

U A DYADIC UPWARD INFLUENCE PROCESS:
A LABORATORY INVESTIGATION OF THE
EFFECT OF A SUBORDINATE'S INGRATIATION
(PRAISE AND PERFORMANCE) ON THE SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE
EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIP

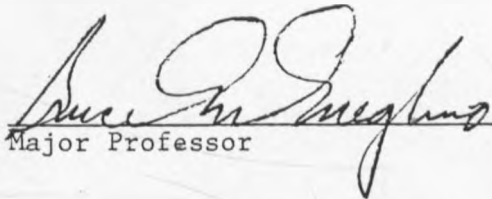
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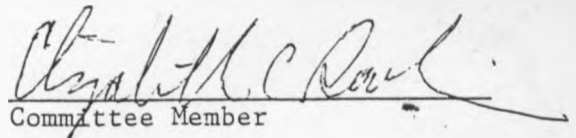
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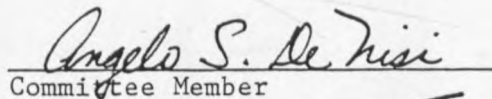
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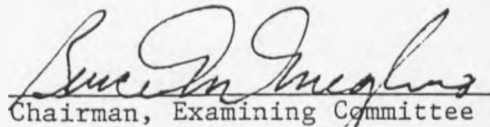
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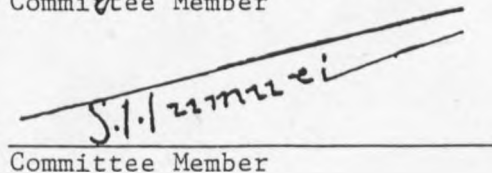
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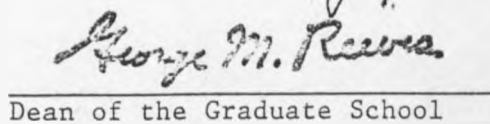

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is a product of the assistance, support and sacrifice of many individuals and institutions. Their various contributions, whether directly or indirectly, are recognized and highly appreciated.

The numerous contributions of the members of my dissertation committee are gratefully acknowledged. Throughout the entire project, they offered, collectively and individually, constructive comments and suggestions and readily provided audience whenever it was sought. Dr. Angelo DeNisi's input was invaluable. In addition to critiquing and helping refine the conceptual model that provided the foundation for this project, he willingly helped secure one of the measurement scales used in this study. Dr. Liz Ravlin's critical insights, particularly in the areas of research design and methodology, were a tremendous help. Dr. Sammy Tumuti not only provided an important outside perspective, but also offered encouragement, advice and very useful observations.

Above all, my special and heartfelt gratitude goes to Dr. Bruce Meglino, my mentor and dissertation chairman, under whose tutelage this project was conceived and given shape. In addition to making invaluable contributions to the conceptual development and the design of this project, Dr. Meglino was instrumental in the implementation of the study, particularly the development of the videotape material. His constant direction, guidance, counselling, understanding and caring

throughout the entire doctoral programme came at times when they were needed most.

Special gratitude is also extended to the United States Information Agency and the University of Nairobi (Kenya); the former for generously granting a scholarship and the latter for granting me, among other benefits, a study leave without which it would have been impossible for me to pursue doctoral studies.

Ms. Cheryl Adkins, Mr. Jacob Weber, Mr. John McClendon, and Ms. Gilda Agacer provided access to the subjects used at various stages of this study. Your help is greatly appreciated ladies and gentlemen. Thanks are also due to Joe Czajka for his useful suggestions on data analysis. All my fellow doctoral students in the departments of management and marketing must be acknowledged for camaraderie, support and encouragement.

Special recognition is also due to my family who supported me with their prayers and deeds through the long and arduous task, as they have all my life.

A special debt of gratitude is owed my wife, Connie, whose support, understanding and sacrifice made this undertaking possible. Despite several years of lonely life, Connie has persevered, and has maintained unflinching love for me in the face of tremendous hardships. By giving the inspiration when it was badly needed, and by ungrudgingly sharing in the frustrations generated by this long and arduous undertaking, Connie has contributed more than a fair share to my academic career, and to my life.

Last and not least, a word of thank you must be extended to Ms.

Peggy Clark who expertly typed the many versions and drafts of this document.

This research project is dedicated to:

1) My brother, Dr. F.A. Nyothach, for being the first person to teach me how to read and write.

2) My wife, Connie, for being such a loving, devoted, and caring wife.

ABSTRACT

A DYADIC UPWARD INFLUENCE PROCESS:
A LABORATORY INVESTIGATION OF THE
EFFECT OF A SUBORDINATE'S INGRATIATION
(PRAISE AND PERFORMANCE) ON THE SUPERVISOR-SUBORDINATE
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Peter Owoko K'Obonyo

The process of upward influence in organizational work units is poorly understood. Although the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) model of leadership was developed, in part, to address this problem, it does not specify the processes underlying dyadic role-making behaviors, i.e. behaviors that determine the status of the subordinates in terms of their relationships with their leader.

The present study sought to address this problem by providing a basis for understanding crucial and typical processes underlying dyadic upward influence behaviors. To do this, it was necessary to isolate or to identify these processes by developing an appropriate conceptual framework. Drawing from the relevant literature, a conceptual model of organizational upward influence which attempts to integrate the existing research findings, specifically the various personal and situational variables, was developed. The model attempts to capture, from a

subordinate's vantage point, some of the basic processes associated with role-making (i.e. the process by which subordinates are separated into "in-group" or "out-group" categories). The model presents praise and performance as some of the tactics of influence subordinates use to obtain desired outcomes such as pay raise from their superiors. Several hypotheses are developed from the model. The moderating roles of attributional processes as well as self-confidence and locus of control are specified.

The study was conducted in a laboratory setting. A 2 (praise) by 2 (performance) repeated measures factorial design was used to test the hypotheses with 54 male and female college student subjects. Each subject supervised four hypothetical subordinates working on a course-scheduling task.

Overall, the results of the multivariate repeated measures ANOVA supported the major propositions. The major findings were that: (1) supervisor attributions of subordinate praise to sincerity of intent had significant influence on the effects of praise and performance on the subordinate outcomes such as performance evaluations; (2) the supervisors' level of self-confidence and locus of control determined the effects of praise and performance on subordinate outcomes such as subordinate attractiveness to the supervisor; and (3) in some situations, the effects of praise and performance on subordinate outcomes such as reduction of pay depended, to a great extent, on the levels of each other, while in other situations they did not.

Among other things, the results are discussed in terms of the relative predictive power of praise and performance and the roles of

attributions and personality variables in the upward influence behaviors. Implications of the study for research and practice are presented and future research directions are suggested.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

General Overview

Leadership has been one of the most researched topics in social and behavioral science studies. For several centuries, it has engaged the minds of philosophers (e.g. Plato, 385 BC/1930), sociologists (e.g. Max Weber, 1911/1947), political scientists (e.g. Dahl, 1957), social psychologists (e.g. Selznick, 1957), and, more recently, organization behaviorists (e.g. Fiedler, 1967).

Research on leadership has invariably centered around types of leader behavior (usually called leadership styles), their determinants, and their effects on subordinate motivation, satisfaction, and performance (Barrow, 1977; Rao, 1979). Others, such as Graen and his associates (e.g. Graen and Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976), have focused upon the heterogeneity of leader behaviors and member (i.e. subordinate) reactions. What gradually emerged from these studies was the general recognition of the fact that leader behavior is a function of environmental factors as well as subordinate characteristics and behaviors.

Among the subordinate behaviors that have been investigated^d are praise and performance level and their effect on leader reward and punishment behavior (Mawhinney, 1986). Both praise and good performance (if not attributed by the leader to ulterior motive) have been shown to elicit leader's attraction toward the praiser (subordinate) (Podsakoff,

1982). To a subordinate, presentation of an attractive posture is part of the effort to increase the probability of receiving positive outcomes and/or to reduce the probability of receiving negative outcomes (Staw, 1977). These processes of upward influence are not uncommon in organizations. Graen (1976), for example, has suggested that roles are negotiated between the superior and subordinate, and that the role-making process is determined by both interpersonal attraction and bargaining.

The role-making process is the process by which an individual's role in a work unit develops as he/she interacts with the leader. These processes, according to Graen and Cashman (1975), produce dyadic (two-person) social structures, which may differ qualitatively from each other. Specifically, a dyad can either be of high or of low quality. A high quality dyad is distinguished by the superior's high degree of concern, support and consideration for the subordinate, and the subordinate's reciprocal response through extra effort that goes beyond the call of duty. A low quality dyad, on the other hand, is low on these relational variables and is marked by strict adherence to formal rules and procedures. Graen and his associates (Graen and Cashman, 1975; Dansereau, Jr., Graen, and Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976) have classified subordinates who have high quality relationship with their supervisor as "in-group" and those who have low quality relationship with their supervisor as "out-group."

As Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977) have pointed out, though ingratiation (e.g. praise) and attraction have received much attention in social psychology, systematic study of these concepts in organizational behavior has been rare--not even in studies utilizing

Graen's vertical dyad linkage (VDL) model which is based primarily on influence processes involving a leader and each of her/his subordinates. Furthermore, individual difference variables, specifically self-confidence and internal locus of control, that have been found to have an impact on an individual's degree of susceptibility to influence attempts by others have received very little attention in studies of upward influence process (see Podsakoff, 1982). Thus very little is known about ingratiation and attraction-seeking behavior processes within organizational settings. Even less is known about the moderating effects of self-confidence and locus of control on the susceptibility of superiors to influence attempts by their subordinates. The few laboratory studies that have been done (e.g. Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971; Fodor, 1973a, 1973b, 1974, 1976; and Baskett, 1973) have left many questions unanswered. The present study was inspired by the desire to address some of these questions and, in doing so, provide a framework within which to explain some of the processes that underlie leader-subordinate relations from a VDL model perspective. The rest of this chapter will be devoted to an outline of the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and an overview outlining the five chapters of the study (Introduction, Literature review, Methodology, Results, and Conclusion).

Statement of the Problem

The processes underlying role-making (i.e. quality of a dyadic relationship) have neither been adequately conceptualized nor investigated despite their being recognized as the central concept in the VDL model. It is thus not clear how and on what basis a leader

would separate subordinates into in-group and out-group categories. No attention has been paid to factors such as interpersonal attraction that are known to play a part in the dyadic influence process, nor have attraction-seeking behaviors such as praise and performance been incorporated into VDL model and research designs on which it is based. This problem is compounded further by the fact that interpersonal attraction and ingratiation, specifically praise, is itself still less understood due to lack of systematic and integrative approaches to studying them.

Though it is generally accepted that a subordinate's praise and performance level are some of the important variables affecting a supervisor's use of rewards and punishments, systematic study of the conditions governing operations of these variables have been largely neglected. It is clear, for example, that supervisors tend to allocate more rewards to those who perform well and punish those who do not (Podsakoff, 1982). It is also known that praise can compensate for poor performance and, hence, result in increase of rewards allocated by the supervisor to the poor performing subordinate who is also engaged in praise (Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971). However, an important dimension of this upward influence process that has not been incorporated in the design of the vast majority of studies in this area is the psychological processes associated with the effects of praise and performance level. In particular, it has been recognized that attributional processes play a significant role in determining a leader's use of reward and punishment (Jones and Wortman, 1973; Green and Mitchell, 1979). In terms of attributional perspective, whether a supervisor reacts to subordinate's praise or level of performance with reward or punishment

allocation is determined by the kind of motives to which he/she attributes the subordinate's praise and performance behaviors (Jones and Wortman, 1973). Yet despite this recognition of the theoretical importance of attributional processes, researchers have largely ignored it in investigating the effects of subordinate praise and performance level on the supervisors' reward and punishment allocation behaviors.

Attitude change (i.e. change in attraction/liking) is hypothesized as the immediate goal of ingratiation (i.e. praise and performance) (Jones, 1964). However, of even more significance to a student of organizational behavior is the ultimate goal of ingratiation, i.e. the effect of attraction/liking on supervisor reward and punishment behaviors, among other things. Yet most of the research on ingratiation has not moved beyond testing simple relationships such as:

1. Ingratiation → Attraction/Liking
2. Liking → Behavior (e.g. reward allocation)

independently of each other.

Only two studies, Kipnis and Vanderveer (1971) and Fodor (1974), were found which addressed conditions under which praise will or will not succeed. It was predicted in both studies that leaders would allocate more rewards to a subordinate who praised his/her supervisor, but only in a situation where the supervisor's competence was repeatedly disparaged by a member of the work crew. These predictions were based on the premise that leaders tend to see a compliant worker in a different and favorable perspective when confronted with situational stressors such as a hostile worker and that this should be even more true when the compliant worker also engages in praise. However, while both studies found a significant increase in the

supervisors' tendency to dispense rewards to compliant workers and to evaluate their performance more positively when a member of the work crew displayed a poor attitude, they produced dissimilar results for the effect of praise on the supervisors' reward and performance evaluation behaviors. While Kipnis and Vanderveer (1971) found a significant tendency across conditions for supervisors to favor a praiser over otherwise nonpraising but compliant workers, Fodor (1974) failed to replicate this finding.

Thus the process by which praise affects the supervisors' reward and punishment behavior is still unclear. One purpose of the present study, as will be explained later, was to explain when praise will produce desired results and when it will be counterproductive.

Researchers have largely manipulated praise by exposing the subjects to either praise messages or non-praise messages. No study was found which used an experimental design in which the influence attempts of the praiser were systematically manipulated from low to high. Yet without this it is difficult to know if the level of praise used is productive in terms of eliciting the outcome sought or counterproductive due to reactance it elicits from the subjects (Podsakoff, 1982). According to Jones (1964), any influence attempts that are perceived by the target of influence as manipulative or that arouse his/her suspicion are not likely to be effective. Fodor (1974) did accept that the ingratiating messages used in his study "were made ingratiating to a rather blatant degree, substantially more so than the notes used in the Kipnis and Vanderveer experiment" (p. 654). It is thus possible that reactance (Brehm, 1966) was induced in Fodor's subjects, but not in Kipnis and Vanderveer's subjects. Systematic variation of praise from low to high

may, therefore, help explain these contradictions.

Two major conclusions are apparent from the above discussion: first, it seems that very little is known about the crucial and typical processes underlying upward influence behaviors in a dyad. Second, there are still doubts and questions about the exact nature of praise and performance level. To clear these doubts and to increase our understanding of how these variables operate we need to answer questions such as:

1. What kind of subordinate behaviors are likely to affect his/her "in-group" or "out-group" status in a dyad?
2. What conditions are necessary for praise to induce attraction felt by another person toward the praiser? When is it (praise) likely to induce reactance toward the ingratiating individual?
3. What are some of the factors or processes that determine whether or not a subordinate's attraction-seeking effort will lead to a high quality of interpersonal exchange (i.e. in-group status) with his/her supervisor?
4. Are there exceptions to the general rule that a person can make himself/herself attractive to her/his supervisor by performing at a high level?
5. Are there conditions under which supervisors react negatively to a subordinate who performs remarkably well?
6. Under what circumstances, if any, does poor performance not elicit negative reactions from the supervisor?
7. Is the effect of performance level on supervisor's reward and

punishment allocation behavior dependent on praise?

Conversely, is the effect of praise on supervisor's reward and punishment behavior dependent on performance level?

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the present study was to provide a basis for understanding some processes that determine the quality of a dyadic relationship. This was done by providing a systematic examination of the effects of a subordinate's praise and performance levels on the supervisor's administration of rewards and punishments. To this end a conceptual model was constructed that located the major facets of praise and performance in a nomological framework. The objective is to ultimately be able to offer plausible answers to the questions posed in the "statement of the problem" section.

Overview of the Present Study

This study is described in five chapters. Chapter 1 is introductory and comprises a general introduction, the statement of the problem, and the purpose of the study. A review of the literature, definitions and explanations of the major variables, a model and the associated hypotheses are presented in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 covers the methodology that was used to investigate the hypotheses. Results of the study are presented in Chapter 4, and discussions of the findings, conclusions, directions for further research, and limitations of the study are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review and Model Construction

In this chapter, literature relating to upward influence in an organization is reviewed within the framework of the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model of leadership. First, material on upward influence in general is explored and the associated weaknesses pointed out. This is followed by a review of the literature specific to the VDL model and highlighting the problems connected with some of the key issues in the model. Then the effect of a subordinate's ingratiating behavior, specifically praise and performance, on the supervisor's reinforcement behavior (e.g. reward and punishment) is explored from the VDL model perspective. Finally, gaps in the present state of the art that hamper our adequate understanding of some key relevant aspects of organizational upward influence are identified. From this, a conceptual model of organizational upward influence which attempts to integrate various personal and situational variables is developed. The model attempts to capture, from a subordinate's vantage point, some of the basic processes associated with role-making (i.e. separation of subordinates into in-group and out-group categories). The chapter concludes with statements of hypotheses formulated on the basis of the relationships depicted in the model.

Upward Influence

Porter, Allen and Angle (1981) defined upward influence as "attempts to influence someone higher in the formal hierarchy of authority in the organization" (p. 123). These authors also described influence as "a process of producing behavioral or psychological (e.g. values, beliefs, attitudes) effects in a target person" (1981, p. 123). Two issues relevant to the purpose of this study can be discerned from these definitions. The first issue is that the agent of upward influence is hierarchically lower than the target of influence. The second issue relates to the fact that the influence attempt is deliberate and purposive, in the sense that it is aimed at producing some change in the target person. In this sense, when we talk of upward influence in the context of organization, we refer to the process of influence between a subordinate as the agent of influence and a leader as the target of influence. This is the sense in which the term "upward influence" is used in this study.

Although social influence processes are generally recognized as a reality of organizational life, much of the research in this area has concentrated on downward influence, involving communication from the leader to the subordinate. This stream of thought and research is reflected in some of the definitions of leadership. Katz and Kahn (1966), for example, described leadership as "a relational concept implying two terms: the influencing agent and the persons influenced. Without followers there can be no leaders." (p. 301).

Very little attention has been directed to the topic of upward influence in organizations by organizational behavior researchers. However, the treatment of leadership as a unidimensional phenomenon is

increasingly being questioned by a number of students of organizational behavior (e.g. Graen and Cashman, 1975; Mawhinney, 1986; Rao, 1979). The advocates of this new approach argue that the individual (subordinate) should not be viewed as a passive recipient of behavior-outcome contingencies, but as an entity which strives to alter these contingencies in his/her favor by acting on the environment--e.g. his/her supervisor. By so doing, the individual, among other things, attempts to reduce sources of uncertainty in the distribution of rewards and dispensing of punishments (Staw, 1977). To this end, the individual may bargain (as in the case of a unionized work place), cajole, or ingratiate. Of these methods of influence, only ingratiation, specifically praise and performance, was employed in this study.

One approach that treats leadership as a multidimensional phenomenon is the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model (Graen and Cashman, 1975; Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976). Apart from the downward influence process consisting of leader behaviors that are generally different for each subordinate, the VDL model also focuses on upward influence processes comprising subordinate actions and reactions directed toward the leader.

Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) Model

The Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) model of leadership was proposed by Graen and his associates (e.g. Graen and Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976). The VDL model basically represents an attempt to depict and study how influence processes originate and change within organizations. The model focuses on parties in a hierarchical relationship (e.g. a superior and a subordinate) involving a reciprocal influence process.

A primary concern of the VDL model is the role-making process of leadership. Weick (1969) explained role-making as "the dynamics of the processes that produce social structures between persons in hierarchical organizations" (p. 428). According to Graen and Cashman (1975), it is "a set of processes by which an actor and a functionally interdependent other work through how each will behave in certain situations . . . and agree upon the general nature of the relationship. . . (p. 143)."

The role-making process culminates in the development of behavioral interdependencies between the role of the leader and that of the member. The interdependencies define the nature of transactions or exchange between the leader and the member. These exchange relationships, according to Graen and Schiemann (1978), vary from high quality (e.g. reciprocal influence, extra-contractual behavior exchange, mutual trust, respect and liking/attraction, and common fate) to low quality (e.g. unidirectional downward influence, strictly contractual behavior exchange, role-defined relations, and loosely coupled fates). Compared to low-quality dyadic relationships, high-quality dyadic relationships can insure more valuable outcomes for both the supervisor and the subordinate. The supervisor can offer the subordinate free access to privileged information, increased job latitude (i.e. in terms of how to do the job, where, and when to do it), greater degree of involvement in decision-making, more support for job-related problems, greater confidence and trust in the subordinate, and consideration for the subordinate. The subordinate can reciprocate with greater availability, expanded effort and time, and greater commitment to the success of the work unit.

As a whole, the results of most of the studies conducted using

the VDL framework have been quite consistent with predictions from the model (Miner, 1980). For example, in most of the studies reported, in-group status was positively associated with high performance ratings by the supervisor, reduced propensity to quit on the part of the subordinate, increased subordinate satisfaction with the supervision (Vecchio and Gobdel, 1984), and perceptual agreement between the supervisor and the subordinate regarding the meaning of certain mutually experienced events and situations (Graen and Schiemann, 1978).

Despite the supportive research evidence, the VDL model has one major limitation: the tests of the model to date have focused exclusively upon the heterogeneity of leader behaviors and member reactions, while virtually ignoring crucial and typical processes underlying leadership. This is certainly due to the fact that the model has not been developed well enough to clearly account for the processes underlying the development of roles and their functioning. As others (e.g. Miner, 1980) have pointed out, while the model explains when either "leadership" or "supervision" (i.e. in-group or out-group status) will occur, it is silent on when either should occur. In fact, one might add that the model is silent on the factors that lead to the development of leadership as opposed to supervision or supervision as opposed to leadership. In other words, the theory does not clearly specify what factors would be necessary or desirable to have leadership as opposed to supervision and vice versa. For example, what underlying factors would lead a supervisor to permit subordinates' participation in the unit's decision-making process? There is nothing in the model to assist in answering this question. Thus the model gives an incomplete picture of the processes underlying the complexity and dynamics of

leadership. It does not specify what behaviors on the part of the subordinates and on the part of the leaders result in the subordinates becoming members of each of the two groups--i.e. in-group and out-group (House and Baetz, 1979). It is equally unclear whether it is the behavior of some subordinates (i.e. those that eventually become the out-group) that alienates the leader or vice versa.

To be sure, in a statement of the theory, Graen (1976) suggested that differentiation of the subordinates into in-group and out-group categories is based on a role negotiation process between the leader and his/her subordinates. This role-making process is determined by (1) the leader's perception of the subordinate's incoming role-orientation (i.e. the degree to which the subordinate perceives the job as contributing to a long-term career), (2) interpersonal attraction between the leader and the subordinate, and (3) bargaining between the leader and the subordinate. However, these three factors have not been precisely defined. They have neither been operationalized adequately nor investigated to gauge their potential or actual contribution to the model.

No attempt has been made to explain clearly what factors affect subordinates' role-orientation. How do different subordinates, for example, come to have different forms or degrees of role-orientation? Does the subordinate always bring with him/her into a work situation a stable role-orientation or is it possible that a leader's initial behavior, in his/her interaction with the subordinate, determines the subordinate's role-orientation? There is a need to answer these questions, and others, to increase our understanding of the influence processes associated with the dyadic leadership phenomenon.

