy working with other people toward organizational goals and economic success. Like to take financial and interpersonal risks and to participate in competitive activities.

CONVENTIONAL: People who work well in large organizations but prefer subordinate roles rather than leadership positions. Like activities that require attention to detail and accuracy..

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