In the present study, an attempt was made to explicate some crucial processes underlying leader-subordinate relations in a vertical dyad framework. To this end, two forms of ingratiation, i.e. praise and performance, were presented and tested as some of the strategies individuals use to enhance their attractiveness to their supervisors. Also, the moderating effects of self-confidence and locus of control were examined. More will be said about these concepts and their relevance to the VDL model later in the chapter.

Ingratiation

Ingratiation is one way an individual may actively improve his/her situation in the organization (Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1976). Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977) defined ingratiation as "a class of strategic behaviors employed by a person to make himself more attractive to another" (p. 134). Indeed, ingratiation is a self-presentational strategy individuals employ to augment or maintain power in a relationship by inducing the other to like or to attribute favorable characteristics to the individual (Berscheid, 1985). Jones (1964) described ingratiation as "attraction-seeking behavior" (p. 1040). As viewed by Jones and his associates (Jones, 1964; Jones and Pittman, 1982; Jones and Wortman, 1973), ingratiating actions are usually directed toward an objective that is not made explicit by the parties involved. The ingratiator may seek attraction because he/she is personally gratified by liking and approval from others, or he/she may desire it because it is instrumental in attaining other more valued goals (Wortman et al., 1977). In this case, ingratiation, serving as a manipulative influence technique may increase the willingness of the

target of influence to provide the agent of influence with desired outcomes through a process of increasing the attractiveness of the latter to the former.

The important point about ingratiation in the organizational context is that if the subordinate is able to manipulate the supervisor's attitudes and opinions of him/her, the subordinate may get a disproportionately bigger share of the resources allocated by the supervisor. Alternatively, through ingratiation the individual may forestall possible harmful actions (such as pay reduction), that might otherwise be directed towards him/her by the supervisor for whatever reason.

Studying ingratiation can be important in many respects. As Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977) have argued, "Understanding how people attempt to make themselves more attractive to others provides insight into such areas as organizational advancement and survival, influence processes within the organization, alteration of power relationships, and organizational change" (p. 134). It is, therefore, clear that our understanding of organizational behavior will be enriched to the extent that organizational researchers undertake systematic studies of ingratiating behaviors within organizational settings. The present study sought to contribute to our knowledge in this area. Specifically, the present study attempted to provide further explanation for the effect of ingratiating behavior (i.e. praise and performance) on the attraction felt by the supervisor toward the ingratiating subordinate and, the effect of this on the quality of the leader-member exchange (LMX) and the related outcomes such as the supervisor's use of rewards and punishments.

Ingratiation and Attraction/Liking

The close link between ingratiation and attraction is evident from the definition of ingratiation. The following definition by Jones (1964), like the others cited earlier, shows clearly that the end result of ingratiation is attraction. He said, "Ingratiation is motivated behavior directed toward the goal of eliciting increased attraction from a particular person. While some specific benefit may be sought, by our definition it is sought by ingratiator through the mediation of increased attraction" (p. 82). Thus, from the point of view of organizational behavior, the effectiveness of ingratiating behavior rests on the strength of its ability to make the ingratiator (e.g. subordinate) attractive to the target person (e.g. supervisor).

It follows from the above that to fully understand the role of ingratiation techniques in the upward influence process in organizations we need to clearly understand the nature of attraction. Attraction has been defined by Tedeschi (1974) as "an expectancy that the ingratiator will altruistically provide benefits of various types and values over situations and time" (p. 197). Simply stated, ingratiation will lead to attraction if (1) the target person perceives that some benefits (which may vary from material acquisitions to such intangibles as appreciation, compliments and support) will accrue to him/her from it; and (2) the target person perceives that the ingratiator neither intended nor expected benefits to accrue to him/her as a result of his/her ingratiating action.

One form of attraction that has received a good deal of attention in interpersonal attraction literature is liking. Liking has been defined

by several researchers (e.g. Newcomb, 1961, Homans, 1950). Most of these definitions agree that "liking is one person's positive attitude toward another, evidenced by that person's tendency to approach and interact with the other" (Walster and Abrahams, 1972, P. 197). This definition, however, is inadequate since it fails to show that liking is a "social exchange" as opposed to "economic exchange" (Blau, 1964). The definition by Tedeschi (1974) fulfills this requirement. He says: "liking is characterized by the readiness of the individual to do favors or to provide benefits for another without concern for specific or immediate reciprocity" (p. 202). The crucial distinction between economic exchange and social exchange is that the latter entails unspecified obligations. Thus liking appears to be related to the readiness of the person to do favors, or provide benefits, for the liked others. Although it is logical to treat liking as a subset of attraction in that it relates only to social exchange as opposed to economic exchange, while attraction relates to both forms of exchange, the two concepts have been used interchangeably in the literature. The present study followed this tradition in order to facilitate the use of operationalizations similar to those employed in previous research involving these concepts. This was necessary to permit comparison of the results of the present study with those of previous studies.

Attraction/liking appears to have some discernible implications for the VDL model. In particular, it seems likely to affect the quality of the supervisor-subordinate exchange relationship such that the more attractive to the supervisor the subordinate is, the higher the quality of the exchange relationship between them. In other words, it would seem that whether or not a subordinate has or attains an in-group or an

out-group status would depend partly on the degree of his/her attractiveness to the supervisor. This is due to the fact that liking or attraction is characterized by reciprocity. Reciprocity, on the other hand, appears to be at the core of the theoretical underpinnings of the VDL model (for an example, see Graen, 1876).

Research on Subordinate Likeableness

A number of scholars have hypothesized that individuals are attracted to those who control the rewards they desire and try to maintain relationship with them (cf. Byrne, 1971; Byrne and Clore, 1970; Clore, 1976; Lott and Lott, 1965; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959; and Tedeschi, 1974). Given that most supervisors possess varying degrees of power over the distribution of rewards and punishments, it would not be surprising to find some subordinates striving to enhance their likeableness to their supervisors in order to influence the supervisors' use of this power. According to this stream of thought, because of the perceived attractiveness of the subordinate, the supervisor in turn develops liking for the subordinate, the effects of which are reflected in the increase in the rewards or decrease in punishments administered to the subordinate by the supervisor. The premise for this tendency is that liking tends to be reciprocated since, according to Heider (1958), people have a preference for balanced states and a dyad will be unbalanced if one person likes the other, but is disliked by him/her. In this regard, if a supervisor perceives that a subordinate likes him/her, the supervisor will experience discomfort unless he/she also likes the subordinate. Hence, to reduce the state of discomfort, the

supervisor will, through a process of rationalization, begin to like the subordinate. In fact, the effectiveness of ingratiation tactics rests on the fact that when a person perceives that another is favorably disposed towards him/her, he/she tends to like that other individual in return (Jones, 1964). Studies conducted in this area (e.g. Jones, Gergen, and Davis, 1962; Lowe and Goldstein, 1970) have shown that when subjects get approval from a stimulus person, their liking for that person increases.

The reciprocal nature of the liking phenomenon explicated above has led to the suggestion that a supervisor will allocate more rewards to a liked as opposed to a disliked subordinate given that he/she would not only expect but also want to maintain a stream of rewards (e.g. compliments, support and understanding, and increased availability for assignments) that extends well beyond what is formally expected from the liked as opposed to the disliked subordinate (Tedeschi, 1974). Michener and Schwertfeger (1972) found that subjects made greater attempts to persuade a liked person to change his/her position than they did a disliked individual. They also found that the subject's use of coercive techniques (i.e. punishment power) were significantly greater when the other was disliked than when he/she was liked. Schlenker and Tedeschi (1972) found that liking for an opponent did not affect the frequency of the subjects' use of either threats of punishment or promises of rewards. On the other hand, a laboratory study by Banks (1976) found that subjects, playing the role of supervisors, gave significantly more monetary rewards to the disliked than the liked persons. It should, however, be noted that Banks used the words "similar" and "dissimilar" in place of "like" and "dislike", respectively. Taken together, the

results of these studies are mixed. That is, they provide only partial support for the hypothesized relationship between liking and supervisor's allocation of rewards--i.e. that subordinates who are liked by their supervisors receive more rewards from their supervisors than their disliked counterparts.

Supervisors' reward allocations have also been investigated using ingratiation as the independent variable. In these studies, ingrating subordinates were expected to receive more rewards than their non-ingratiating counterparts. As in the case of subordinate likeableness, the results of the effect of ingratiation on a leader's reward allocation behavior are mixed. The results of Kipnis and Vanderveer's (1971) laboratory study showed that while the ingrating subordinate received only marginally higher pay raises than the average performer, he received as many promises of pay increases as the superior worker in all conditions and significantly more than the average worker in the control and inept conditions. In addition, the ingratiator received an equal performance evaluation with the superior performer, but significantly higher than the average performer. However, a series of similar studies by Fodor (1973a, 1973b, 1974, 1976) failed to replicate Kipnis and Vanderveer's findings. In Fodor's studies, the supervisor did not discriminate between the average ingrating subordinate and an equally performing co-worker in dispensing rewards and evaluating performance.

So far, this review has shown that the studies of the effects of subordinate ingratiation and likeableness on leader reward behavior have both produced inconclusive evidence. This is despite the fact that from a theoretical standpoint (Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977; Jones and

Wortman, 1973) and intuition, subordinate attractiveness is expected to have an immediate effect on leader reward behavior. Some of the reasons for the contradictory results may have to do with the way some of the studies were designed. For example:

- (1) Leader attributions for ingratiation (i.e. whether or not ingratiation was seen as sincere) were not controlled for in any of these studies, although they are known to have influence on the leader response pattern. More will be said on this point later.
- (2) Because attractiveness was not measured, it was not ascertained if the ingratiation manipulation used resulted in the degree of attractiveness desired, even though attractiveness was expected to be instrumental in eliciting leader's reward behavior.
- (3) Ingratiation, the major (in some cases the only) independent variable, was not systematically varied to allow for a proper measure of its impact. These issues will be discussed later in the chapter.

Ingratiation and Attribution

Whether or not a target person reacts favorably to ingratiation depends largely on the motives he/she attributes to the ingratiator (Jones and Wortman, 1973, P. 4). There are many possible explanations the target person may have for the behavior of the ingratiator, only one of which could be that the ingratiator sincerely means the positive things he/she has said about the target person.

Generally, our liking for another person will depend not only on his/her behavior per se but also on the inferences we make about his/her

intentions with regard to that behavior (Jones and Davis, 1965; Kelley, 1967). When we receive a positive evaluation from another person, we will attribute positive characteristics if we believe the evaluator's intent was to give a sincere and honest opinion, but not when the same evaluation is seen as an attempt to manipulate us by way of ingratiation (Jones, 1964; Lowe and Goldstein, 1970).

It is, therefore, important for the ingratiator to accurately anticipate the kind of attribution likely to be triggered by different ingratiation tactics in order to choose the tactic that best maximizes the probability of "sincere intent" attributions. The ingratiator's task in this respect was well stated by Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977) when they said: "Regardless of the setting in which he is operating, the ingratiator's task is primarily one of manipulating the attributions made by the target person he is trying to impress" (p. 135).

Indeed, studies of ingratiation phenomena have found that most people are attuned to detecting any sign of insincerity or ulterior motive behind a positive appraisal or any other form of ingratiation. Students of ingratiation phenomena have documented that attribution of an ulterior motive or manipulative intentions is likely to result in a decrease in liking rather than an increase (Berscheid, 1985). For an increase in attraction to occur, the target person has to perceive ingratiating behavior as sincere and altruistic.

In a laboratory study with female student subjects, Dickoff (1961) found that when no possibility of ulterior motive was present, attraction increased as the favorability of evaluation (by ingratiator) increased; when there was the possibility of an ulterior motive for the positive evaluation (by the ingratiator), however, the recipient's or

target person's attraction failed to increase. Lowe and Goldstein (1970) have also found that subjects respond favorably to a positive evaluation (ingratiation) from another only if they believe that the other is trying to be accurate.

In the previous section, "Ingratiation and Attraction/Liking", it was shown that evidence on the effects of ingratiation on a leader's reward allocation behavior is mixed. These contradictory results may be explained or reconciled using the attribution material reviewed in this section. In his discussion of the "ingratiator's dilemma," Jones (1964) pointed out that attraction-seeking attempts that are perceived by the target of influence to be manipulative or that arouse suspicions of that individual are often ineffective. Fodor (1974) recognized that his ingratiating messages were rather blatant, substantially more so than those used by Kipnis and Vanderveer (1971) in their laboratory study. It would seem, therefore, that Fodor's subjects reacted negatively to the ingratiator's message while Kipnis and Vanderveer's subjects did not because the blatancy of Fodor's ingratiation messages was likely to make them look manipulative. This was unlikely to occur in the case of Kipnis and Vanderveer's (1971) study since the blatancy of their messages was too low to arouse any suspicion.

Despite the recognition of its importance in ingratiating behavior, studies on ingratiation have virtually ignored attribution processes. Even where an ulterior motive and manipulative intentions or the absence of these were manipulated (e.g. Dickoff, 1961; Lowe and Goldstein, 1970), leader attributions per se could only be inferred since they were not measured. One of the objectives of this study was to measure the supervisors' attributions for the ingratiators' behaviors

and to assess their effect on the supervisors' subsequent action.

Tactics of Ingratiation

Ingratiation is a broad multidimensional concept. It is a technique of influence that encompasses several tactics (Jones, 1964). Two of these tactics that have been identified by previous research are praise and performance (see Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977).

Praise

Praise has been described as the most common tactic of ingratiation. It "involves the communication of high personal regard to the intended targets of influence" (Baron, 1986, p. 340). Usually known as "other enhancement," praise often takes the form of flattery or exaggerated compliment of others (Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977). Most of the studies of ingratiation that have been cited in this literature review thus far (e.g. Dickoff, 1961; Fodor, 1974; Goodstadt and Hjelle, 1973; Goodstadt and Kipnis, 1970; Lowe and Goldstein, 1970; Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971) have used this specific form or tactic of ingratiation, i.e. praise. It is important for the present study, which is primarily based on upward influence, that most of the studies cited above were concerned with praise of a higher person by a lower person in a dyad, e.g. a subordinate-supervisor relationship. It appears that most of the literature on ingratiation reviewed so far is, by implication, a review of literature on praise--although the researchers almost exclusively used the word ingratiation rather than praise. In this respect, a review of the literature pertaining to research on praise will involve unnecessary duplication. However, suffice it to

reiterate that praise often succeeds in increasing the others' liking for the flatterer. But, as has been mentioned earlier, the user of praise has to be cautious. As Baron (1986) pointed out, "If the recipients of flattery (i.e. praise) realize that it is being used to influence them, they may react with anger rather than enhanced liking for the flatterer" (p. 340).

Performance

Although we often do not realize it, performance can be an effective tool of ingratiation (Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977). This was aptly stated by Baron when he said, "persons bent on the use of ingratiation can demonstrate outstanding job performance. Often, this contributes to high personal evaluations and positive reactions" (p. 340). Up to this point, very little has been said about performance. In this regard, the next few pages will be devoted to a review of research on the use of performance as a tactic of ingratiation.

Performance is perhaps the single most important outcome variable in work organizations. This is largely because performance (in whatever form) represents a concrete translation of organizational objectives into objective reality.

Studies of leader effectiveness have traditionally investigated the effects of leader behavior on subordinate performance. It was not until recently that an increasing number of researchers began to pay attention to the effects of subordinate performance on leader behavior (Rao, 1979). In a laboratory study using subordinate performance as the independent variable, Lowin and Craig (1968) found that leaders showed high consideration, low initiating structure, and loose or

general supervision under conditions of high subordinate performance, and high initiating structure, low consideration, and close supervision under conditions of low subordinate performance.

The relationship between ingratiation (i.e. praise and performance) and liking

One way that a person can impress his/her supervisor is by maintaining a high level of performance on the job (Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977). For example, in a laboratory study conducted by Wall and Adams (1974) it was found that subjects playing the role of sales director evaluated more favorably the salesmen they believed to have performed effectively and less favorably those they believed to have done poorly. In fact, in Wall and Adams' study the sales director's increased liking for the effective salesmen was reflected not only in performance evaluation but also in other areas such as evaluation of the salesman as a person and the amount of autonomy granted him/her.

The foregoing shows that a subordinate can, as far as his/her ability permits, produce high performance as a means of winning the supervisor's attraction and all the benefits that go with it. In this regard, good performance can be regarded as one form of ingratiation tactics. Indeed, as Podsakoff (1982) aptly said ". . . one of the most significant determinants of a leader's use of positive and negative reinforcers is the performance level of his/her subordinates" (p. 76).

We have seen that a subordinate's performance affects his/her attractiveness in the eyes of the supervisor. On the other hand, it has also been found that subordinate attractiveness has influence on the

supervisor's evaluation of his/her performance. In a laboratory study, Landy and Sigall (1974) found that supervisors evaluated actual performance of attractive individuals more positively than that of unattractive individuals. Interestingly enough, poor subordinate performance was evaluated positively if the subordinate was attractive and negatively if he/she was unattractive. The authors concluded that ". . . if you are ugly (unattractive) you are not discriminated against a great deal as long as your performance is impressive. However, . . . you may be able to get away with inferior work if you are beautiful (attractive)" (P. 302). Although attractiveness in this case referred to physical appearance, it is relevant for the present study.

The above discussion leads to the conclusion that the subordinate's immediate goal in engaging in praise and good performance is to change the supervisors' attitude (i.e. attraction/liking in this case) in a desired direction. Where such an attitude is already present, the subordinate may still engage in these behaviors in order to maintain the desired attitude.

Performance and Attribution

Some studies suggest that supervisor evaluations of employees' performance are in part a function of attributional processes. To the extent that an employee is performing satisfactorily, supervisors will evaluate the employees' performance more satisfactorily if the performance is attributable to the employee's own effort (e.g. self-motivation, creativity) and less satisfactorily if the performance is attributable to greater ability or outside influences such as easy task, or compliance with the supervisor's orders, directives, advice,

and recommendations (Goodstadt and Hjelle, 1973; Kipnis and Cosentino, 1969; Wall and Adams, 1974; Wortman and Lisenmeier, 1977). In an industrial simulation, Goodstadt and Kipnis (1970) found that subjects significantly more often threatened workers with a loss of pay and made greater use of punishment when the workers' poor performance was seen to result from low effort or lack of motivation than when the performance was seen to be caused by less ability. In a similar study, Barrow (1976) found an increased emphasis on the leader's use of punishment when the level of subordinate performance decreased, indicating a lack of subordinate motivation, rather than a lack of ability. In a laboratory study mentioned earlier, Wall and Adams (1974) found a tendency to rate a salesman's good performance more satisfactorily if the salesman had followed the supervisor's recommendations than if he had not. Salesmen who had performed poorly were evaluated negatively regardless of whether they had followed the supervisor's directives.

The bottom line in this stream of research is that high performing subordinates tend to be treated more favorably by the supervisors if the locus of cause of the performance is under the subordinates' control. To a large extent, the individual has control over his/her effort, in that he/she can vary it almost at will. The same cannot be said about ability, and luck, among other things. The individual cannot vary his/her ability at will, at least not in the short run. In short, the supervisors tend to give credit to the subordinates when the latter's performance is good only when the cause of the good performance is something over which the individual can exercise effective control, at least in the short run.

Also, a supervisor's judgment concerning a subordinate's reasons for

good performance may influence his/her evaluations of that performance (Wortman and Linsenmeier, 1977). For example, the performance of a subordinate that is attributable to his/her desire for a promotion or pay raise may be evaluated differently by the supervisor than that of a subordinate who works hard because he/she is dedicated to the company.

Clearly, the literature indicates that the extent to which good performance by a subordinate is evaluated favorably by his/her supervisor is in part a function of the nature of the supervisor's attributions for the reasons for such performance. This means that the success of a subordinate's attraction-seeking attempt will be determined in part by such attributions.

Leader-member Exchange (LMX) and Attraction/Liking

Attraction/liking appears to have some discernible implications for the VDL model. In particular, it may affect the quality of supervisor-subordinate exchange (LMX) relationship such that the more attractive to the supervisor the subordinate is, the higher the quality of the exchange relationship between them. In other words, whether or not a subordinate has or attains an in-group or an out-group status depends partly on the degree of his/her attractiveness to the supervisor.

We have seen from the literature review that a subordinate's attractiveness, as perceived by his/her supervisor, mediates a number of his/her job outcomes (such as pay raises, performance evaluations, etc.) that are under the control of the supervisor. We also reviewed studies which showed that an individual can increase his/her attractiveness to the supervisor by deliberately engaging in attraction-seeking behaviors,

specifically praise and performance. Attraction, as Graen and his associates (e.g. Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976) have suggested, partly influences the role-making process. Since the degree of attractiveness can be increased by praise (if perceived as sincere) and good performance, it is likely that the subordinate's deliberate use of various levels of these factors to achieve some desired results may well partly constitute the processes that underlie the quality of a dyad.

In other words, through their effect on attractiveness, praise and performance can partly explain the processes through which certain superior-subordinate relationships attain high levels of intimacy while others fail to do so, or even degenerate into dislike and hate. The important implication of all this is that the knowledge of the processes associated with praise and performance can be useful in predicting and explaining the quality of exchange between a subordinate and his/her supervisor. In other words, these processes can help explain the "how, when, and why" of the role development process in a dyad.

In sum, praise and performance are presented in the proposed study as some of the ways individuals become attractive to their superiors and, by so doing, influence the quality of interpersonal exchange between them and their supervisors. This approach, therefore, represents an attempt to explicate the process of upward influence in a dyad.

It appears that while a subordinate's goal in seeking attraction may be motivated by selfish desires (as is usually the case when ingratiation techniques are used), the end result of such behavior, as the VDL model would predict (e.g. Graen, 1976), may well be an improved quality of interpersonal exchange between the two parties (i.e. the

subordinate and the supervisor). The effects of a high quality of exchange in a dyad are reflected in the subordinate outcomes such as a greater amount of supervisor attention and support, freedom of access to privileged information, greater job latitude, greater degree of involvement in decision-making, greater confidence and trust from the supervisor, and consideration (e.g. pay raises, promotions, and good performance evaluations) by the supervisor. A low quality of exchange, at the very least, is characterized by the absence of these types of outcomes and by strict adherence to the formal rules and procedures (Graen and Cashman, 1975).

Self-confidence and Praise

One variable that has emerged with consistency from previous research as central to the way individuals respond to evaluative information about themselves is self-confidence. It has been found that persons with low self-confidence tend to reject positive information about themselves (Berscheid and Walster, 1969). This happens because positive information is inconsistent with the negative feelings they have about themselves. Following this logic, Kipnis and Vanderveer (1971) predicted that in a leader-subordinate situation, one could expect a leader who did not believe he/she was a good leader to be less susceptible to the ingratiator's flattery and, by implication, to be less positive toward the ingratiator (i.e. praiser). In a laboratory study using student subjects, these authors found high-confidence subjects rated the praiser (i.e. ingratiator) significantly higher than did low-confidence subjects. Thus, it appears that High-confidence

individuals are less likely to doubt the praiser's or the ingratiator's sincerity and hence, are more susceptible to the praiser's flattery.

Locus of Control

Rotter's (1966) internal-external personality dimension may be a relevant factor in a study of upward influence in organizations. Because the internal locus of control individuals have a high need for personal control they may be more resistant to influence attempts than the external locus of control individuals. Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) investigated the effects of the supervisor's locus of control on his/her allocation of rewards or punishments. In an industrial simulation with a sample of 40 student subjects, these authors found that while the internals and the externals did not differ significantly in their overall use of reward (e.g. promise or actual increase of extra-credit points) or other formally delegated bases of power (e.g. warning or actual transferring of workers) they showed significant differences in their use of personal, as opposed to organization-authorized, means of reward. Specifically, the internals used significantly more personal reward powers, such as giving encouragement, praise, or admonishment to the workers, than did the externals. On the other hand, the externals made significantly more use of punishment powers than did the internals. In short, the implication of the Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) study is that when faced with influence attempts from others, an externally controlled individual is less likely to rely upon personal reward power and more likely to use punishment power than the internally controlled individual.

Locus of Control and Praise

It was explained earlier that due to their high need for personal control, individuals who have internal locus of control may be more resistant to influence attempts than individuals who have external locus of control. Brehm's (1966) theory of psychological reactance may provide a conceptual basis for this tendency. The term reactance refers to negative reactions by individuals who feel that others are attempting to influence them unduly, or are attempting to limit their personal freedom. The reactance theory suggests that if the effect of a favor is seen by the recipient of the favor as reducing his or her freedom, and such freedom is important, then the favor arouses psychological reactance in the favored person which, in turn, leads the person to avoid returning the favor. In the context of the present study, the critical point is whether praise by a subordinate would have a social exchange effect (compliance by a supervisor) or a psychological reactance effect (counter-compliance by a supervisor). A non-exaggerated praise conferred on a supervisor by a subordinate would be less likely to arouse reactance. Rather, it would be more likely to be perceived by the supervisor as spontaneous and volitional. Therefore, the supervisor would feel obligated to reciprocate, and compliance (in the form of increased liking for the subordinate by the supervisor) would occur. The reason for these effects is that non-exaggerated praise, by definition, looks real and altruistic. On the other hand, an exaggerated praise conferred on the supervisor by the subordinate would be perceived differently by the supervisor. The exaggerated praise would more likely be viewed by the supervisor as a manipulative act designed to put him under obligation to reciprocate (e.g. by way of

increased liking for the subordinate). This would be seen by the supervisor as constituting an illegitimate reduction of his/her freedom, and thus would arouse reactance in the supervisor which would lead to noncompliance (reflected, for example, in the lack of increase or a reduction in the liking for the subordinate). With regard to exaggerated praise, the emphasis is on the reactance aroused by threats to the supervisor's freedom in leadership behavior when the obligation to reciprocate is imposed in a manner or context that appears controlling, manipulative, or distrustful. Internally controlled individuals are likely to be repelled by this kind of freedom-reducing environment since it denies them the right to exercise personal control.

The differences between externals and internals stem from the differences between their expectancies regarding their ability to deal effectively with any situation they may face. Thus, it seems plausible that in the Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) study, the internals' positive expectations of success in dealing with the workers led them to rely on personal powers. Conversely, the use of more punishing powers by externally controlled subjects was consistent with their low expectations regarding their perceived abilities. Therefore, it would appear that locus of control would moderate the effect of a subordinate's praise on the supervisor's corresponding response. Thus, both self-confidence and locus of control were used in the present study as moderators.

A Model of Upward Influence in Organizations

There is enough evidence in the literature indicating that Praise and good performance are some of the strategies of influence

commonly used by subordinates to obtain favorable treatment (e.g. pay raises, promotion, positive performance evaluations) from their supervisors. Also, supervisor attributions, self-confidence, and locus of control have been shown to have a moderating effect on the supervisor's response to the subordinates' attraction-seeking behavior. Furthermore, although attraction has been suggested as one of the factors underlying the role-development process in a dyad (i.e. quality of LMX), no attempt has been made to integrate studies of attraction-seeking behaviors with those of the role-development process.

Although the findings of the reviewed studies shed light on the major factors that affect the exercise of upward influence in organizations, for the most part, the design and results of most studies have been poorly integrated. Researchers have used partial models incorporating only one or two variables (e.g. ingratiation and supervisor's behavior or attraction and supervisor's behavior) while completely ignoring the others.

No one study was found which incorporated all the major factors (e.g. praise, performance, attraction, LMX, attribution, and supervisor's behavior). Also, the only studies that measured attraction/liking treated it either as the major independent variable or as the major outcome variable. None of the studies that investigated ingratiation (i.e. praise and performance) provided measures of attraction/liking, despite the fact that it has been recognized in the literature as a major factor in the upward influence process.

Thus, there is still no clear understanding of the interplay between the aforementioned factors (i.e. praise, performance, attraction, attribution, LMX, and behavioral outcomes) in the process of upward

influence. The fragmented pieces just do not provide a complete picture.

What appears to be needed is a model capable of integrating existing research findings and extending information beyond simple direct relationships. Such a model was constructed and tested in the present study (Figure 1). The conception of upward influence proposed in the model is consistent with the propositions of the VDL model and with the reviewed pattern of data as well as antecedents and consequences that have been associated with ingratiation (i.e. praise and performance), attraction/liking and attribution.

The Model

Figure 1 shows a dyadic model of the organizational upward influence process, comprising seven major components. The first two components (praise and performance) are aspects of subordinate behavior that are the antecedents of cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes that characterize a supervisor's response in a dyadic interaction with a subordinate. Following praise and performance is a cognitive component comprising a supervisor's attributions for subordinate's praise and performance behavior. This is followed by attractiveness/liking, which represents the degree of the supervisor's affective feelings for the subordinate. The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) component indicates the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship which, as was explained earlier, is determined by, among other things, the attractiveness of the subordinate. The final major component consists of subordinate outcomes arising from his/her influence attempt.

Based on the evidence from the literature, we can expect the

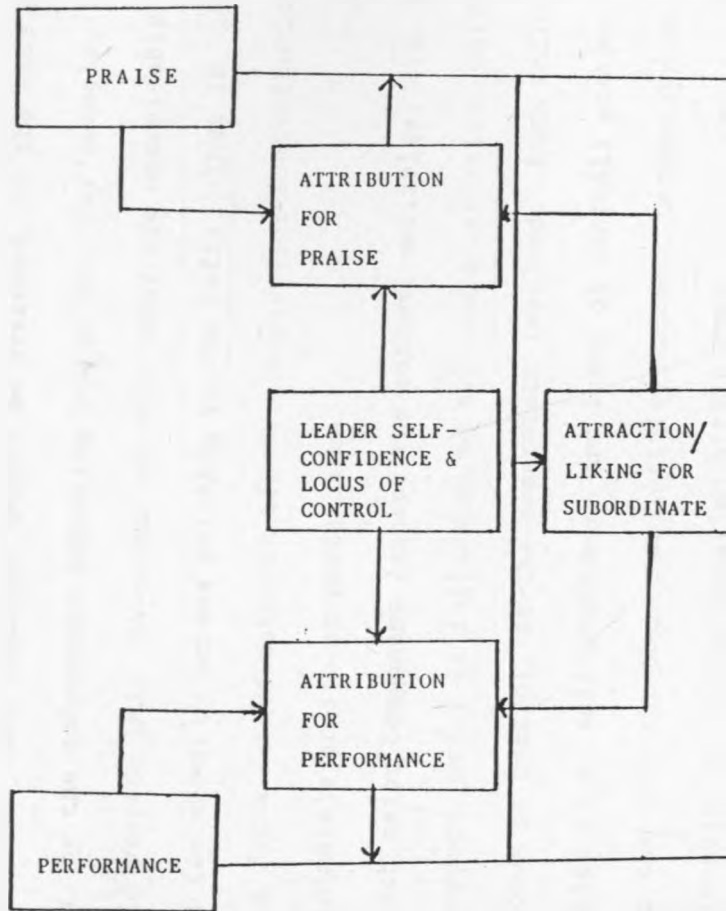
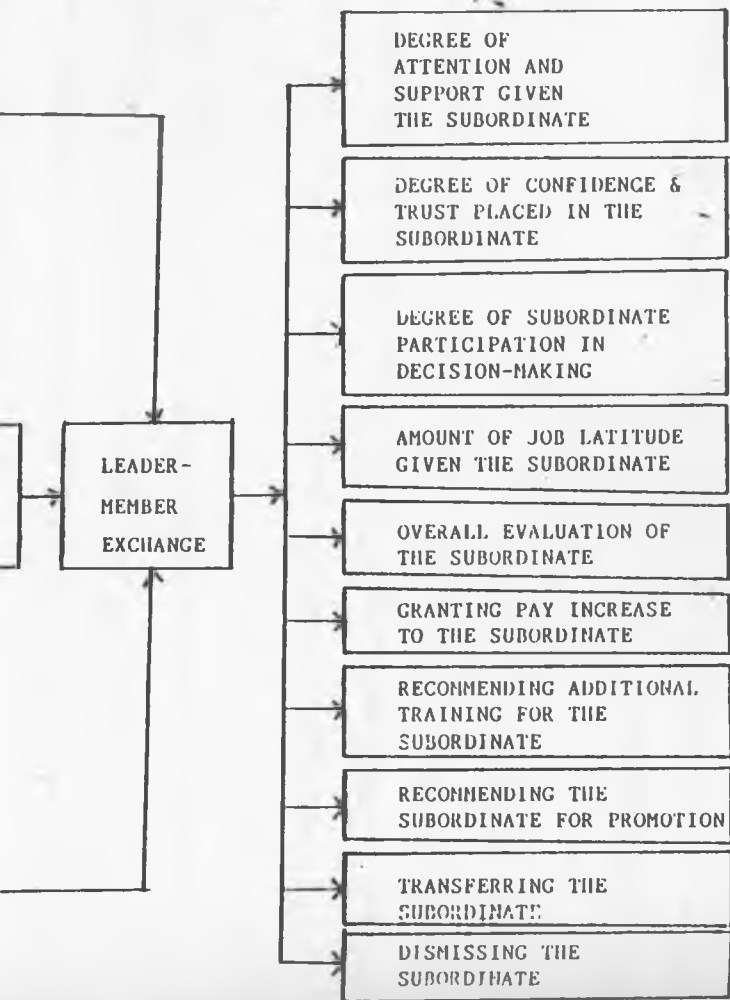


Figure 1. Dyadic upward influence model.



relationships between the various components of the model to largely follow the directions indicated by the continuous arrows (Figure 1). In other words, each component should be preceded, in the vast majority of cases, by the components appearing before it. For example, liking should precede LMX. Reversals of this order are conceivable in some cases (as shown by arrows pointing to the left). That is, attraction or liking for a subordinate can affect a supervisor's attributions for that subordinate's praise or performance.

Each major component (except the outcome variables, e.g. attention and support, etc.) is influenced by two characteristics, self-confidence and locus of control, of the supervisor involved. Both influencing variables (i.e. self-confidence and locus of control) are postulated to render the relevant cognitive activity, affect, perception of the dyadic relationship, or action/behavior either more or less likely. Thus the likelihood of occurrence of each major component of the model depends on: (a) the occurrence of the preceding component as a necessary condition; and (b) the moderating effect of self-confidence and locus of control.

In the following discussion, each component of the model will be considered in turn, after which several hypotheses derived from the relationships between the components as well as those concerning moderating variables will be set forth.

Praise and Performance

Praise and performance are at the starting point in the sequence. They are activities a subordinate engages in in order to win his/her supervisor's approval, confidence, trust and liking not as an end in

themselves (although this may be true in a few isolated cases) but as a means to some desired outcomes such as supervisor's increased attention and support for the subordinate, pay raise, and job latitude. Praise and performance are, therefore, broad techniques of influence a subordinate may use to secure certain desired outcomes that are under his/her supervisor's control.

Attributions

Whether or not the supervisor's attitude changes as desired or remains unchanged (whichever is sought by the subordinate), largely depends on whether the supervisor attributes the subordinate's praise to sincere or insincere intentions and performance to internal or external causes. Generally, attributions to sincere intentions and to internal causes (i.e. effort and ability) in the case of good performance or to external causes (i.e. bad luck and a difficult task) in the case of poor performance should increase the subordinate's perceived attractiveness by the supervisor. On the other hand, attributions to insincere intentions and to external causes (i.e. good luck, supervisor's orders/instructions and an easy task) in the case of good performance and the internal causes (i.e. lack of effort and ability) in the case of poor performance should reduce the subordinate's perceived attractiveness by the supervisor.

Attraction/Liking

As was mentioned earlier, whether or not the supervisor finds his/her subordinate attractive depends very much on the nature of the

attributions he/she makes for the subordinate's praise and performance behaviors.

Relationship between Self-confidence and Locus of Control

Self-confidence and Locus of control may be related in their mode of operation (i.e. the way they influence behavior). For example, it is logical to expect individuals who believe that they have control over the events that occur in their lives to have high confidence in their abilities to deal with such events should they arise. In contrast, people who feel overwhelmed by the events that occur in their lives are likely to have low confidence in themselves when faced with situations that require them to exercise some degree of control. In general, one would expect internally controlled persons to have high confidence in themselves and externally controlled persons to have low confidence in themselves.

However, this general correspondence between self-confidence and locus of control may not hold in more specific situations where the degree of confidence a person has with respect to a specific task may depend largely on whether the person has the necessary knowledge, resources, information, and other kinds of facilities to handle the task effectively. When these essentials are lacking, a person may not have confidence in his/her ability to handle the task effectively, even though he/she may have internal locus of control. It is in this latter sense that self-confidence is used in this study. The question "how confident are you that you can effectively supervise these workers" is specific to the workers and the task used in this study. In this case, whether or not a supervisor has internal or external locus of control

may not have a bearing on his/her level of self-confidence. Thus, locus of control and self-confidence are used in this study as distinct concepts--and the fact that they are measured with different scales bears testimony to this.

A supervisor may or may not be predisposed toward accepting influence attempts from others depending on whether he/she has an internal or external locus of control and/or whether he/she has a high or low degree of self-confidence. In general, because of their firm belief in their ability to control their own fates, internal locus of control persons should be predisposed toward rejecting influence attempts of others. Low confidence persons should be similarly predisposed to act likewise but for an entirely different reason: i.e. a tendency to be distrustful of other people's intentions. Both external locus of control and high self-confidence persons should be more susceptible to influence attempts by others. For the externals, this arises from their belief that their fate is determined by external forces. For high confidence individuals, their high feelings of security make them much less distrustful of other people's intentions.

The foregoing discussion indicates that both locus of control and self-confidence should have a moderating effect on the supervisor's attributions for a subordinate's praise and performance and, hence, subordinate's attractiveness to the supervisor.

Leader-Member Exchange

The quality of a dyad or leader-member exchange (LMX) is a function, in part, of the subordinate's degree of attraction to the supervisor. Thus, the more attractive to the supervisor the subordinate is, the

higher the quality of the dyad, and the less attractive the subordinate, the lower the quality of the dyad. The LMX is directly connected with the outcomes, which are the seventh and final major component of the model.

Outcomes

Sequencing in the model ends with several subordinate outcomes as the last major component. These outcomes are under the control of the supervisor. How much of each outcome the supervisor allocates to the subordinate is determined largely by the quality of the leader-member exchange. That is, the supervisor is more likely to (1) pay more attention and to give greater support to the subordinate when the quality of the LMX is higher than when it is low, (2) have more confidence and trust in the subordinate when the quality of the LMX is high than when it is low, (3) allow a subordinate a greater degree of participation in decision-making when the quality of LMX is high than when it is low, (4) grant a subordinate a greater degree of job latitude when the quality of LMX is high than when it is low, (5) grant pay increase to a subordinate when the quality of LMX is high than when it is low, (6) recommend a subordinate for additional training when the quality of LMX is low than when it is high, (7) recommend a subordinate for promotion when the quality of LMX is high than when it is low, (8) transfer a subordinate to an unpleasant job when the quality of LMX is low than when it is high, (9) dismiss the subordinate when the quality of LMX is low than when it is high, and (10) give a higher evaluation to a subordinate's performance when the quality of LMX is high than when it is low.

Hypotheses

There is evidence, from the literature review, that a supervisor's reactions to a subordinate's praise depends largely on the motives or intentions to which he/she attributes such behavior. The supervisor is likely to attribute the behavior to sincere intentions or motives on the part of the subordinate if he/she perceives it as non-manipulative and, hence, altruistic in intent (i.e. not intended to attract some benefits for the subordinate). However, the supervisor is likely to attribute the same behavior to insincere intentions or motives if he/she perceives it as manipulative and, hence, as unaltruistic in intent (i.e. intended to attract some benefits for the subordinate). Specifically, exaggerated praise (i.e. praise framed in such a way that its manipulative intent is easily detectable by the target person) is more likely to arouse suspicion in the supervisor and, thus, lead him/her to attribute the behavior to manipulative intent than non-exaggerated praise (i.e. praise whose manipulative intent is not easily detectable by the target person).

Another stream of research on attributions that is relevant to the present study is the positivity bias. Positivity bias notion is predicated on the fact that people are biased toward favorable evaluations, and that this pattern applies to observers as well as actors (see, for example, Van der Pligt and Eiser, 1983). Researchers (e.g. Ross, 1977) have suggested that people have a biased tendency to attribute behavior with good consequences to internal factors and behavior with bad consequences to external factors. These researchers have argued that positivity bias is based on attributors assuming that

actors intended success. This ascription of intent then leads to ascription of responsibility (e.g. Van der Plight and Eiser, 1983). The notion of positivity bias is relevant to the present study in so far as it has implications for praise and performance. First, if indeed it is the case that people ascribe intent to others' behaviors, then one would expect to observe the same tendency with regard to praise (since praise is an evaluative statement). Second, if attributions tend to be internal for success and external for failure, then one would expect the same pattern of attributions to apply to the case of supervisor attributions for subordinate performance. This literature leads to the following predictions.

- H_{1a}: Supervisors should be more likely to attribute greater sincerity of intent to praise when praise is non-exaggerated than when praise is exaggerated.
- H_{1b}: Supervisors should be more likely to attribute greater sincerity of intent to for praise when subordinates' performance is superior than when the performance is poor.
- H_{1c}: There should be an interaction between praise and performance such that the effect of praise on attributions of sincerity of intent will be greater for poor performance than for superior performance.
- H_{2a}: Supervisors should be likely to make more internal attributions for performance when praise is non-exaggerated

than when it is exaggerated.

H_{2b}: Supervisors should be likely to make more internal attributions for performance when performance is superior than when it is poor.

H_{2c}: The effect of performance on internal attributions should be greater for exaggerated praise than for non-exaggerated praise.

Some evidence from the literature on ingratiation and attraction indicates that one way a subordinate can have some degree of influence over the superior is to attain a high level of performance. However, other evidence suggests that a good performance by a subordinate can indeed lead to favorable or desired outcomes for the subordinate, but only when the supervisor ascribes the good performance to altruistic, as opposed to selfish, motives. These propositions lead to these predictions:

H_{2d}: Supervisors will be more likely to attribute the subordinates' superior performance to non-selfish motives (e.g. sheer interest in the task, a desire for accomplishment for its own sake) when praise is non-exaggerated than when it is exaggerated.

H_{2e}: Supervisors will be more likely to attribute the subordinates' superior performance to selfish motives (e.g. a desire for pay raise, a desire to avoid a possible pay deduction) when praise

is exaggerated than when it is non-exaggerated.

Self-Confidence and Attributions of Praise

The literature on self-confidence indicates that low confidence individuals tend to reject positive information about themselves because such information is incongruent with their self-perception. Hence, praise would be more likely to arouse suspicion in the low confidence person than in the high confidence person. This is due to the fact that a low confidence person tends to suspect positive information about himself/herself whereas a high confidence person would only suspect such positive information about himself/herself if he/she perceived it to be blatantly manipulative.

In general, the degree of individual's negative reaction to praise (as reflected in attributions, for example) should be greater as the praise becomes increasingly exaggerated and, thus, transparently manipulative. However, changes in negative reactions due to increasing exaggeration of praise (i.e. from non-exaggerated to exaggerated) are expected to be greater for high confidence individuals and less for low confidence individuals. This is because the low confidence individual, unlike the high confidence individual, has a relatively extreme negative reaction initially since any positive information about him or her is suspicious. In other words, exaggerated praise (e.g. glaringly manipulative messages) only confirms the original suspicion and should, in this respect, cause a relatively modest change in the level of the low confidence person's reaction. In contrast, a high confidence person has no negative reaction initially when subjected to non-exaggerated praise. Thus his or her reaction to exaggerated praise represents a

change from positive to negative perceptions. This change should be greater than the one involving the low confidence person whose perceptions of praise are negative whether or not the praise is non-exaggerated. In general, however, a low confidence person should have stronger negative reactions to praise messages than a high confidence person whatever the nature of praise (i.e. whether non-exaggerated or exaggerated).

Also, since an individual's self-confidence affects his/her attributions for information received from others about himself/herself, it would be reasonable to expect such information to affect the individual's degree of liking for the praiser. The reason for this, as was explained earlier, is that liking for another person based on his/her behavior is determined in part by the causal attributions made for that behavior. As explained earlier, differences in liking/attraction should be reflected in the quality of LMX, in performance evaluations, and in the supervisor's reward and punishment behaviors. One would, therefore, make the following predictions:

H_{3a}: High confidence supervisors will be more likely to make greater sincerity of intent attributions for praise than the low confidence supervisors.

H_{3b}: There will be an interaction between praise and self-confidence such that the effect of praise on the attributions of sincerity of intent will be greater for high confidence supervisors than for low confidence supervisors.

H_{3c}: There should be an interaction between praise, performance, and self-confidence such that the effect of praise and performance on the attributions of sincerity of intent will be greater for high confidence supervisors than for low confidence supervisors.

Locus of Control and Attributions of Praise

If indeed individuals who have internal locus of control have a high need for control, one would expect them to be highly resistant to influence attempts since these tend to threaten their independence. This would be particularly more so with respect to exaggerated praise, since these tend to be openly manipulative. This contention is supported by the reactance theory discussed earlier. For the present study, this theory would posit that any influence attempt by the subordinate which is perceived by the supervisor as posing a threat to his or her freedom of behavior would induce reactance--that is, a strong tendency to engage in behavior that is exactly the opposite of what is desired or expected by the subordinate. Thus internally controlled individuals are less likely to attribute praise messages to sincere intent than are externally controlled individuals. Given this evidence, the following relationships can be hypothesized:

H_{4a}: Internally controlled supervisors will be more likely to attribute greater sincerity of intent to praise than will be externally controlled supervisors.

H_{4b}: The effect of praise on attributions of sincerity of intent should be greater for the internally controlled supervisors than for the externally controlled supervisors.

H_{4c}: There should be an interaction between praise, performance, and locus of control such that the effect of praise and performance on attributions of sincerity of intent will be greater for internally controlled supervisors than for externally controlled supervisors.

The earlier discussion indicated that, as compared to non-exaggerated praise messages, exaggerated praise messages (issued by a subordinate) are likely to arouse the supervisor's suspicion and, hence, lead him/her to attribute the subordinate's behavior to manipulative or insincere intentions. These attributions, in turn, impact adversely on the subordinate's attractiveness to the supervisor. The reason for this, as was explained earlier, is that liking for another person based on that person's behavior is determined in part by the causal attributions made for that behavior. As explained earlier, differences in liking/attraction should be reflected in the quality of LMX, in performance evaluations, and in the supervisor's reward and punishment behaviors. Therefore, the following effects can be hypothesized:

H_{5a}: There will be increased liking for the subordinates by the supervisors when praise is non-exaggerated than when it is exaggerated.

H_{5b}: There will be increased liking for the subordinates by the supervisors when performance is superior than when it is poor.

H_{5c}: There will be an interaction between praise and performance such that the effect of praise on the supervisors' liking for the subordinates will be greater when performance is poor than when it is superior.

It was argued that the effects of subordinate praise (of the supervisor) and performance should be reflected not only in supervisor attributions but also in supervisor ratings of the quality of LMX, performance evaluations, and allocation of rewards and punishments. This argument was based, in part, on the positivity bias phenomenon, the presence of which leads to a tendency on the part of individuals (supervisors in this case) to ascribe intent to a behavior, and to make more internal or dispositional attributions for positive behaviors than for negative behaviors, both for self and for others. Further support for the expected effects of praise and performance came from the work of Milech and Nesdale (1984). One outcome of Milech and Nesdale's study was that individuals make attributions that they expect to produce positive affect for them. This literature ties well with some of the literature cited earlier. It was suggested earlier that supervisors do experience pressure to reciprocate a subordinate's liking since failure to do so results in unbalanced dyad, a situation that individuals find undesirable (see Heider, 1958). In this regard, a supervisor is likely to experience greater positive affect (i.e. liking) for a subordinate

when he/she attributes the subordinate's praise message to greater sincerity of intent. With respect to performance, intuition suggests that a supervisor should be likely to experience greater positive affect when a subordinate's performance is attributed to internal or to non-selfish, as opposed to self-serving factors. Since attributions to greater sincerity of intent and to non-selfish motives are, respectively, likely to occur only when praise is non-exaggerated and performance is superior, these two factors should lead to greater positive affect for the supervisor. Intuitively, since non-exaggerated praise and superior performance are associated with positive affect, they should lead to a high quality of leader-member exchange. Therefore, one would make the following predictions:

H_{6a}: Supervisors should be more likely to rate the quality of the exchange relationship between them and their subordinates (i.e. LMX) higher when praise is non-exaggerated than when it is exaggerated.

H_{6b}: Supervisors should be more likely to rate the quality of the exchange relationship between them and their subordinates (i.e. LMX) higher when the subordinates' performance is superior than when it is poor.

H_{6c}: There should be an interaction between praise and performance such that the effect of praise on the supervisors' rating of the quality of the exchange relationship between them and

their subordinates will be greater when performance is poor than when it is superior.

It is apparent from the vertical dyad linkage literature that the effect of attraction on attention and support, confidence and trust, participation in decision-making, job latitude, performance evaluation, and reward and punishment behaviors is through LMX. On the other hand, the stream of literature on interpersonal relations as well as liking and attraction seems to suggest a direct relationship between attraction and the aforementioned outcome variables. Hypothesis 7, therefore, was designed to test whether the effect of attraction on these outcome variables is direct or indirect through LMX.

H₇: Attraction does not have an independent effect on attention and support, on confidence and trust, on participation in decision-making, on job latitude, on performance evaluations, on use of rewards, and on use of punishments; it affects these outcome variables indirectly through its influence on LMX.

CHAPTER III

Research Methodology

This chapter is devoted to the methodology used in this study. It presents the description of the subjects, experimental procedure, experimental task, and both independent and dependent measures.

Overview

The design of this study was based on a 2 x 2 repeated measures factorial analysis of variance, with praise of a supervisor by a subordinate and a subordinate's performance as the independent variables. The levels of these independent variables were combined to produce the four treatments summarized in table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Treatments

	Non-exaggerated Praise (NEP)	Exaggerated Praise (EP)
Superior Performance (SP)	SP/NEP	SP/EP
Poor Performance (PP)	PP/NEP	PP/EP

Table 1 presents a summary of the four treatments that were used in this study. A brief explanation of each treatment is given below.

Superior Performance--Non-exaggerated Praise (SP/NEP) Treatment

In this treatment each subject was exposed to non-exaggerated praise messages and superior performance data. In this study, non-exaggerated praise and superior performance together represent the best attraction-seeking qualities a subordinate can present.

Superior Performance--Exaggerated Praise (SP/EP) Treatment

This treatment is designed so that each subject is exposed to exaggerated praise messages and superior performance data. While superior performance enhances a subordinate's appeal or charm to the supervisor, exaggerated praise works in the opposite direction. Taken together these two pieces of information provide moderate attraction-seeking qualities possessed by a subordinate in this condition.

Poor Performance--Non-exaggerated Praise (PP/NEP) Treatment

In this treatment each subject was presented with non-exaggerated praise messages and poor performance record. In this treatment, unlike treatment 2, it is praise that promotes subordinate's personal appeal or charm to the supervisor while performance detracts from this. At best, these two sources of information provide moderate attraction-seeking qualities for a subordinate in this condition.

Poor Performance--Exaggerated Praise (PP/EP) Treatment

The design of this treatment permits each subject to be exposed to exaggerated praise messages and poor performance record. Both of these

types of information are very unlikely to enhance a subordinate's good image in the eyes of the supervisor. In fact they may create a negative image. Together, exaggerated praise and poor performance represent a rather low attraction-seeking qualities for a subordinate.

Subjects

The subjects, playing the role of supervisors, were undergraduate students from management courses at the College of Business Administration, University of South Carolina. They were given extra credit toward their final grade as a compensation for their participation in the experiment. The supervisors were placed in charge of hypothetical (non-existent) workers supposedly located in an adjoining room. Every effort was be made to ensure that the supervisors believed the existence of the workers (and a debriefing session, to be discussed later in the chapter, was used to check whether the supervisors did actually believe the subordinates' existence). This was achieved by tape-recording the instructions, and by using a confederate, among other things. These procedures are explained in detail later in the chapter.

Procedure

The experiment was conducted in 27 sessions. Each session comprised one supervisor and four hypothetical subordinates located in a separate room. Two experiments were conducted simultaneously in separate rooms at any one time. The four treatments were assigned to the subjects in a counterbalanced order in order to control for learning effects. Upon arrival of the subjects at the designated room for an

experimental session, the experimenter gave general instructions about the experiment and the role of the subjects as supervisors. To increase the subjects' level of personal involvement in the exercise, the experimenter told them that a major purpose was to conduct experimental tests of an exercise which had been used to identify management ability associated with the use of typical managerial powers such as recommending pay raise for workers, and firing workers, among other things.

To make the experimental situation (particularly the alleged presence of the subordinates) realistic to the subjects, the following procedures were used:

- a. The two subjects scheduled for an experimental session met in the same room (pre-planned but not revealed to the subjects) whereupon the experimenter suddenly said to one of the subjects (the one that came later) that he/she was supposed to be in the other room (the room was actually identified with its number, e.g. 775). The experimenter then led the said subject to the second room and, on arriving there, made the comment: "I am sorry, you were not informed in advance to come directly to this room. Actually, it is necessary to place you in a separate room because your role in the experiment is different from the role of the people in the other room." On getting back to the first room, the experimenter remarked: "I am sorry for the mix-up. Those people are not supposed to come to this room since their role in the experiment is different from yours."

b. A confederate of the experimenter knocked on the door of the experimental room just when the experimental session was about to start. In answering the door, the experimenter said: "Excuse me, you are supposed to be in room ---." The experimenter said this loud enough for the subject to hear and made sure that the subject did not see the confederate. Also, the experimenter explained that he "could not let the person in since it is important that you do not see the subordinates." Prior to this, the subject had been told in the instructions why it was important that he/she did not see the subordinates. The doctoral students in the Department of Management and other volunteers were used as confederates.

Part of the procedures consisted of instructions to the subjects. A specially prepared videotape that featured a professor of organizational Behavior and Management at the University of South Carolina was used to communicate the instructions to the subjects. It was expected that having instructions come from a more credible source (i.e. the professor) would enhance the credibility of the experiment. Thus, the use of the videotape was, in a way, part of the manipulation. A written version of the videotaped instructions was also made available to the subjects. Following is the text of the instructions that were used.

"Welcome, and thanks for agreeing to participate in this study. Please be assured that anything you do or response you give to any questions during this experiment will be treated with absolute confidentiality. The procedures for this experiment have been videotaped as well as written. The reason the videotape is used is to ensure that both the supervisors and the workers receive identical sets

of instructions. In other words, the same videotape will be played to both the supervisors and the workers. The written instructions are given just in case you are not able to recall some information from the videotape.

In a short while, you will be participating in experimental tests of an exercise which has been used to identify individual abilities associated with the use of typical managerial powers such as recommending a pay increase for a worker, and recommending a worker for promotion, among other things. The data collected from this experiment will be used to determine if the exercise can be used in recruiting college graduates for supervisory or managerial jobs.

You will have five short periods of work each lasting less than ten minutes. There will be three to five minute breaks between the work periods. Four people have been hired to work on a task to be described later. These people are located in the next room.

These four people will work on a scheduling task. They will be required to make as many non-conflicting and non-duplicating course schedules as possible using any 15 business courses from the undergraduate studies bulletin of the University of South Carolina. They will be allowed 12 different course offerings. Each course offering or session has a duration of 50 minutes.

Some of you will be supervisors while others will be workers. The nature of your respective duties will be explained shortly. The way you were recruited determines your status in the experiment. Specifically, you are a supervisor if you were recruited to participate in the experiment in return for a course credit and you are a worker if you were recruited to participate in the experiment in return for \$3.

If you are a supervisor, your role in the experiment is to supervise the four workers. You will perform your duties through written communication to all or any one of the four workers. The workers will likewise transmit their messages to you in writing. Please note that it is a requirement of this exercise that workers send messages to the supervisors and that the supervisors do likewise. If you are a supervisor, you are advised to scrutinize these messages very carefully since, along with performance information, they will form the basis for any decision you make or action you take with regard to any worker."

The supervisors' messages and the workers' messages will be transmitted either way by an assistant who has been employed specifically to handle this aspect of the job. It was necessary to provide you with an assistant so that supervisors do not see or talk with the workers. We found from our previous experiments that this exercise works best when supervisors do not interact with the workers. In other words, the supervisor's knowledge of the workers in terms of what they wear, their physical characteristics, the way they talk, their voices, and whether they are males or females may influence how they perceive the workers. This, in turn, may affect how the supervisor treats the subordinates with regard to rewards, punishments and evaluations. Also, letters ("A", "B", "C", and "D"), rather than actual names, have been used to identify the workers. This is necessary so that supervisors do not associate different names with different personality characteristics or behaviors which may, in turn, bias how they evaluate the subordinates. We are trying to eliminate any non-task related cues that may influence the supervisors' actions.

Each worker will receive a basic payment of \$3 for his/her

participation in the experiment. If you are a supervisor, you have authority and power, by virtue of your job, to:

1. Promise or actually award 50 cents pay increase to any worker at the end of any work period.
2. Threaten or actually deduct 50 cents from the pay of any worker at the end of any work period.
3. Threaten to transfer a worker to another task (assuming there is an alternative task) at the end of any work period, or actually transfer the worker at the end of the third work period.
4. Recommend additional training for any worker at the end of any work period.
5. Recommend dismissal of a worker at the end of the third work period.
6. Recommend a worker for a promotion to a supervisor in a future experiment (it is understood that another experiment is planned for the near future), should there be a need for more supervisors.

It is the responsibility of the supervisors to stimulate the performance of the workers. It is therefore important that the supervisors actively use the authority and powers available to them by virtue of their supervisory position. If you are a supervisor, you are required to communicate with each of your subordinates at the beginning of every work period. The communication can contain greetings, "encouragement or task instructions, among other things. The purpose of these communications is to convey to the subordinates that you are interested in them and in what they are doing." Actually, the reason for the communications was to provide justification and credibility for

the subsequent subordinate messages (praise). In other words, the purpose was to make it look like a subordinate's praise was a direct reaction to the supervisor's message.

"At the end of each work period, the assistant will bring to the supervisor the work accomplished by each worker during that particular period and any messages a worker may have for him/her. Each worker's output and messages will be identified by his or her assigned letter (i.e. "A", "B", "C", or "D"). Also, the assistant will provide the supervisor with information on average performance on similar tasks undertaken by comparable workers during our previous experiments. To allow the supervisor sufficient time to deal with matters of managerial importance, the assistant will perform the necessary computations and only submit to the supervisor summaries of the work accomplished during any particular work period.

At the end of the first, second, third, fourth and fifth work periods, the supervisor will be required to make use of any one or several of his/her powers on the basis of the performance data and workers' messages brought to him/her by the assistant. Also at the end of the third work period the supervisor will be required to respond to a series of questions. The supervisor is advised to seriously consider both the messages and the performance data when responding to the questions. Please remember that a worker's performance in the task is measured in two ways:

- (1) Quantity of output, i.e., the number of schedules completed and
- (2) Quality of output, i.e. the number of schedules completed that have some errors. These two aspects of performance should be considered when assessing a worker's performance.

The supervisor is reminded that the success of his/her supervision will depend to a significant extent on whether and to what degree he/she makes use of the positional powers."

As part of the instructions, the subjects were told that there would be five trials (work periods). They were also told that they would be required to respond to some questions at the end of the third work period. In reality, there were only three trials. After having the subjects fill out the questionnaires at the end of the third trial, the experimenter left the room briefly. On coming back, he announced that the experiment would end at that point due to unforeseen circumstances. After this, the subjects were debriefed and then dismissed after being pledged to complete confidentiality. As part of debriefing, the subjects were asked the following questions to determine if they believed the existence of the subordinates and whether or not they guessed the "experimenter's hypothesis":

1. What do you think the experimenter was trying to get at?
2. What do you think about the subordinates?

There was no indication from the responses to question 1 that the subjects guessed the experimental hypothesis, while the responses to question 2 revealed that 2 subjects (out of a total of 54 subjects) did not believe the existence of the workers in the next room and were consequently disregarded for purposes of data analysis.

Administration of Dependent Measures

The following order was used in the administration of the measurement instruments:

1. Locus of control and self-confidence scales were administered to

the subjects immediately after they listened to and read the instructions pertaining to the experiment, but before the start of communications between them and the subordinates.

2. Measures of the "use of reward/punishment powers" (e.g. pay raise, promotion) were taken after each trial. This was necessary to establish the frequency of the use of these powers by the subjects.

3. All other measures were administered after the third, i.e. last, trial. These instruments were administered to the subjects in a counterbalanced order in order to counteract consistence effects.

The subjects were asked to:

a. evaluate each worker on a 5-point Likert-type scale on the following:

1. worker's ability;
2. worker's overall worth to the group;
3. willingness to rehire the worker for a second experiment;
4. recommending the worker for promotion to supervisor in a future experiment.

b. respond to a series of questions and statements designed to assess their

1. attributions for praise and performance
2. attraction felt toward the subordinates
3. perception of the relationship between them and each subordinate (quality of LMX)
4. attention and support for the subordinates
5. willingness to involve the subordinates in decision-making
6. perception of how much job latitude subordinates should be given.

7. confidence and trust in the subordinates

Task

The task involved course scheduling and was designed to simulate an organizational setting. It required the workers to make as many non-conflicting and non-redundant course schedules as possible using any 15 business courses from the undergraduate studies bulletin of the University of South Carolina. There were at least 12 different course offerings, with each course session or offering lasting 50 minutes. To justify the need for the undertaking, the subjects were told that the data would be used to determine if the exercise can be used for recruiting college graduates for managerial jobs.

Manipulation of Independent Variables

Two independent variables, praise and worker's performance, were experimentally manipulated.

Praise

Praise was varied at two levels using statements prepared prior to the experimental sessions. These statements, allegedly coming from the subordinates, consisted of handwritten notes specifically prepared in advance by the author and submitted to the supervisors as though they came from the subordinates. To forestall any possible suspicion by the supervisors, the preprogrammed messages were written in somewhat identical handwriting. No alleged messages from two or more subordinates were written in identical handwriting. All the messages were deliberately designed to either increase or not

increase the supervisors' liking for the subordinates. At one level the statements were carefully constructed to seduce the supervisor to believe that the subordinate meant well. It was ensured that the statement was neither too general or vague nor too exaggerated. If it were too general or vague, the supervisor would be very unlikely to discriminate between it and non other-enhancing statements that he/she receives from time to time in the course of his/her work. In other words, a general or vague statement, being neutral as it is, would be unlikely to produce any change in its recipient. On the other hand, if it were too exaggerated, it might have aroused the supervisor's suspicions of ulterior motive or manipulative intent on the part of the subordinate. This might have induced reactance in the supervisor which would, in turn, have led to hostility rather than liking towards the praiser (i.e. the subordinate).

Manipulation of Praise

Praise was manipulated at two levels, exaggerated and non-exaggerated. Praise is said to be exaggerated if it is blatantly excessive or unrealistic and, thus, is likely to lead its recipient or target to suspicions of ulterior motives on the part of the person engaged in it (praiser). Since exaggerated praise statements tend to arouse suspicion in the supervisor regarding the true intentions of the subordinate, they are unlikely to elicit the degree of attraction sought from the supervisor by the subordinate. Praise is said to be non-exaggerated if it does not lead its recipient or target to suspicions of ulterior motive on the part of the person engaged in it.

In this respect, a subordinate who uses non-exaggerated praise is very likely to increase his/her attractiveness to the supervisor.

Non-exaggerated praise

The following statements were used at non-exaggerated praise level.

Trial 1:

1. I thought you did O.K.
2. You handled your job pretty well.

Trial 2:

1. You are really nice.
2. You have done a good job.

Trial 3:

1. You are great.
2. You are a very good supervisor.

Exaggerated praise

The following statements were used at exaggerated praise level.

Trial 1:

1. You have all it takes to succeed as a supervisor.
2. Work would be such fun if every supervisor/manager was like you.

Trial 2:

1. Count on me for help. This is the least I can do to deserve your generous consideration.

2. You are a remarkable supervisor. Your abilities and talents are very impressive.

Trial 3:

1. You have admirable qualities. Indeed, you are a role model for us.
2. You are great. Your handling of your job has had a profound impact on me.

Performance

Subordinate performance was varied at two levels--superior and poor performance. Performance manipulation was done on the work sheets given to the supervisor. To manipulate this variable, work sheets depicting two subordinates performing very well (superior performance condition) and two subordinates performing poorly (poor performance condition) were delivered to supervisors at the appropriate time intervals. The work sheets showed superior performers performing consistently well and poor performers performing consistently poorly over the trials. These work sheets were prepared prior to the experimental sessions and it was insured that handwriting differences were apparent and that the supervisors consistently paired poor performance with a particular subordinate and superior performance with a different subordinate.

In order to create differential performance levels, the number of items completed and the number of errors made on each trial were manipulated. These manipulations are presented in Table 1.

Manipulation Check

It was necessary to demonstrate that the manipulation of the two independent variables, praise and performance, were effective.

Measurement items presented in Appendix I are designed precisely for this purpose.

Measures of Moderator Variables

Self-confidence

To capture this variable, the following question was asked of all subjects prior to their participation in the experiment: "How confident are you that you can effectively supervise these workers?" This question had been used successfully as a measure of self-confidence in studies conducted by Goodstadt and Kipnis (1970), Kipnis and Lane (1972), and Kipnis and Vanderveer (1971). Responses to this question were made on a 7-point scale, with a score of 1 representing a low degree of self-confidence and 7 a high degree of self-confidence.

For the purpose of data analysis, the subjects who rated their confidence at the fifth or sixth point on the scale were classified as having high confidence in their abilities to effectively supervise the workers, while those who responded at the third or fourth point were classified as having low confidence in their abilities to effectively supervise the workers (see Kipnis and Lane, 1962, for evidence concerning this classification). There were no responses at the first, second, and seventh points on the scale. 28 out of 54 subjects responded at the higher end of the scale while 26 responded at the lower end. However, the number of subjects who responded at the higher and lower ends of the scale were balanced at 26 after the two subjects who

doubted the existence of the subordinates were dropped from the sample. Thus, two groups of equal size were subsequently used to test the moderating effects of the self-confidence variable.

Locus of Control

The Internal-External Scale (Rotter, 1966) was administered to all the subjects prior to participation in the experiment. On the basis of their scores on this scale, the subjects were classified as either internals or externals.

Dependent Measures

Supervisor Attributions of Subordinate's Praise

Six questionnaire items were used to measure supervisor attributions of subordinate's praise of him/her (i.e. the supervisor). Three of these items were designed to capture attributions to a subordinate's "good or sincere intentions" and three others to "less sincere" or "ulterior motivation" or "manipulative intent" on the part of the subordinate (see Appendix A). The "less sincere attribution items" were reverse scored to place them on the same scale with the "sincere attribution items". High scores on this 6-item scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$) indicated that the supervisors attributed praise to greater sincerity of intent and low scores indicated they attributed praise to less sincerity of intent. The six items were summed to form a sincerity of intent composite or index.

Supervisors' attributions for the Subordinates' Performance

Nine questionnaire items (see Appendix B) were used to measure

supervisor attributions for the subordinates' performance. Of these nine items, three were employed to capture internal attributions, three addressed non-selfish motive attributions and the remaining three were directed at the selfish motive attributions. High scores on these three 3-item scales (Cronbach's α = .76, .58, .59, respectively) indicated that the supervisors attributed performance more internally, made higher non-selfish and selfish motive attributions, respectively. For each scale, the three items were summed to form composites or indexes for internal attributions, non-selfish motive attributions and selfish motive attributions, respectively.

Supervisor's Liking/Attraction for the Subordinates

Eight questions (See Appendix C), taken from scales developed by Jones and Gergen (1963); Jones, Stires, Shaver, and Harris (1968); and Lowe and Goldstein (1970), will be used to measure supervisor's degree of liking/attraction for/toward each subordinate. The first four items were designed to capture subordinates' attractiveness or likeableness to the supervisors and the last four items were intended to capture subordinates' unattractiveness to the supervisors. The unattractiveness items were reverse scored to place them on the same scale with the attractiveness items. In accordance with the procedures outlined by Jones, Stires, Shaver, and Harris (1968), the eight items were summed to form an attraction composite or index. High scores on the 8-item scale (Cronbach's α = .84) indicated that the supervisors found the subordinates very attractive and low scores indicated they found the subordinates much less attractive.

Quality of LMX

The 17-item LMX scale developed by Graen (1985) was used after making appropriate modifications to create a version that was suitable for use with subjects playing the role of supervisors in a laboratory setting (see Appendix D). Two of the seventeen items (items 12 and 13) could not be used in this study due to their strictly organizational focus. Item 12 asked: "How often does your immediate superior expose you to various aspects of other departments' functions within the company?" and item 13 asked: "How often does your immediate superior provide you with special information through which you can better learn company strategies?" Following the procedures provided by Graen (1985) for using the LMX scale, the 15 items (i.e. excluding items 12 and 13) were summed to form LMX composite or index. High scores on this modified 15-item scale (see Appendix D) (Cronbach's $\alpha = .78$) indicated that supervisors rated the quality of LMX (i.e. the quality of the relationship between the supervisors and the subordinates) very high. This, in Graen's terminology, meant that the subordinates in question enjoyed an in-group status. Low scores reflected a very low quality of LMX as viewed by the supervisors. In VDL language, a low quality LMX indicates an outgroup status for the subordinates concerned.

At another level of analysis, four LMX subscales were formed to create measures of supervisors' attention and support for subordinates, supervisors confidence and trust in the subordinates, subordinates' job latitude, and subordinates' participation in decision-making. Attention and support subscale comprised items 1, 2, 4, 5, 8, and 17; confidence and trust subscale consisted of items 6, 7, 11, 14, and 15; items 9 and 16 constituted decision-making and job latitude subscales, respectively.

The classification of the LMX items into the subscales was based on intuition and on previous research that used one or several of the subscales (e.g. Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975; Graen and Schiemann, 1978). Items 3 and 10 could fit into any of the four subscales and, therefore, were left out of the modified scale. Item 3 asked: "How well does your superior recognize your potential?" and item 10 asked: "How much do you show potential for analyzing the problems the way he/she (the supervisor) does?" The six attention and support items were summed to form attention and support composite or index and the five confidence and trust items were summed to form a confidence and trust composite or index, in accordance with procedures outlined by Graen (1985). High scores on each subscale indicated that the supervisors would give more attention and support to the subordinates, had more confidence and trust in the subordinates, would give more job latitude and greater opportunity for decision-making to the subordinates and the low scores indicated the reverse in each case.

Evaluations

Four items (see Appendix E) previously used in ingratiation research (e.g. Fodor, 1974; Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971) were used to measure the supervisors' overall evaluations of the subordinates. Following the procedures used in the above studies, the four ratings were summed to give a single overall evaluation score for each subordinate. High scores on the combined 4-item scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .69$) indicated that the subordinate was thought of highly by the supervisors, such that, among other things, the supervisors were willing not only to rehire

him/her for a second experiment but also to recommend him/her for a promotion to a supervisor in a second experiment.

Summary of Dependent Measures

Dependent measures consisted of the following:

1. Attributions made by the supervisors for the subordinates' praise messages, performance levels, altruistic motives and selfish motives. Attribution measures are presented in appendices A and B.
2. Attraction felt toward the subordinates by the supervisors. (Appendix C).
3. Quality of a dyad or Leader-member Exchange (LMX)--assessed from the perspective of the supervisors. (Appendix D).
4. Attention and support the supervisors expect to give to the subordinates. (Appendix D).
5. Degree of participation in decision-making the supervisors are willing to grant to the subordinates. (Appendix D).
6. The amount of job latitude (i.e. task autonomy) the supervisors are willing to give to the subordinates. (Appendix D).
7. The amount of confidence and trust the supervisors have in the subordinates. The measure is presented in appendix D.
8. The frequency with which the supervisors use each of the rewarding/punishing powers (i.e. pay increases per trial, transfer of a worker, giving or recommending additional training for a worker, deducting a worker's pay, or firing a worker). (Appendix F).
9. Evaluations of the subordinates by the supervisors on a

five-point scale on each of the following issues (Appendix E):

- a. Subordinate's ability
- b. Subordinate's overall worth to the group
- c. Supervisors' willingness to rehire the subordinate for a second experiment, given the subordinate's performance and overall conduct in the present experiment.
- d. Supervisors' willingness to recommend a worker for promotion to a supervisor in a future experiment, in case more people will be needed to work as supervisors.

Summary of Other Measures

1. Self-confidence (Appendix G).
2. Locus of control (Appendix H).
3. Manipulation check (Appendix I).

Reliability

All the multiple-item measures used in this study were tested for internal consistency using Cronbach Alpha. Alpha is the recommended measure of the internal consistency of a set of items. It is the average of all possible split-half correlations within a measure and thus serves as an estimate of homogeneity of a set of items (Nunally, 1967). A low coefficient alpha indicates that the sample of items performs poorly in capturing the construct which motivated the measure. Conversely, a large alpha indicates that the items correlate well with true scores (Churchill, 1979).

Data Analysis

Hypotheses 1 through 6 were analyzed using multivariate repeated measures analysis of variance, with attributions (i.e. sincerity of intent, internal, non-selfish motive, selfish motive), attraction, and LMX as the criterion variables, and praise and performance as the major predictor variables. Self-confidence and locus of control were used as moderator variables. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test hypothesis 7.

CHAPTER IV

Results

In this chapter, the results of the experimental tests of the hypotheses derived from the model outlined in Chapter 2 are presented. The results of the statistical analysis are reviewed for each hypothesis or section of hypothesis. Since it was necessary to use different approaches or procedures to evaluate hypotheses focusing on different parts of the model, some supporting statistical information and the variables involved are provided. The major focus throughout the chapter is on whether or not the results provide sufficient evidence to support the major predictions of the study. However, before this is done, evidence is presented to ascertain if (1) the manipulation of the independent variables was successful and (2) the measurement scales used to collect the data were sufficiently reliable.

Reliabilities of the Scales

The results of the measures of internal consistency of the scale items are presented in Table 3. As shown in the table, the reliability coefficients ranged from 0.58 for "altruistic motive attributions" scale to 0.84 for both the praise attributions and attraction scales. These coefficients are reasonably high for this kind of study. Nunally (1967) suggested that alpha coefficient levels of .5 to .6, .7 to .8, and .9 to .95 are sufficient for exploratory, basic, and applied research, respectively.

Table 3

Internal Consistency Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) of the
Dependent Measures

Measure	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Attributions of Praise	6	0.84
Attributions of Performance to:		
Internal factors	3	0.76
Non-selfish motives	3	0.58
Selfish/Manipulative motives	3	0.59
Attraction	8	0.84
Evaluation	4	0.69
Leader-member-exchange (LMX)	15	0.78
LMX Subscales*:		
Leader support and attention	8	0.69
Leader confidence and trust	6	0.62

*Due to insufficient number of items (less than 2 in each case) coefficient alpha could not be computed for participation in decision-making and job latitude subscales. This is explained in more details later in the chapter.

Manipulation Check

As was explained in the methodology section, the messages used to manipulate the praise variable were selected after analyzing presurvey responses of 58 subjects to a pool of 39 messages. Six messages with the highest mean scores were used at the exaggerated/excessive praise level while the 6 messages with the lowest mean scores were used at the non-exaggerated praise level. Also, a manipulation check for both the praise and performance variables was done with the subjects involved in the main study using single-item measures (see Appendix I). The praise check required the supervisor to rate, on a 5-point scale ranging from "to no extent" to "to a very great extent", the extent to which each subordinate's messages were exaggerated, excessive or unrealistic. The performance check required the supervisor to rate the overall performance of each subordinate on a 5-point scale ranging from very poor to excellent.

Two separate repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVA) tests were performed on the praise and performance data. For praise, the mean ratings for subordinates "A" (with non-exaggerated messages), "B" (with exaggerated messages), "C" (with non-exaggerated messages), and "D" (with exaggerated messages) were, respectively, 1.65, 4.19, 2.89, and 3.79. The difference between the means was significant, $F(1,51) = 28.54, P < .001$, clearly indicating that praise manipulation was effective. For performance, the mean ratings for subordinates "A", "B", "C", and "D" were, respectively, 4.17, 3.65, 2.37, and 2.08, showing that the two subordinates with the best performance records (i.e. "A" and "B") had the highest and the second highest mean ratings, while "C" and "D" (with the second lowest and the lowest performance

Table 4

Praise and Performance Manipulation Effects on the Ratings of the Subordinates ("A," "B," "C," and "D,") by the Supervisors.

Treatment Variable	Mean Ratings				F	P <
	"A"	"B"	"C"	"D"		
Praise	3.79	4.19	1.65	2.89	28.54	.0001
Performance	4.17	3.65	2.37	2.08	9.86	.005

records) had the second lowest and the lowest mean ratings, respectively. The ANOVA test showed that these mean differences were significant, $F(1,51) = 9.86$, $p < .01$, showing that the performance manipulation was successful.

It is worth noting that in the factorial analysis of variance for praise, the main effect for performance was not significant, as was praise x performance interaction. Similarly, in the case of analysis of variance for performance, the main effect for praise and the praise x performance interaction were not significant. These findings are important since they show that praise manipulation did not have unintended effect on the performance manipulation and that performance manipulation, in turn, did not have unintended effect on praise manipulation. In other words, the manipulations were not confounded, in that they did not have an effect on the independent variable other than the one they were individually intended to manipulate.

Post hoc tests conducted using one-way analysis of variance showed that the mean rating for the exaggerated praise ($\bar{x} = 3.99$) condition was significantly higher, $F(1, 51) = 17.30$, $p < .001$, than that for nonexaggerated praise ($\bar{x} = 2.27$). Comparison of the mean ratings for the superior performance ($\bar{x} = 3.91$) and poor performance ($\bar{x} = 2.25$) conditions was also significant, $F(1, 51) = 16.95$, $p < .001$, and in the expected direction. These tests clearly indicated that both praise and performance manipulations were effective.

Multivariate Results

The results of the multivariate repeated measures analysis of variance are reported in Table 5. As shown in the table, these

Table 5

Multivariate Analysis of Variance Summary for Attributions of Praise and performance (Internal, Non-Selfish Motives, Selfish Motives), Attraction, and Leader-Member-Exchange.

Source of Variation	DF	F
Praise (P)	7, 44	78.11*
Performance (PER)	7, 44	106.73*
Locus of Control (LC)	7, 44	6.40*
Self-Confidence (SC)	7, 44	9.00*
P X PER	7, 44	138.09*
P X LC	7, 44	9.39*
P X SC	7, 44	11.28*
PER X LC	7, 44	15.56*
PER X SC	7, 44	19.39*
LC X SC	7, 44	1.95
P X PER X LC	7, 44	2.35
P X PER X SC	7, 44	0.60
P X LC X SC	7, 44	0.04
PER X LC X SC	7, 44	0.82
P X PER X LC X SC	7, 44	0.007

*P < .0001

analyses produced multivariate main effects attributable to (1) praise, $F(7, 44) = 78.11, p < .001$, (2) performance, $F(7, 44) = 106.73, p < .001$, (3) Locus of control, $F(7, 44) = 6.40, p < .001$, and (4) self-confidence, $F(7, 44) = 9.00, p < .001$. These main effects indicate that the supervisors' responses on the six scales of the dyadic upward influence model when considered together were significantly higher (1) when praise was non-exaggerated than when it was exaggerated, (2) when performance was superior than when it was poor, (3) when the respondents (i.e. supervisors) had high self-confidence compared to when the respondents (i.e. supervisors) had low self-confidence, and (4) when the respondents (i.e. supervisors) had internal locus of control compared to when the respondents (i.e. supervisors) had external locus of control. However, one has to be cautious in interpreting these significant main effects given the significant interactions between (1) praise and performance, $F(7, 44) = 138.09, p < .001$ (2) praise and locus of control, $F(7, 44) = 9.39, p < .001$, (3) praise and self-confidence, $F(7, 44) = 11.28, p < .001$, (4) performance and locus of control, $F(7, 44) = 15.56, p < .001$, and (5) performance and self-confidence, $F(7, 44) = 19.39, p < .001$, which indicate that there was significantly higher response by the supervisors (1) as a result of non-exaggerated praise only when performance was poor, (2) as a result of superior performance only when praise was exaggerated, (3) as a result of non-exaggerated praise and superior performance only when the supervisors had external locus of control and low self-confidence.

Univariate Results

The rest of this chapter is devoted to a review of the univariate

statistical analysis for each hypothesis.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There were three sections to Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1a predicted that supervisors would attribute the subordinates' praise to a greater sincerity of intent when the praise was non-exaggerated and to less sincerity of intent when the praise was exaggerated. Hypothesis 1b stated that supervisors would attribute the subordinates' praise to greater sincerity of intent when the subordinates' performance was superior and to less sincerity of intent when the subordinates' performance was poor. Hypothesis 1c indicated that there would be a two-way interaction between praise and performance such that when the subordinates' performance was poor, non-exaggerated praise would lead to greater attributions of praise to sincere intent, while there would be a smaller or no difference in the attributions by the supervisors to sincere intent when the performance was superior.

To test these hypotheses, the dependent variable of interest, i.e. the supervisors' attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent was analyzed using a 2 x 2 repeated measures analysis of variance with two levels of praise, non-exaggerated and exaggerated, and two levels of performance, superior and poor. The F ratios for these analyses are presented in Table 6, while the associated means for the two levels of praise and the two levels of performance are reported in Table 7. Univariate ANOVA revealed main effects for praise, $F(1, 50) = 9.4$, $P < .001$, and performance, $F(1, 50) = 161.50$, $P < .001$.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects
on Attributions of Praise

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	W ²
Praise (P)	1, 50	19.47	9.4**	0.03
Performance (PER)	1, 50	333.27	161**	0.58
P X PER	1, 50	33.39	17.10**	0.06
Error	1, 48	2.07		

* P < .05

** P < .01

*** P < .001

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations (in brackets) for Attributions of Praise Across the Treatment Variables

	Non-Exaggerated Praise	Exaggerated Praise	
Superior Performance	3.60 (1.92)	3.60 (1.89)	7.20
Poor Performance	2.40 (1.10)	1.00 (0.85)	3.40
	6.00	4.60	

The significant effect for praise was due to a tendency by the supervisors to make greater attributions of sincere intent when praise was non-exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 6.00$) than when it was exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 4.60$), while performance main effect resulted from the tendency by the supervisors to attribute praise to greater sincerity of intent when performance was superior ($\bar{x} = 7.20$) than when performance was poor ($\bar{x} = 3.40$).

As shown in Table 6, a significant interaction, $F(1,50) = 17.10$, $p < .001$, for praise x performance on the supervisors' attributions of praise to sincere intent was found, thus providing support for hypothesis 1c. The pattern of this significant interaction is shown in Figure 2. As the interaction plot in the figure shows, the level of subordinate's performance appears to be a necessary condition for the differential effect of non-exaggerated and exaggerated praise on the supervisors' attributions of praise to sincere intent. Clearly, as the level of the subordinate's performance changes from poor to superior, the supervisors' tendency to make attributions to sincere intent increases at a faster rate when praise is exaggerated than when it is not exaggerated.

It is interesting to note from Table 6 that performance ($w^2 = 0.58$) was far more potent as an explanation for variance in the attributions of praise than either praise ($w^2 = 0.03$) or praise x performance interaction ($w^2 = 0.06$).

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 consisted of 5 parts. Hypothesis 2a predicted that the supervisors' attributions of the subordinates' performance to internal

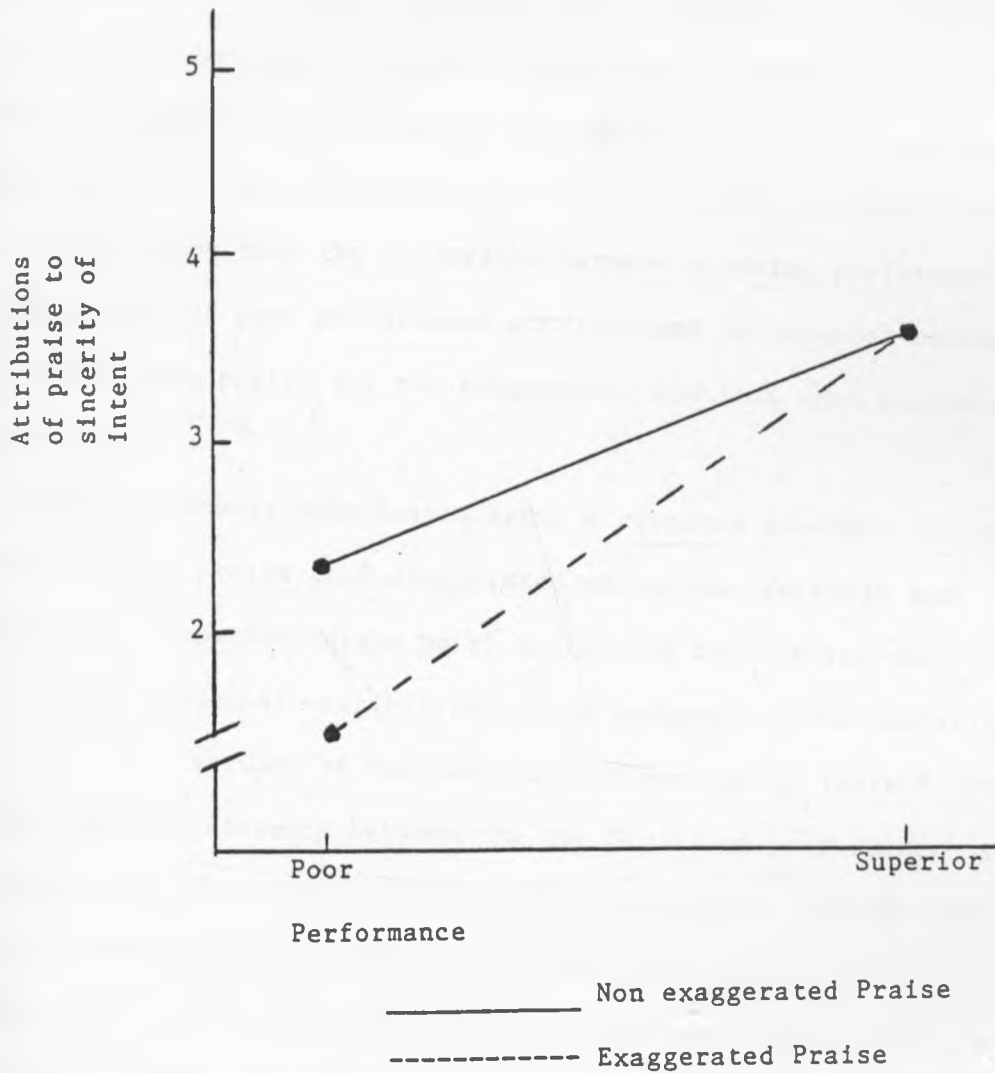


Figure 2. Interaction plot for attribution of praise to sincerity of intent.

factors would be higher under non-exaggerated praise conditions and lower under exaggerated praise conditions. Hypothesis 2b stated that supervisors' attributions of subordinates' performance to internal factors would be higher when the subordinates' performance was superior and lower when the subordinates' performance was poor. Hypothesis 2c suggested that there would be a two-way interaction between praise and performance such that the difference between superior performance attributions and poor performance attributions to internal causes would be greater when praise was non-exaggerated and less when praise was exaggerated.

These hypotheses were tested using a repeated measures analysis of variance, with praise (non-exaggerated versus exaggerated) and performance (superior versus poor) as the two factors and the supervisors' internal attributions of performance as the criterion variable. The results of this analysis, presented in Table 8, revealed a significant difference between the two levels of performance, superior and poor, $F(1,50) = 15.8, p < .001$, with supervisors demonstrating a greater tendency to make internal attributions when performance was superior ($\bar{x} = 8.15$) than when performance was poor ($\bar{x} = 5.05$). These mean scores are shown in Table 9. Table 8 also shows a significant main effect of praise, $F(1,50) = 26.83, P < .001$, with supervisors displaying a tendency to make more internal attributions for the subordinates' performance when praise was not exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 8.15$) than when praise was exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 5.05$). A significant interaction was found between praise and performance, $F(1, 50) = 4.94, p < .05$, indicating that the effect of a subordinate's performance on a supervisor's attributions of performance to internal causes was dependent on whether the praise was

Table 8

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects on the Internal Attributions of Performance

Source of variation	DF	MS	F	W ²
Praise (P)	1, 50	45.68	26.83**	0.23
Performance (PER)	1, 50	16.95	15.80**	0.08
P X PER	1, 50	11.12	4.95*	0.05
Error	1, 48	2.25		

* $P < .05$

** $P < .001$

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations (in brackets) for Internal Attributions of Performance Across the Treatment Variables

	Non-Exaggerated Praise	Exaggerated Praise	
Superior Performance	5.50 (1.77)	2.65 (1.31)	8.15
Poor Performance	2.65 (1.36)	2.40 (1.28)	5.05
	8.15	5.05	

non-exaggerated or exaggerated. Figure 3 depicts this form of interaction. As the plot in the figure shows, the tendency by the supervisors to make more internal attributions for the subordinates' performance when such performance was superior (as opposed to poor) was greater when the praise was not exaggerated and less when the praise was exaggerated.

Also shown in Table 8 are the effect sizes, measured by omega squared (ω^2). The performance main effect accounted for 8%, while the main effect for praise and the interaction term accounted for 23%, and 5%, respectively, of the unique variance in the supervisors' attribution of performance to internal causes.

Hypotheses 2d predicted that the supervisors would be more inclined to attribute superior performance to non-selfish motives (e.g. sheer interest in the task, commitment to the task and the work group, or a desire for accomplishment for its own sake) when praise was non-exaggerated than when it was exaggerated. Hypothesis 2e stated that the supervisors would be more inclined to attribute superior performance to selfish motives (e.g. a desire for pay raise, a desire to avoid possible pay reduction, or a desire for approval by the supervisor) when praise was exaggerated than when it was not exaggerated.

The univariate results from the repeated measures analysis of variance reported in Table 10 provide support for both hypothesis H2d and H2e. The results reveal a main effect for praise, $F(1,50) = 118.34$, $P < .001$, such that superior performance is attributed more to non-selfish motives when the praise is not exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 3.62$) than when it is exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 2.13$). This main effect accounted for 46% of the unique variance explained in the supervisors' attributions of

Table 10

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects on Non-Selfish and Selfish Motive Attributions

Dependent Variable and Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	η^2
Attributions of Superior Performance to Non-Selfish Motives				
Praise (P)	1, 50	34.67	118.34*	0.46
Performance (PER)	1, 50	16.45	2.40	
P X PER	1, 50	8.04	0.98	
Error	1, 50	0.29		
Attributions of Superior Performance to Selfish Motives				
Praise (P)	1, 50	87.71	81.81*	0.57
Performance (PER)	1, 50	0.09	0.39	
P X PER	1, 50	12.55	1.85	
Error	1, 50	1.07		

* $P < .001$

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations Across Treatment Variables

Dependent Variable	Praise				Performance			
	Non Exaggerated		Exaggerated		Superior		Poor	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Performance Attributions								
Non-Selfish Motives	3.62	1.04	2.13	1.30	3.42	1.64	3.30	0.96
Selfish Motives	2.02	0.84	5.01	1.22	3.78	1.08	3.70	1.08

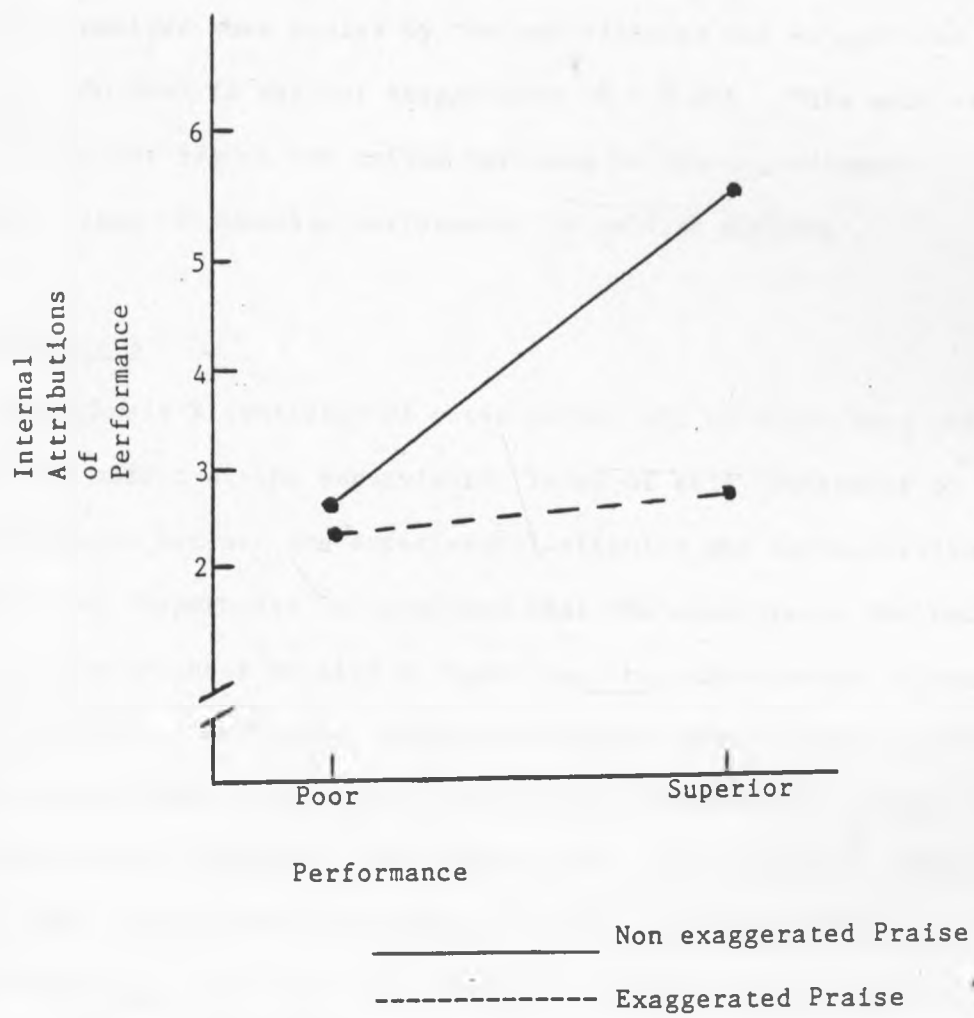


Figure 3. Interaction plot for internal attributions of performance.

superior performance to non-selfish motives. Also, a significant difference between the two levels of praise, non-exaggerated and exaggerated, $F(1, 50) = 81.81, P < .001$, was obtained, suggesting a greater tendency by the supervisors to attribute superior performance to selfish motives when praise by the subordinates was exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 5.01$) than when it was not exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 2.02$). This main effect accounted for 57% of the unique variance in the supervisors' attributions of superior performance to selfish motives.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 consisted of three parts, all of which were concerned with the effect of the supervisors' level of self-confidence on the relationship between the experimental stimulus and the supervisors' responses. Hypotheses 3a predicted that the supervisors who had high confidence in their ability to supervise the subordinates effectively would be more likely to attribute the subordinates' praise to sincere intent than their counterparts who had low confidence in their ability to effectively supervise the subordinates. Hypothesis 3b predicted that both high and low confidence supervisors would be more likely to attribute praise by the subordinates to sincere intent when the praise was not exaggerated than when it was exaggerated, but the difference would be greater for high confidence supervisors and less for low confidence supervisors. In hypothesis 3c, a similar prediction was made for the performance variable. This hypothesis stated that the supervisors' attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent would be greater when performance was superior and less when

performance was poor, but the difference would be more pronounced in the case of high confidence supervisors.

The results of the analyses of variance conducted for these hypotheses are presented in Table 12, while the associated means and standard deviations, are reported in Table 13. The results show a significant main effect for self-confidence, $F(1, 50) = 15.89, p < .01$. This main effect indicates that, independent of the subordinates' performance levels and the nature of the praise (i.e. whether non-exaggerated or exaggerated), the supervisors showed sharp differences in their attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent, with the supervisors who had high confidence in their ability to effectively supervise the subordinates displaying a greater tendency to attribute the subordinates' praise to sincere intent ($\bar{x} = 9.40$) than their peers who had low confidence in their ability to effectively supervise the subordinates ($\bar{x} = 4.60$). 5% of the unique variance in the supervisors' attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent was accounted for by self-confidence. In addition to the self-confidence main effect, the self-confidence x praise interaction was significant, $F(1, 50) = 3.74, P < .05$. As seen in Figure 4, the major cause of this interaction was the sharp difference in the attributions of praise to sincere intent by the high and low confidence supervisors when performance was superior and the sharp decline in that difference when the performance was poor. This interaction term accounted for 1% of the unique variance in the supervisors' attributions of praise to sincere intent. As evident from the foregoing, hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported. For hypothesis 3c, although the cell mean differences were in the predicted direction, they failed to achieve

Table 12

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects of Self-Confidence on Attributions of Praise

Source of Variation				
Praise (P)	1, 50	19.47	9.40**	0.03
Performance (PER)	1, 50	333.27	161***	0.58
Self-Confidence (SC)	1, 50	32.89	15.89**	0.05
P X SC	1, 50	7.74	3.74*	0.01
PER X SC	1, 50	6.21	3.00	
Error	1, 48	2.07		

* P < .05

** P < .01

*** P < .001

Table 13

Means and Standard Deviations (in brackets) for Attributions of Praise Across the Praise and Self-Confidence Variables

	Non-Exaggerated Praise	Exaggerated Praise	
High Confidence	4.70 (1.47)	4.70 (1.63)	9.40
Low Confidence	2.40 (1.30)	2.20 (1.11)	4.60
	7.10	6.90	

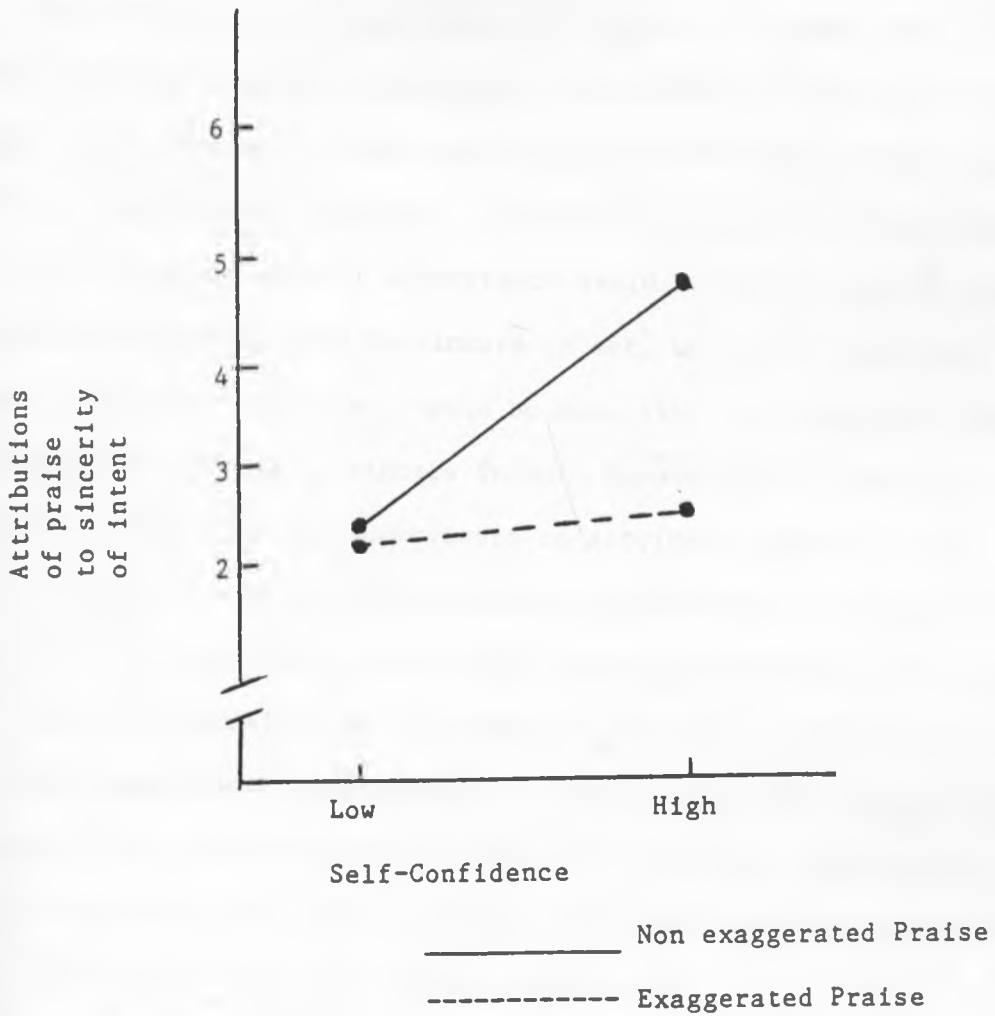


Figure 4. Interaction plot for the effect of self-confidence on attributions of praise to sincerity of intent.

acceptable statistical significance level. Thus hypothesis 3b was not supported.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4, like hypothesis 3, consisted of three parts, each of which addressed a different aspect of the effect of the supervisors' locus of control on the relationship between the experimental treatments and the supervisors' responses. Hypothesis 4a predicted that the external locus of control supervisors would be less likely to attribute the subordinates' praise to sincere intent, while the internal locus of control supervisors would be more likely to attribute the subordinates' praise to sincere intent. Hypothesis 4b predicted a greater tendency by the supervisors to attribute praise by the subordinates to sincere intent when the praise was not exaggerated than when it was exaggerated, with a more pronounced difference occurring in the case of internal locus of control supervisors. Hypothesis 4c stated that the supervisors' attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent would be greater when performance was superior and less when performance was poor, but this difference would be greater in the case of internal locus of control supervisors.

Repeated measures analysis of variance was used to test the above hypotheses. The results are presented in Table 14. The results indicate that hypothesis 4a was supported, $F(1, 50) = 3.25, p < .05$. As seen in Table 15, the internal locus of control supervisors had a higher marginal mean score for attributions of praise to sincere intent than the external locus of control supervisors

Table 14

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects of Locus of Control on Attributions of Praise

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	W ²
Praise (P)	1, 50	19.47	9.40**	0.03
Performance (PER)	1, 50	333.27	161***	0.58
Locus of Control (LC)	1, 50	6.73	3.25*	0.008
P X LC	1, 50	19.19	9.27*	0.03
PER X LC	1, 50	5.18	2.50	
Error	1, 48			

* P < .05

** P < .01

*** P < .001

Table 15

Means and Standard Deviations (in brackets) for Attributions of Praise Across Praise and Locus of Control Variables

	Non-Exaggerated Praise	Exaggerated Praise	
Internal Locus of Control	3.70 (1.0)	2.70 (1.2)	6.40
External Locus of Control	2.00 (0.56)	1.70 (1.4)	3.70
	5.70	4.40	

($\bar{x} = 6.40 > \bar{x} = 3.70$). Thus, as hypothesized, attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent were affected by the supervisors' locus of control. Hypothesis 4b was also supported. As expected, attributions of praise to sincere intent were affected by both the supervisors' locus of control and the nature of praise, i.e. whether exaggerated or not exaggerated, $F(1, 50) = 9.27, p < .05$. The results of this interaction are presented graphically in Figure 5. As the plot depicts, attributions of praise to sincere intent declined at a faster rate for the internal locus of control supervisors and at a slower rate for their external locus of control counterparts when the level of praise changed from non-exaggerated to exaggerated. The implication of this finding is that the effect of the level of praise (i.e. whether non-exaggerated or exaggerated) on an individual's attributions of praise to sincere intent depends on the individual's locus of control, with an internal locus of control producing a greater effect than a high an external locus of control. The data in Table 14 indicate that hypothesis 4c was not supported. The locus of control x performance interaction was not significant, suggesting that the level of performance had no effect on the relationship between the supervisors' locus of control and their attributions of the subordinates' praise to sincere intent.

The locus of control main effect and the praise x locus of control interaction accounted for 0.8% and 3%, respectively, of the unique variance in the attributions of praise.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 was subdivided into three parts, each focusing on a

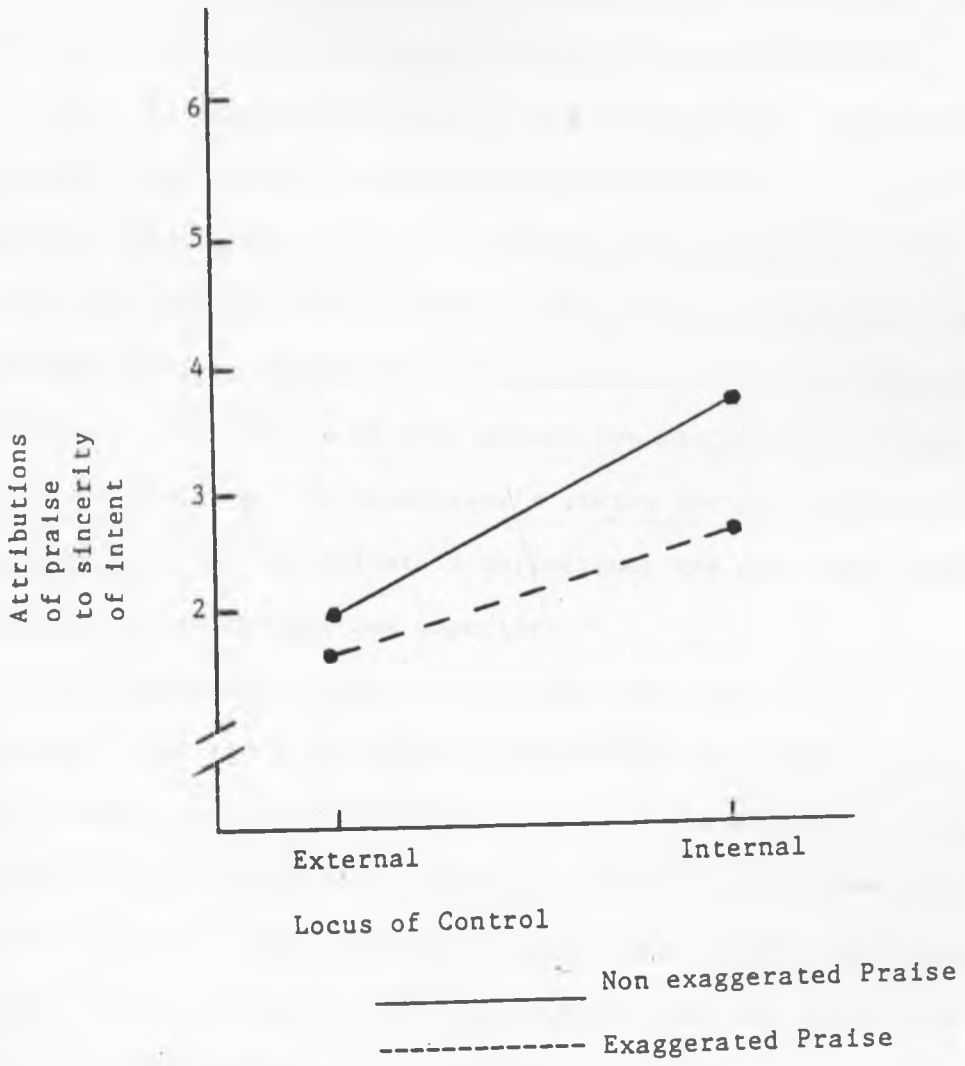


Figure 5. Interaction plot for the effect of locus of control on attributions of praise to sincerity of intent.

specific aspect of the relationship between the treatment variables (i.e. praise and performance) and attraction/liking. Hypothesis 5a predicted that when a supervisor was praised by a subordinate, the supervisor would develop a greater liking for the subordinate if the praise was not exaggerated than if it was exaggerated. Hypothesis 5b predicted a main effect for the performance variable. It stated that a supervisor would develop a greater liking for a subordinate with superior performance record and less liking for a subordinate with poor performance record. Hypothesis 5c predicted a praise x performance interaction. The essence of this prediction was that the effect of a subordinate's praise on a supervisor's liking for the subordinate would be greater when the subordinate's performance was poor and less when the subordinate's performance was superior.

Repeated measures analysis of variance was used to test these hypotheses. The ANOVA data and the associated means and standard deviations are presented in Tables 16 and 17, respectively. As expected, Hypothesis 5a was supported. The main effect for praise was found, $F(1, 50) = 12.79, P < .001$, indicating significant differences between the supervisors' liking for the subordinates when the praise was not exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 3.93$) and the supervisors' liking for the subordinates when the praise was exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 3.09$). Hypothesis 5b also received support. The data revealed a significant difference between the two levels of performance, superior and poor, $F(1, 50) = 35.31, P < .001$, with the supervisors showing greater liking for the subordinates with superior performance records ($\bar{x} = 4.13$) and less liking for the subordinates with poor performance records ($\bar{x} = 2.90$).

The hypothesized praise x performance interaction failed to reach

Table 16

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects on Attraction

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	W ²
Praise	1,50	36.08	12.79*	0.14
Performance (PER)	1, 50	78.41	35.31*	0.33
P X PER	1, 50	6.13	2.45	
Error	1, 48	2.22		

* P<.001

Table 17

Means and Standard Deviations for Attraction Across Treatment Variables

	Means	Standard Deviations
Praise		
Non-Exaggerated	3.93	1.79
Exaggerated	3.09	1.66
Performance		
Superior	4.13	2.08
Poor	2.90	1.09

acceptable statistical significance level, suggesting that the magnitude of the difference between the supervisors' liking for the subordinates when praise was not exaggerated and their liking for the subordinates when praise was exaggerated was not affected significantly by the level of performance.

It is worth noting that performance ($w^2 = 0.33$) once more appears to account for a slightly greater variance in attraction than praise ($w^2 = 0.14$).

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 addressed three different but related aspects of the effects of the independent variables (praise and performance) on the dependent variable (LMX). Hypothesis 6a predicted that when a supervisor was praised by a subordinate, the supervisor would be likely to rate his/her relationship with the subordinate more highly if the praise was not exaggerated than if it was exaggerated. Hypothesis 6b predicted a main effect for the performance variable. It suggested that a supervisor's rating of his/her relationship with a subordinate would increase following praise of the supervisor by the subordinate if the subordinate's performance was superior than when it was poor.

Hypothesis 6c stated that there would be a praise x performance interaction such that the effect of a subordinate's praise on the supervisor's rating of the relationship between him/her and the subordinate due to the level of praise (i.e. non-exaggerated versus exaggerated) would be greater when the subordinate's performance was poor and less when the subordinate's performance was superior.

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA, was used to test the three above

hypotheses. The results are presented in Table 18. As hypothesized, the tests revealed a significant main effect for praise, $F(1, 50) = 128.29$, $P < .001$, providing support for Hypothesis 6a. The praise main effect was due to the supervisors' rating their relationships with their subordinates significantly higher when praise was not exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 7.05$) than when it was exaggerated ($\bar{x} = 3.25$). However, this main effect has to be qualified in view of the significant interaction between praise and performance in which there was significant difference in the ratings only when performance was superior, $F(1, 50) = 16.85$, $P < .001$. This form of interaction is depicted graphically in Figure 6. The data provided no support for hypothesis 6b. In other words, no significant differences were obtained for the supervisors' ratings of their relationships with the subordinates with different levels of performance (superior versus poor).

As can be seen in Table 18, of the 67% unique variance in the LMX variable accounted for by the treatment variables, 60% was due to praise, while only 7% was attributable to the interaction between praise and performance.

Hypothesis 7

Attraction does not have an independent effect on attention and support, on confidence and trust, on participation in decision-making, on job latitude, on performance evaluations, on use of rewards, and on use of punishments; it affects these outcome variables indirectly, through its influence on LMX.

To test the above hypothesis, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed on each of the dependent variables. In these analyses, LMX,

Table 18

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Univariate Effects on LMX

Source of Variation	DF	MS	F	W ²
Praise (P)	1, 50	163.95	128.39*	0.60
Performance (PER)	1, 50	21.82	1.32	
P X PER	1, 50	21.57	16.85*	0.07
Error	1, 48	1.28		

* P < .001

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations (in Brackets) for Evaluation of the Quality of LMX Across the Treatment Variables

	Non-Exaggerated Praise	Exaggerated Praise	
Superior Performance	4.20 (1.49)	3.20 (1.22)	7.40
Poor Performance	2.85 (2.02)	0.5 (1.07)	2.90
	7.05	3.25	

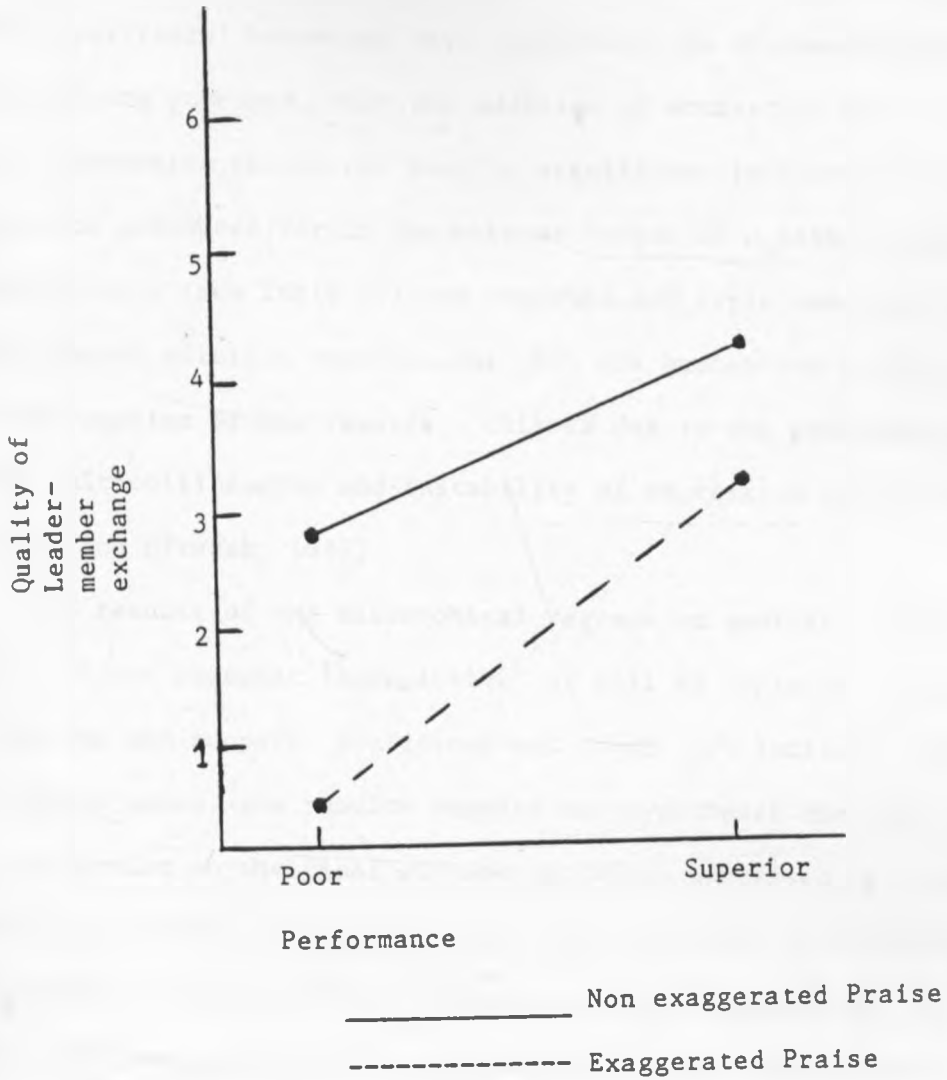


Figure 6. Interaction plot for praise x performance on supervisor ratings of the quality of LMX.

attraction, and LMX by attraction interaction were introduced into the regression equation for each dependent variable in a stepwise fashion. In this regard, if LMX is the primary intervening variable influencing the supervisors' behaviors with respect to the aforementioned subordinate outcomes, then the addition of attraction and attraction by LMX interaction should not lead to significant increments in the variance accounted for in the outcome variables. Although beta coefficients (see Table 20) are reported and explained, the increase in the squared multiple correlations (R^2) are emphasized in the interpretation of the results. This is due to the problems associated with multicollinearity and instability of regression coefficients (see Oldham and Hitzhak, 1987).

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis reported in Table 20 are somewhat inconclusive, as will be explained shortly. For attention and support, confidence and trust, job latitude, and the use of reward power, the results support the hypothesis that the influence of attraction on the final outcome variables specified in the model is indirect, through its impact on LMX. In contrast, attraction had independent and significant influence on participation in decision-making ($R^2 = 16\%$), evaluations of the subordinates' performance ($R^2 = 24\%$) and use of punishment power ($R^2 = 26\%$). Thus, supervisor perception of the quality of leader-member exchange was the immediate precursor of attention and support, confidence and trust, job latitude, and the use of reward power. In other words, change occurred in these outcome variables only as a result of the impact of attraction on LMX. However, the impact of attraction on LMX was not necessary for the changes that occurred in participation in decision-making,

Table 20

Summary of Hierarchical Analysis of the Effects of Attraction and LMX on the VDL Outcome Variables

Dependent Variable	R ²	Δ R ²	Beta Coefficient (B)
Attention and Support			
LMX	.45***	.45***	.24**
Attraction	.47***	.02	.04
LMX by Attraction	.51***	.04	.07
Confidence and Trust			
LMX	.50***	.50***	.29**
Attraction	.55***	.05	.31
LMX by Attraction	.56***	.01	.009
Decision-Making			
LMX	.09	.09	.004
Attraction	.25**	.16*	.11
LMX by Attraction	.25**	.00	.12
Job Latitude			
LMX	.11	.11	.008
Attraction	.19*	.08	.005
LMX by Attraction	.19*	.00	.00
Evaluations			
LMX	.45***	.45***	.24**
Attraction	.69***	.24**	.14*
LMX by Attraction	.71***	.02	.003
Use of Rewards			
LMX	.27**	.27*	.16*
Attraction	.34***	.07	.004
LMX by Attraction	.36***	.02	.003
Use of Punishments			
LMX	.31**	.31**	.21*
Attraction	.57***	.26**	.17*
LMX by Attraction	.57***	.00	.10

* P < .05

** P < .01

*** P < .001

evaluations of the subordinates' performance, and the use of punishment power by the supervisors.

There was no significant increment in the multiple squared correlation associated with the product variable (i.e. attraction by LMX interaction). Thus all the outcome variables covered by this hypothesis were not a joint function of the interaction of attraction and LMX. This means that the quality of LMX is not a necessary condition for attraction to influence the aforementioned outcome variables.

Table 20 also presents regression coefficients for each of the seven dependent variables. Examination of the magnitude and significance of the regression coefficients without each equation permits assessment of the direct effect of each variable in the equation on the dependent variables (e.g. evaluations), while holding the other variable constant. Also, an examination of the regression coefficients across equations facilitates the understanding of the indirect effects, if any, the variable may have (see, for example, Pedhazur, 1982 for a more detailed discussion of these issues). As can be seen in Table 20, LMX and attraction each exhibited significant coefficients with confidence and trust ($\beta = .29$ and $.31$, respectively), with evaluations ($\beta = .24$ and $.14$, respectively), and with the use of punishment power ($\beta = .21$ and $.17$, respectively). LMX alone had significant coefficient with attention and support, and the use of reward power.

It is noteworthy that all the effects that had insignificant squared multiple correlation (R^2) also had insignificant beta coefficients. Of particular interest is the fact that none of the beta coefficients for attraction attained a level of statistical significance when the beta coefficients for LMX within the same equation were not significant. It

would seem from this that attraction did not have an independent or direct effect on the dependent variables of interest. Taken together with squared multiple correlations (R^2), these findings imply support for the hypothesis that attraction affects the outcome variables of interest through LMX, and not directly. However, the fact that LMX had significant beta coefficients in two cases (i.e. with attention and support and the use of rewards) while attraction had none in the same cases would appear to suggest that, in certain cases, LMX did not depend on attraction for its effects on the outcome variables.

Summary of Results

The results from the analyses of the hypotheses tested in the present study were summarized in the following section. The summary simply consisted of a list of the major findings with very brief explanations. The discussion of the broad implications of the findings was reserved for chapter 5.

1. The hypothesized effect of praise on the supervisors' attributions of sincerity of intent was supported. That is, the more non-exaggerated the praise the greater were the attributions of sincerity of intent.

2. Performance produced the predicted effect on the supervisors' attributions of sincerity of intent. That is, the more superior the performance was, the greater were the attributions of sincerity of intent.

3. The Praise x Performance interaction was significant, indicating that non-exaggerated praise led to greater attributions of sincerity of intent, but only when performance was poor.

4. Both praise and performance produced the hypothesized effects on attributions of performance to internal causes. That is, the more superior the performance, the greater was the supervisors' tendency to attribute performance internally, and the less exaggerated the praise, the greater was the supervisors' tendency to attribute performance internally.

5. The predicted performance x praise interaction on internal attributions was significant. The supervisors' tendency to attribute superior performance internally was greater when praise was non-exaggerated and less when praise was exaggerated.

6. Praise produced the hypothesized effect on the attributions of non-selfish and selfish motives. That is, the less exaggerated the praise, the greater were the attributions of superior performance to non-selfish motives, while the more exaggerated the praise, the greater were the attributions of superior performance to selfish motives.

7. As hypothesized, the effects of self-confidence x performance interaction on the attributions of sincerity of intent were significant. In other words, when performance was poor as opposed to when it was superior, the supervisors who had high confidence in their ability to effectively supervise the subordinates made significantly more attributions of sincerity of intent than the supervisors who had low confidence in their ability to effectively supervise the subordinates.

8. There was no support for the predicted self-confidence x praise interaction on the attributions of sincerity of intent, suggesting that the effect of self-confidence on the attributions of sincerity of intent was not influenced by the level of praise.

9. Both the locus of control and the locus of control x praise

interaction had the expected effects on the attributions of sincerity of intent. The internally controlled supervisors made greater attributions of sincerity of intent than did the externally controlled supervisors, but only when praise was non-exaggerated.

10. The expected interaction effect between the locus of control and performance on the attributions of sincerity of intent was not significant, indicating that the effect of locus of control on the attributions of sincerity of intent was not influenced by the level of performance.

11. Both praise and performance produced the hypothesized effects on the attraction/liking measure, with the supervisors showing greater liking for the subordinates when praise was non-exaggerated and, also, when performance was superior.

12. The hypothesized praise x performance interaction effect on attraction/liking was not supported, suggesting that the supervisors' liking for the subordinates' due to praise was not affected by the level of performance.

13. Both the praise and the praise x performance interaction had the predicted effect on the supervisors' ratings of the quality of leader-member-exchange (LMX), in the sense that the supervisors perceived a high quality of leader-member exchange when praise was non-exaggerated than when it was exaggerated, but more so when performance was poor than when it was superior.

14. There was no support for the predicted performance effect on the supervisors' ratings of the quality of leader-member exchange, showing that the level of the subordinates' performance had no influence on the supervisors' perceptions regarding their exchange relationships

with the subordinates.

15. As hypothesized, the effect of attraction on attention and support, confidence and trust, job latitude, and the use of reward power is indirect, through its influence on LMX.

16. Contrary to the prediction, LMX did not mediate the effect of attraction on subordinate participation in decision-making, supervisors evaluations of subordinate performance, and supervisor use of punishment power. In other words, attraction had independent and significant effect on these outcome variables.

17. Attraction by LMX interaction was not significant, indicating that attention and support, confidence and trust, job latitude, participation in decision-making, performance evaluations, and the use of reward and punishment powers are not a joint function of the interaction of attraction and LMX.

CHAPTER V

Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter was devoted to the discussion (explanations, interpretations, and inferences) of the main findings of the present study, conclusions drawn from the main findings of the present study, implications of the findings, limitations of the present study, and suggestions for further research. The purpose of the present study was to provide a basis for understanding dyadic upward influence processes in organization work units. To do this, it was necessary to identify the variables that underlie these processes. Then a model was constructed in which the variables that antecede and the variables that result from the dyadic exchange relationship (also known as leader-member-exchange or LMX) were specified. The results of the tests of this model are the subject of discussion in this chapter.

The specific antecedent variables identified in this study were the two variants of ingratiation, praise of a higher person by a lower member of a dyad, and performance on the task by the lower member of a dyad. Specific hypotheses regarding the relations between these variables and several outcome variables were tested, taking into account the moderating effects of attributions, self-confidence, and locus of control. Overall, the results supported the dyadic upward influence process model. The data clearly indicated that the responses of the supervisors were strongly influenced by the treatments as well as by the moderator variables. In a majority of cases, praise and performance and

the interaction between them produced the predicted results, as did the attribution, self-confidence, and locus of control variables.

Before turning to the discussion of other issues pertaining to the findings of this study, it is important to highlight the contribution of each treatment and moderator variables used in this study.

Praise

When taken together, the data from the present study indicate that praise of a higher person in a dyad by a lower member of the dyad can represent a significant influence on the exchange relationship between the two individuals of a dyad. When supervisors were praised by their subordinates their response depended largely on whether they considered the praise to be reasonable, non-exaggerated, and realistic or excessive, exaggerated, and unrealistic. When the supervisors considered the praise to be reasonable and/or non-exaggerated, they responded:

- (1) by attributing the subordinates' praise to greater sincerity of intent (i.e. to the fact that the subordinates' praise was motivated by sincere intentions);
- (2) by making greater internal or non-selfish motive attributions for superior performance by their subordinates;
- (3) by showing increased liking for the subordinates; and
- (4) by giving a higher rating for the quality of exchange relationship with their subordinates;

When the supervisors considered the praise to be unreasonable, excessive, exaggerated and/or unrealistic, their responses were exact

converse of the responses they gave when they considered the praise to be reasonable, non-exaggerated, and/or realistic.

Performance

One of the most consistent findings of research on factors that influence the behaviors of supervisors is that subordinates' performance levels affect how the supervisors dispense rewards and punishments, in addition to influencing other aspects of interpersonal relationships such as attraction and evaluations (Podsakoff, 1982). The results of the present study support this conclusion. Consistent with what one might expect to be the case, the pattern of the results of this study suggest that

- (1) Supervisors tend to attribute a subordinate's praise to greater sincerity of intent (i.e. to the fact that subordinate's praise is motivated by sincere intentions) when the subordinate's performance is superior than when it is poor;
- (2) Supervisors make significantly more internal attributions (i.e. attributions of greater effort and high ability) for the subordinate's performance if the performance is superior.
- (3) Supervisors show increased liking for the subordinates if the performance is superior than if the performance is poor;

The above findings show clearly that the subordinates' performance levels had significant influence on their response toward the subordinates. The only supervisors' responses that appeared to have not been influenced by the subordinates' performance levels were those that pertained to the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX). These patterns

of results are similar to the pattern of results discussed earlier with regard to praise.

A closer scrutiny of the results reveals that under certain conditions, the supervisors' responses seemed to be based exclusively on the differences in the levels of performance while under other conditions, such responses appeared to be based exclusively on praise. This raises an interesting question: do supervisors use multiple sources of information to arrive at decisions about their subordinates or do they use only one salient source of information to arrive at such decisions? On the basis of the data obtained from the present study, it would appear that the answer to this question is yes and no. Yes, because, as will be discussed in more detail later, some significant interactions between praise and performance on different criterion variables were found which suggest that the supervisors' responses were based on information from both praise and performance variables. No, because there were cases where only information on praise was used and others where only performance information was used. Unfortunately, the question of how and when supervisors decide to use either single source or multiple sources of information goes beyond the scope of this study.

The failure of performance to produce a significant effect on LMX is not obvious, particularly in the light of the significant effects of performance on attraction. Given that attraction is conceptually the precursor of LMX, it would be logical to expect that when performance differences have significant effects on the supervisors' attraction toward the subordinates, they (performance differences) would likewise have a differential effect on the supervisors' response to the quality of leader-member-exchange. This, of course, was not the case in this

study. However, there was a significant interaction between praise and performance on LMX indicating that supervisors did recognize performance differences when responding to the LMX measures.

Attributions

The data clearly indicated that the responses of the supervisors were strongly influenced by the praise and performance of their subordinates, a result that replicates the findings of earlier studies (e.g. Goodstadt and Kipnis, 1970; Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971; Lowin and Craig, 1968). For non-exaggerated praise as compared to exaggerated praise subordinates, supervisors attributed praise to greater sincerity of intent, and performance to more positive causes (e.g. great ability or effort) or to more non-selfish (as opposed to selfish) motives (e.g. sense of accomplishment as opposed to desire for greater liking by the supervisor).

Of more interest in this study was the effect of attributions on the manipulation of praise. Specifically, the author was interested in the effect of attributions of sincerity of intent on the supervisors' responses toward the subordinates. First, it is important to note that manipulation of praise did produce the expected differences in the supervisors' reactions to the subordinates' messages. As compared to subordinates whose messages of praise were exaggerated, subordinates whose messages of praise were non-exaggerated were perceived by the supervisors as being motivated by (1) a genuine desire to contribute to the success of the entire group regardless of what might or might not accrue to them (the subordinates) personally, (2) a sincere desire to give the supervisor feedback on the way the supervisor handled his/her

job, (3) a sincere desire to see the supervisor succeed and to be closely associated with that success, (4) a desire to manipulate the supervisor for selfish reasons, (5) a desire to please the supervisor and to make the supervisor regard the subordinate as a trustworthy and dependable worker, and (6) a desire to flatter the supervisor and, hence, win the supervisor's confidence in order for the subordinate to improve his/her attractiveness to the supervisor.

These findings seem to suggest that a subordinate whose influence attempt (i.e. praise of the supervisor) is attributed to good intentions or non-selfish motives is likely to be treated more favorably by the supervisor than a subordinate whose influence attempt is attributed to bad intentions or selfish motives. The author's confidence in this conclusion is strengthened by the fact that for attributions to greater as compared to attributions to less sincerity of intent, the findings showed a clear trend for the supervisors' tendency to respond

- (1) with increased liking for the subordinates,
- (2) with higher ratings of the quality of LMX,

Taken as a whole, these findings suggest that while praise appears to be a potent tool in a dyadic upward influence process it is, nonetheless, fraught with problems for the subordinate. A subordinate's praise may lack credibility if it is seen by the superior to be motivated primarily by ulterior motives. Thus, the subordinate's biggest challenge is to ensure that the supervisor attributes his/her influence attempt (i.e. praise) to good intentions. For, as Wortman and Linsenmeier (1977) said, ". . . the ingratiation's task is primarily one of manipulating the attributions made by the target person he is trying to impress" (p. 135). One way a subordinate may avoid attribution of

ulterior motivation is to time the praise so that the benefit desired from the supervisor is not salient.

Self-confidence

It has been suggested that individuals with perpetual low self-regard or self-confidence tend to reject positive information about themselves since such information is inconsistent with their self-perceptions (Berscheid and Walster, 1969). While providing only limited support for the hypothesized pattern of relationships involving self-confidence, the results of the present study are consistent with this statement with the findings of earlier studies (e.g. Kipnis and V... 1971). The data show that high confidence supervisors made significantly higher attributions of sincerity of intent than did the low confidence supervisors. However, this finding was true only when praise was exaggerated as suggested by the significant interaction between self-confidence and praise on attributions of sincerity of intent. One conclusion that can be drawn from these findings is that high confidence supervisors were less likely to question or to suspect the sincerity of the subordinates' messages when such messages were exaggerated than low confidence supervisors. Thus, in a sense, high confidence supervisors were more susceptible to subordinates' flattery than were low confidence supervisors when praise was exaggerated. Therefore, contrary to conventional wisdom, high self-confidence is not necessarily a desirable attribute in all situations.

Locus of Control

Susceptibility to influence as a function of locus of control was

one of the major areas of interest in the present study. The results of this study are inconclusive. The internals and the externals differed substantially in their attributions of sincerity of intent. The internals made significantly greater attributions of sincerity of intent than did the externals. These findings dovetail well with the research literature pertaining to the susceptibility of the recipient of influence and his or her locus of control (e.g. Hjelle, 1970; Ritche and Phares, 1969). However, the data obtained from the present study indicate that judgments or inferences about the effects of locus of control on attributions of sincerity of intent should be qualified by the level of praise. In other words, the supervisors' locus of control (i.e. whether internal or external) had a differential effect on the attributions of sincerity of intent only when praise was non-exaggerated.

One conclusion that can be drawn from these findings is that all supervisors (i.e. both externals and internals) are suspicious of influence attempts (in the form of praise) that are exaggerated. Therefore, it follows that in order to succeed in their influence attempts, the subordinates need to use non-exaggerated praise. However, although it does not help to know whether the supervisor has external or internal locus of control so long as praise is exaggerated, there is a substantial difference when praise is non-exaggerated, because in that case only the internals are predisposed to make attributions of sincerity of intent for the subordinates' ingratiating (praise) behavior. The evidence for this conclusion comes from the significant interaction between locus of control and praise in which the internals, as compared to the externals, made significantly greater attributions of

sincerity of intent only when praise was non-exaggerated. The reason why internals appear so sensitive to influence attempts by others is that they have a great desire for complete personal control over the events and people around them and, hence, any behavior they perceive as threatening this personal control will elicit strong negative reaction. This is not the case with the externals. Locus of control is, therefore, an important factor to consider in influence attempts that rely on praise as the primary strategy of influence. For the subordinate who wants to manipulate attributions of sincerity of intent as a means of eliciting the supervisor-controlled benefits but is in doubt as to whether the supervisor has external or internal locus of control, it might be worthwhile considering other techniques of influence that are less likely to threaten the supervisor's need for control.

Other Interesting Findings

Earlier in the chapter, the author alluded to the fact that the evidence provided by the available data appeared to suggest that supervisors used either one or both sources of information (i.e. praise and performance) in making their responses toward the subordinates. This issue will be discussed further in this section. The author submits that while it was not possible to know what made the supervisors choose either or both sources of information, it was possible to establish the pattern of responses when both sources were used. This was done by examining the pattern of interactions between praise and performance on different outcome variables.

Both praise and performance appeared to be critical conditions for

the supervisors' responses on attributions of sincerity of intent, internal attributions, and the quality of LMX. For superior performing subordinates, the supervisors made greater attributions of sincerity of intent, regardless of whether or not the statements used by the subordinates to praise the supervisors were exaggerated or non-exaggerated. However, for poor performing subordinates, it is critical that the supervisors perceive their praise as non-exaggerated, if the supervisors are to make attributions of sincerity of intent. A similar pattern of data was obtained for internal attributions, and the quality of LMX. These results suggest a compensatory model for the process underlying the supervisors' response to the aforementioned outcome variables, in the sense that non-exaggerated praise can compensate for poor performance, while superior performance can compensate for exaggerated praise. These findings provide empirical meaning to the observation made by Wortman and Linsenmeier when they said: "A person who is very motivated to have others like him may think that the best way of assuring this outcome is to act friendly to those around him. He may not realize that attributions of friendliness and pleasantness may be free by-products if he is judged as highly competent or a good performer by others" (1977, p. 245).

Two other observations can be made regarding the pattern of results obtained in this study:

- (1) not a single pattern of the data approximated non-compensatory model, i.e. a model in which the supervisors consider both non-exaggerated praise and superior performance equally necessary for favorable response toward the subordinates.

However, this was not entirely unexpected as a look at the hypotheses used in this study will show.

- (2) no data pattern revealed a partially compensatory model of the processes underlying the supervisors' response toward the subordinates. A partially compensatory model is a model in which one level of a factor can compensate for a level of a second factor but none of the levels of the second factor can compensate for any of the levels of the first factor. An example could be a situation in which non-exaggerated praise compensates for poor performance, but superior performance does not compensate for exaggerated praise.

Implications

The findings that have been presented and discussed thus far have implications, not only for researchers, but also for practicing managers. There appears to be a need for more theoretical development to guide future research efforts. It is clear from the model and the research reported in this study that the research on upward influence conducted to date was based on inadequate conceptualization that impeded proper understanding of the upward influence phenomena. The present study suggests that attributional processes, only alluded to rather casually in previous research, play a vital role in the upward influence process. Thus, any study of upward influence processes that fails to incorporate measures of attributions limits our understanding of some of the vital processes that underlie the phenomena of interest (e.g. ingratiation).

In addition to suggesting what factors have significant effects on

the responses, these data also show the relative contribution of each factor as well as the joint contribution of two or more factors. Although praise had significant effects in many of the analyses, it consistently accounted for less variance than did performance in the analyses where both variables had significant main effects.

As was noted in Chapter two, previous research on dyadic upward influence tended to characterize the influence process as resulting either from ingratiation per se or performance, with situational variables (disparagement and ineptitude) and individual difference variables (self-confidence and locus of control) playing moderator roles. This study suggests that, although in some circumstances subordinate ingratiation (specifically praise) or absence of it may be an important determinant of supervisor attitude change (e.g. from one of low level or no likeability to one of high likeability) toward the subordinate, in other circumstances the cues provided by the content of praise message may be even more important. Specifically, it has been shown in this study that when cues provided by the content of praise were perceived by the supervisor as indicating greater sincerity of intent on the part of the ingratiating subordinate, the supervisor, if he/she had high confidence and/or internal locus of control, responded by showing increased liking for the subordinate, and by giving a higher rating to the quality of LMX. When the cues provided by the message content of the praise were perceived by the supervisor as indicating less sincerity of intent (i.e. suspicions in terms of its intended purpose) on the part of the subordinate, the supervisor, if she/he had low self confidence and/or internal locus of control, responded by showing decreased liking for the subordinate, and by giving

a lower rating to the quality of LMX. These data clearly suggest that it would be inappropriate for dyadic upward influence researchers to ignore content-relevant cues of a praise message (e.g. cues from non-exaggerated praise vis-a-vis cues from exaggerated praise) in predicting the effect of subordinate praise on the supervisors' responses toward the subordinates. Depending on the circumstances (e.g. high confidence vis-a-vis low confidence), cues emanating from non-exaggerated praise will lead to different supervisor responses (e.g. attributions of praise to greater sincerity of intent or increased liking for the subordinate) than cues from exaggerated praise.

Besides theoretical implications, some important practical implications can be discerned from this study. The fact that attributions, whether of praise or performance, mediate the relationship between a subordinate's behavior and a supervisor's response means that some errors may be present in the influence process. The available evidence shows that supervisors, like any other observers, may over-attribute the subordinates' behaviors to internal causes, thereby committing an attributional error (Jones and Nisbett, 1972). This error may result in misleading appraisals of the subordinates which, in turn, may lead to misdirection of resources in trying to correct a problem which may not exist. In addition, the error may cause the supervisor to overlook the actual problem and, instead, deal with what may appear to be a problem only because inaccurate performance appraisal suggests that it is. These findings and conclusions are in line with those obtained by earlier researchers (e.g. Ilgen, Mitchell & Wood, 1980; Kipnis, 1972).

Second, the data suggest that non-exaggerated praise compensates for

poor performance in supervisor responses such as attributions. When this happens, the supervisor is very likely to overlook the poor performance and, hence the problem it presents. Failing to deal with the causes of poor performance may pose a serious problem that can be potentially damaging to the future effectiveness of the work unit and to the future subordinate evaluations and compensations. In addition to presenting a potential source of conflict amongst the workers, the resulting distortions in compensations could very well prove damaging to the morale of the affected workers. The implication of these issues is that it is in the best interest of the work unit if the supervisors base all their performance evaluations and all work or task-relevant decisions and actions strictly on work or task specific behaviors (i.e. behaviors that have immediate or potential effect on the efficiency and effectiveness of the work unit). In this regard, subordinate behaviors such as praise that have no bearing on the efficiency and effectiveness of a work unit should not be allowed to influence decisions on subordinates' performance.

The data obtained in this study have further implications for the would-be ingratiating subordinates. The most important implication for a subordinate is the attribution the supervisor makes regarding his/her ingratiating behavior. As was pointed out earlier, attributions of a subordinate's praise to less sincerity of intent often results in unfavorable outcomes for the subordinate. These outcomes may include decreased attractiveness to the supervisor. As discussed earlier, the supervisors often respond in ways that are unfavorable to the subordinate when the latter's praise is exaggerated or appears manipulative. To guard against unfavorable supervisor response,

subordinates need to ensure that their praise of the supervisor does not cause any suspicion on the part of the supervisor as to its true intent. It is worth repeating here that the ingratiating subordinate's task is essentially one of manipulating attributions made by the supervisor. His/her ultimate goal is to increase his/her attractiveness to the supervisor (Jones and Wortman, 1973). It is important that the ingratiating subordinate be aware that the setting in which he/she operates will dictate the specific attributions to be manipulated. According to Jones and Wortman (1973, p. 3), "to be successful", the ingratiating subordinate "must operate with all the wisdom of an applied social psychologist in trying to manipulate the outcomes of attribution process."

Another implication of these data for subordinates has to do with the compensatory model used by the supervisors in their response toward the subordinates. To the degree that non-exaggerated praise compensates for poor performance, a poor performing subordinate need not worry about his/her fate so long as he/she can praise the supervisor in a way that communicates the sincerity of his/her intention (i.e. purpose of the praise) to the supervisor. The subordinate can accomplish this by ensuring that the praise is not exaggerated. It is in the best interest of the subordinate to avoid using exaggerated praise since this may exacerbate rather than ameliorate the situation by making the supervisor respond in less friendly, more hostile, and more punitive ways.

It would appear from the foregoing that, in addition to getting away with poor performance, the subordinate who uses non-exaggerated praise is also more likely to reap other benefits such as increased attractiveness to the supervisor. In general, these results are in

agreement with those of the previous studies (e.g. Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971; Goodstadt and Kipnis, 1970; Lowe and Goldstein, 1970).

Limitations

As would be expected, this study suffers from weaknesses usually associated with laboratory studies. The artificially created and controlled laboratory setting can only have a limited correspondence with the actual dynamic world of work where supervisors and their subordinates meet face-to-face on a daily basis. It is very difficult to attain a perfect laboratory analog of an actual work setting. The kind of stakes and emotional involvements of the supervisors and the subordinates that characterize the actual work settings are almost impossible to simulate perfectly, even with the best of experimental designs.

First, stimulus materials that represented selected work situations in the study were rather extreme and unambiguous. A few examples will help clarify what is meant here. Praise was either exaggerated or non-exaggerated; performance was either superior or poor; subordinate's attractiveness was either high or low. Supervisors in actual work units are rarely faced with such dichotomized, clear-cut cues, at least not with every issue they confront. However, the purpose of this study was to identify factors that underlie upward influence processes and to demonstrate that those factors can have profound effects on the exchange relationships in a dyad. This goal was attained, as evidenced by the data. It is to be expected that in a field study many of the relationships obtained here may be modified to varying degrees by the aspects of the work settings that cannot be controlled. But this does

not deny the existence of the relationships found in the laboratory setting. It only means that conditions under which the relationships will hold true in a field setting, as opposed to a laboratory setting, may be multiple and complex.

Second, while conditions for continued interaction between the supervisor and the subordinates are part of social life in on-going organizations, they were lacking in the present study. In this respect, many social ties that tend to develop between a supervisor and one or several of his subordinates over a period of time were absent. Yet these ties are likely to exact influence on a supervisor's response toward the subordinates, regardless of the subordinates' level of praise or performance. Also, the social ties tend to increase the supervisors' emotional involvement with some subordinates that would very likely impact the way the supervisors respond toward these subordinates.

Moreover, the fact that the supervisors never interacted with the subordinates on a face-to-face basis removed physical appearance as a potential influencer from the crucial supervisor-subordinate relationships. There is evidence that people's physical appearance exerts influence on the response of others toward them (e.g. see Layton and Insko, 1972; Dion, Berscheid, and Walster, 1972).

It should be emphasized that the limitations do not reduce the value of this study and its findings. The limitations are useful in reminding any users or potential users of these data that wholesale generalization of these results to organizational settings is unwarranted at the moment. It should be remembered that the extent to which these or any other laboratory research outcomes are generalizable to field settings always depends upon further replication in diverse settings. In other

words, it is only meaningful to talk about external validity of this study in relation to similar or related studies, preferably those conducted in field settings.

Suggestions for Further Research

The overall results of this study suggest several directions for future research on the exercise of upward influence in organization work units.

1. The percentage of variance in the response variables (e.g. attributions of sincerity of intent, attraction, and LMX) left unaccounted for by the treatment (praise and performance) and moderator variables (self-confidence and locus of control) suggests that additional explanatory variables need to be considered in future studies on the upward influence process. Characteristics of the situation in which influence is exercised represent an important area for additional exploration. Studies by Goodstadt and Kipnis (1970), Kipnis and Vanderveer (1971) and Goodstadt and Hjelle (1973) that used two such situational factors, disparagement and ineptitude, produced encouraging results. These studies provided evidence that supervisors take situational factors into account in dealing with the subordinates. One situational variable that might prove useful in future research is interdependence between the supervisor and the subordinate. Ilgen, Mitchell and Fredrickson (1981) found that supervisors' responses toward their subordinates were influenced by, among other things, the interdependence between them and the subordinates. These researchers manipulated interdependence by making bonus pay for both the supervisor and the subordinates contingent upon the group performing in the top 10%

of all the groups performing the task. Another situational factor that may be worth considering in future research is the amount of resources at the disposal of the supervisor. It is speculated here that if the resources accessible to the leader are very limited, his/her response to a subordinate's praise or performance level may be different than a response he/she would give if the resources he has were not very limited. The purpose of such a study would be to see who among the subordinates would receive rewards and who would not in a situation where the supervisor had limited resources as compared to one in which the supervisor had sufficient resources, at least enough to reward every subordinate who deserved it. Also worth considering in future research is the frequency with which a supervisor would recommend subordinates for promotion when the only position available was one occupied by the supervisor and when he/she did not wish to relinquish that position.

2. In addition to the situational characteristics, future research should consider incorporating other personality characteristics that have been shown to have predictive power on supervisor response in upward influence research. These characteristics would include need for power, conformity and Machiavellianism (Falbo, 1977). At the moment, one cannot have enough confidence in the findings of studies that employed these personality characteristics since replicative studies involving them have been extremely rare.

3. Research on ingratiation tactics within organizational settings has been rare. It may be a good idea for future research to consider investigating ingratiation phenomena in field settings as a way of corroborating laboratory research evidence with data from the actual actors on the organizational stage. The reluctance on the part of

organizational researchers to study the role of ingratiation in organizational influence processes is unwarranted as was pointed out by Martin and Sims (1956, p. 36) when they said, ". . . it is neither immoral nor cynical to recognize and describe the actual daily practices of power. After all, sweeping them under the rug--making believe that they are not actually part of the executive's activity--does not cause them to vanish. They exist; therefore, we had better take a look at them and see what they are really like".

Summary of Main Conclusions

The synthesis of upward influence presented here is one in which the subordinate is seen as an active participant in the construction of his/her immediate social environment. The subordinate is viewed not merely as a passive member of a work unit who has resigned his/her fate to the organizational directives or dictates of the superiors or the system they represent, but as an actor who often strives to change the parameters or "givens" of the traditional work models. Among other things, the subordinate can ingratiate in order to change the contingencies between his/her behavior and outcomes. These rather abstract generalizations are derived from direct interpretation of the findings of this study. Following is a summary of the main conclusions and the supporting evidence.

1. Praise and performance (used here as ingratiation techniques) are important antecedent conditions for attraction, and LMX. Ingratiation (i.e. praise and performance) is an important tool in a dyadic upward influence process. For praise, this conclusion is in line with the findings of earlier studies (e.g. Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971)

which found that the ingratiation garnered more rewards than the average worker. However, evidence from the present study shows that this conclusion is tenable only under certain conditions and not under others. These conditions will become clear in the subsequent summaries.

2. The role of attributions in the upward influence behavior is too important to be ignored any more. The evidence obtained in this study suggests that attributional processes play a significant role in determining a supervisor's responses following a subordinate's praise or performance. When a supervisor attributes a subordinate's praise to greater sincerity of intent (which often happens when the praise is not exaggerated) he/she tends to develop increased friendliness with the subordinate, greater appreciation of the quality of work, to mention but a few.

3. Further evidence suggests that following an attributional model, supervisors respond more favorably toward the subordinates (e.g. show more friendliness toward the subordinates) when superior performance is attributed to motivation rather than a desire for personal gain (e.g. pay raise, promotion) on the part of the subordinate.

4. The important role of individual differences can no longer be overlooked or ignored in developing comprehensive models of dyadic upward influence behavior. The data from the present study strongly suggest that

(a) supervisors respond differently toward subordinates depending on whether they have high or low confidence in their abilities to supervise the subordinates and whether they have external or internal locus of control (i.e. belief that their behaviors are internally or externally controlled.)

(b) subordinate praise and performance do not impact equally on all supervisors as they react to or respond toward subordinates.

Supervisors who have high confidence in their abilities to effectively supervise subordinates or who feel that their behaviors are more internally controlled tend to respond favorably or positively toward the subordinates (e.g. by making high sincerity of intent attributions, more internal attributions or by developing closer friendship with the subordinates) than supervisors who have low confidence in their abilities to effectively supervise the subordinates or those who feel that their behavior is less internally controlled.

5. According to the results of the present empirical study, supervisors appear to operate under a compensatory model, where non-exaggerated praise compensates for poor performance and superior performance compensates for exaggerated praise.

In sum, the present study has established antecedent (i.e. praise and performance) and consequential (e.g. attraction, LMX, evaluation, reward/punishment power) conditions for the role negotiation process viewed from the perspective of the subordinate. By so doing, this study has shown, subject to the limitations discussed earlier, some of the processes through which a subordinate can acquire either an in-group status or an out-group status. Briefly, these processes involve praise, performance, and attributions which, in turn, have implications for the subordinates' attractiveness to the supervisor, the quality of LMX, supervisor evaluations of the subordinates, and supervisor reward and punishment allocation behavior. It is worth repeating that the role negotiation process has been investigated in this research using a model

of upward influence process. The author has no doubt whatsoever that the downward influence process may be just as important in determining subordinates' "in-group" and "out-group" status.

Finally, mention should be made of some unique aspects of the present study. First, to this author's knowledge, this is the first study that has developed and tested a model of the upward influence process that allowed for systematic manipulation of ingratiation. This made it possible to undertake simultaneous investigation of both positive and negative consequences of ingratiating behavior for the ingratiating person. Second, unlike the previous studies of upward influence processes that employed ingratiation, the present study incorporated a measure of attribution made by the target of ingratiation regarding the sincerity of the ingratiator's intentions. It was thus possible not only to establish that such attributions do in fact operate as suggested in the literature, but also to investigate the antecedents and consequences of the said attributions. Third, this was the first study that manipulated both praise and performance and thus allowed for systematic examination of the effects of the interactions between the two factors.

Appendix A

Attribution Items for Praise

Answer the following questions about each subordinate's behavior (i.e. messages) by checking the appropriate point on the scale. The points represent the following responses:

- 6 - To a very large extent
- 5 - To a large extent
- 4 - To a moderate extent
- 3 - To a small extent
- 2 - To a very small extent
- 1 - To no extent

To what extent were each of the following responsible for the subordinate's behavior (i.e. messages):

1. A genuine desire to contribute to the success of the entire group regardless of the benefits that may or may not accrue to him/her personally.

Subordinate:	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

2. A sincere desire to give you feedback on his/her perception of the way you handle your job.

<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
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Subordinate:

A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

3. A sincere desire to see you succeed in your job and to be closely associated with that success.

<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
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Subordinate:

A	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. A desire to manipulate you for selfish reasons, e.g. pay raise.

	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
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Subordinate:

A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. A desire to please you and to make you think of him/her as a trustworthy and dependable worker.

	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
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Subordinate:

A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. A desire to flatter you and, hence, win your confidence in order to improve his or her attractiveness to you.

	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
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Subordinate:

A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B

Attribution Items for Performance

From what you know about the subordinates (i.e. from their messages and performance levels), answer the following questions about each subordinate's performance behavior by checking the appropriate point on the scale.

1. Which of the following was responsible for each subordinate's performance level (i.e. the reason each subordinate performed as he/she did)?

	Very high ability	Somewhat high ability	Slightly high ability	Neither high nor low ability	Slightly low ability	Somewhat low ability	Very low ability
Subordinate:							
A:							
B:							
C:							
D:							

2. Which of the following was responsible for each subordinate's performance level (i.e. the reason each subordinate performed as he/she did)?

	Very high effort	Somewhat high effort	Slightly high effort	Neither high nor low effort	Slightly low effort	Somewhat low effort	Very low effort
Subordinate:							
A:							
B:							
C:							
D:							

3. Which of the following was responsible for each subordinate's performance level (i.e. the reason each subordinate performed as he/she did)?

Very easy task	Somewhat easy task	Slightly easy task	Neither difficult nor easy task	Slightly difficult task	Somewhat difficult task	Very difficult task
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Subordinate:

A:						
B:						
C:						
D:						

For questions 4 through 9, the points on the scale represent the following responses:

- 6 - To a very large extent
- 5 - To a large extent
- 4 - To a moderate extent
- 3 - To a small extent
- 2 - To a very small extent
- 1 - To no extent

To what extent were each of the following responsible for the subordinate's performance level (i.e. the reason the subordinate performed as he/she did):

4. Commitment to the success of the work group as a whole.

Subordinate	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. A desire for accomplishment (i.e. pride in doing something worthwhile)

	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
Subordinate						
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. A desire for additional rewards (e.g. pay raise).

	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
Subordinate						
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

7. A desire to avoid possible negative outcomes (e.g. pay deduction).

	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
Subordinate						
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

8. Motivation (i.e. sheer interest in the task).

	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
Subordinate						
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

9. Desire for approval from you (the supervisor) as opposed to motivation to perform well for its own sake.

	<u>To no</u>	<u>To a</u>	<u>To a</u>	<u>To a</u>	<u>To a</u>	<u>To a</u>
	<u>extent</u>	<u>very</u>	<u>small</u>	<u>moderate</u>	<u>large</u>	<u>very</u>
		<u>small</u>	<u>small</u>	<u>extent</u>	<u>extent</u>	<u>large</u>
		<u>extent</u>	<u>extent</u>			<u>extent</u>
Subordinate						
A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C

Items for Attractiveness Scale

Please respond to the following statements by circling an appropriate point on the scale. The points on the scale represent the following responses:

- 1 - strongly disagree
- 2 - disagree
- 3 - neither disagree nor agree
- 4 - agree
- 5 - strongly agree

1. I would certainly be willing to have this subordinate work for me if I had to do this job again.

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

2. This subordinate's basic values and attitudes, as reflected in his/her behavior in this experiment, are very similar to my own.

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

3. I would certainly enjoy having this subordinate as a friend

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

4. I think this subordinate is an extremely likeable person

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

5. It probably would be hard for me to feel a close friendship for this subordinate.

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

6. I find it difficult to like this subordinate very much.

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

7. I would probably find it difficult to have this subordinate work for me if I had to do this job again.

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

8. Based on his/her behavior in this experiment, I would say that this subordinate's basic values and attitudes are probably not similar to my own.

	<u>Strongly disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Neither disagree nor agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Strongly agree</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Items for LMX Scale

For this section, we would like you to assume that you have had a continuous working relationship with the subordinates for a long period of time. Now, based on what you know about the subordinates (i.e. their messages, performance, etc.), respond to the following questions:

1. How often would you let this subordinate know how satisfied you are with his or her work?

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Seldom</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Almost Always</u>
Subordinate	A:	1	2	3	4	5
	B:	1	2	3	4	5
	C:	1	2	3	4	5
	D:	1	2	3	4	5

2. To what extent would you give this subordinate the power necessary to bring about the changes he or she may desire?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

3. I feel strong enough about this subordinate that I would be willing to defend and justify his/her decisions even when she/he was not present.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

4. To what extent do you think this subordinate has potential for the task he/she is expected to do?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. What are the chances that you would "bail out" this subordinate at your own expense if he/she had a serious problem?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

6. What kind of a working relationship would you expect to evolve between you and this subordinate if you were to work with him/her over a long period of time?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Extremely</u> <u>Ineffective</u>	<u>Worse</u> <u>than</u> <u>Average</u>	<u>Average</u>	<u>Better</u> <u>than</u> <u>Average</u>	<u>Extremely</u> <u>Effective</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

7. What are the chances that you would use your power to help this subordinate solve problems in his or her work?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>None</u>	<u>Small</u>	<u>Moderate</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Very</u> <u>High</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

8. How much decision-making power would you give this subordinate?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Not A bit</u>	<u>A little</u>	<u>A fair Amount</u>	<u>Quite A bit</u>	<u>A great Deal</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

9. How often would you attend to this subordinate's job problems, feelings, and needs?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Seldom</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Usually</u>	<u>Almost Always</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

10. How often would you assure this subordinate of your confidence in him/her?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

11. How often would you back up what this subordinate suggests?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

12. How often would you listen to, and help this subordinate with job and career-related problems?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

13. How often would you help this subordinate solve his/her personal (i.e. non-job related) problems?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

14. How often would you delegate important responsibilities to this subordinate?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Occasionally</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Fairly Often</u>	<u>Very Often</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

15. To what extent would you accept and implement task-related changes suggested by this subordinate?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	<u>To no extent</u>	<u>To a very small extent</u>	<u>To a small extent</u>	<u>To a moderate extent</u>	<u>To a large extent</u>	<u>To a very large extent</u>
Subordinate A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E

Overall Evaluation of Subordinates

Based on what you know (e.g. from subordinate's performance record and messages), please rate each subordinate on the following scales. 5, the fifth point on the scale, represents the most favorable rating and 1, the least favorable rating. Circle the appropriate response.

1. How would you rate each subordinate's overall ability?

1 - Very inadequate

2 - Inadequate

3 - Neither inadequate nor adequate

4 - Adequate

5 - Very adequate

Subordinate	Very <u>inadequate</u>	Neither inadequate nor adequate	Very adequate	Very adequate	Very adequate
A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

2. How would you rate each subordinate's overall worth to the work-group

Subordinate	Very <u>inadequate</u>	Inadequate	Neither inadequate nor adequate	Adequate	Very adequate
A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

The points on the scales presented below represent the following responses:

- 1 - To no extent
- 2 - To a very small extent
- 3 - To a small extent
- 4 - To a moderate extent
- 5 - To a large extent
- 6 - To a very large extent

3. If you had to do it, to what extent would you be willing to rehire this subordinate for a second experiment, given his or her performance and overall conduct in the present experiment?

	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
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Subordinate:

A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. If you had to do it, to what extent would you be willing to recommend this subordinate for promotion to a supervisor in a future experiment, given his or her performance and overall conduct in the present experiment?

	To no extent	To a very small extent	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
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Subordinate:

A:	1	2	3	4	5	6
B:	1	2	3	4	5	6
C:	1	2	3	4	5	6
D:	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix F

NEXT PERIOD _____

FEEDBACK TO SUBORDINATE _____

Action

You are required to indicate in writing what action you wish to take or recommend in response to the subordinates' messages and performance data. Use the space provided below for this purpose.

Please enter the correct work period and the subordinate's identification "letter" (i.e. A, B, C, or D) in the spaces provided at the top of this paper.

The list of possible actions is attached for your reference.

Action(s) taken or recommended

1. I order a 50 cents pay raise with immediate effect.
2. I promise a 50 cents pay raise in the future. effect.
3. I recommend a promotion to a supervisor in a future experiment (it is understood that another experiment is planned for the near future.

4. I order a deduction of 50 cents from pay immediately.
5. I will consider deducting 50 cents from pay unless things improve.
6. I will order a transfer to another job unless things improve (Transfer only possible after third period).
7. I order transfer to another job (effective only after third period).
8. I recommend additional training with immediate effect.
9. I do not consider taking any action.

Appendix G

Self-confidence Items

Four people, located in the next room, have been hired to work on a scheduling task. They will be required to make as many non-conflicting and non-redundant course schedules as possible using any 15 business courses from the undergraduate studies bulletin of the University of South Carolina. Your role is to supervise the four workers to ensure that they do a good job.

Please respond to the following question by checking the appropriate response category.

How confident are you that you can effectively supervise these workers?

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
<u>Not at all</u> <u>confident</u>	<u>Not</u> <u>confident</u>	Probably <u>not</u> <u>confident</u>	<u>Slightly</u> <u>confident</u>	<u>Moderately</u> <u>confident</u>	<u>Very</u> <u>confident</u>	<u>Extremel</u> <u>confider</u>

Appendix H

Manipulation Check for
Performance and Praise Treatments

- I. Please respond to the following question by circling the appropriate point on the scale. The points on the scale represent the following responses:

1 - Very poor

2 - Poor

3 - Good

4 - Very good

5 - Excellent

How would you rate each subordinate's performance on the task?

	poor	Very Poor	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Subordinate:					
A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
D:	1	2	3	4	5

II. Please respond to the following question by circling the appropriate point on the scale.

To what extent do you believe that this subordinate's messages were exaggerated, excessive, or unrealistic?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Subordinate:	Not at all	To a slight extent	To some extent	To a great	To a very great extent
A:	1	2	3	4	5
B:	1	2	3	4	5
C:	1	2	3	4	5
:	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix J

Written Comments

Please use this sheet to write any instructions, comments or words of encouragement you would like to send to the subordinates.

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