

## Subordinate Influence and the Performance Evaluation Process: Test of a Model

GERALD R. FERRIS

*Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign*

TIMOTHY A. JUDGE

*Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University*

KENDRITH M. ROWLAND

*Department of Business Administration, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign*

AND

DALE E. FITZGIBBONS

*Department of Management and Quantitative Methods, Illinois State University*

A causal model of the performance evaluation process was proposed and tested in this paper. The proposed conceptualization incorporated social, situational, affective, and cognitive elements as they affect performance ratings, with particular emphasis on the role of subordinate influence behaviors. LISREL results demonstrated that the proposed model fit the data well, and reflected a better fit than several alternative models that were estimated. The contributions and limitations of the present study were discussed, in addition to challenges and directions for future research. © 1994 Academic Press, Inc.

Performance evaluation is indeed a complex process involving social, situational, affective, and cognitive elements. Although the "process" focus in performance evaluation theory and research is relatively new (i.e., perhaps just over a decade), it has generated considerable empirical investigation of these various components. However, despite appeals for more comprehensive investigations, which incorporate several of these

This research was partially funded by the Department of Research and Foundation Research Funds, The Carle Foundation, and by the Office of University Research Services, Texas A&M University. The authors thank M. Ronald Buckley, Jack M. Feldman, Dan Ilgen, and two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments and suggestions on an earlier draft of this article. Address correspondence and reprint requests to Gerald R. Ferris, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 504 East Armory Avenue, Champaign, Illinois 61820-6297.

components, most research has tended to examine a single category of elements.

Furthermore, whereas some limited recognition has been made of how subordinates seek to influence the performance evaluation process and outcomes, such efforts have not been sufficiently well developed to fully comprehend the interpersonal dynamics involved. The existing research has investigated specific relationships and linkages, but little effort has been devoted to the formulation and empirical testing of causal models which characterize the role of subordinate influence in the performance evaluation process, as well as the mechanisms through which it operates. The purpose of the present study is to address these needs by formulating and testing a model of the performance evaluation process which incorporates social, situational, affective, and cognitive elements, and highlights the potential role of subordinate influence.

### PERFORMANCE EVALUATION THEORY AND RESEARCH

Performance evaluation has been one of the most frequently studied topics in the organizational sciences for many years. By its very nature, performance evaluation is a multifaceted area, involving many issues of importance in need of systematic investigation. However, research interest and attention over the years has not reflected this multifaceted nature. Instead, efforts were concentrated predominantly on instrumentation or the psychometric properties of performance rating scales.

Just over 10 years ago, a significant change in the focus of research on performance evaluation was initiated and continues to this day. This redirection of research involved a change from instrumentation to process issues in performance evaluation and is attributed primarily to the suggestions of Landy and Farr (1980) (although DeCotiis & Petit, 1978, suggested the importance of process issues, the greater impact is typically attributed to Landy & Farr, 1980). Interestingly, while Landy and Farr's comprehensive review and analysis suggested a number of process issues for further investigation, most scholars seem to have interpreted their article as an appeal for research on rater cognition. Indeed, the past decade has witnessed a cognitive revolution of sorts with regard to performance evaluation theory and research, in which an information-processing perspective has been applied to modeling the cognitive processes of performance raters.

#### *Cognitive Processes in Performance Evaluation*

Numerous efforts have been made in recent years to better understand the cognitive processes of raters in the performance evaluation process (Borman, 1978; Cooper, 1981; DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984; DeNisi

& Williams, 1988; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983; Landy & Farr, 1983; Motowidlo, 1986; Nathan & Alexander, 1985; Nathan & Lord, 1983). Each of these cognitive approaches emphasizes somewhat different operations, but recent reviews of this research suggest that all of these efforts involve essentially the same general cognitive sequence (Motowidlo, 1986; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984). This general cognitive sequence is described by Wexley and Klimoski (adapted from Crocker, 1981) to involve the presentation of social information (behavior, performance), attention, encoding, storage, retrieval, integration, and the action of rating. The rater is assumed to have limited information-processing capabilities, and thus breakdowns can occur in the observation, integration, and evaluation of behavior potentially due to categorization, sampling of behavior over time, the way behaviors are encoded, and how the integration process occurs.

Several unique features of some cognitive models are noteworthy. Models by Feldman (1981) and Ilgen and Feldman (1983) have placed emphasis on categorization processes, and they make an important distinction between automatic and controlled modes of processing. Automatic processes of categorization occur outside of conscious awareness and without intention or voluntary effort (Bargh, 1989; Bargh & Pietromonaco, 1982; Smith & Lerner, 1986). Alternatively, controlled processes of categorization are conscious, volitional, and require deliberate effort.

Another interesting feature of some cognitive models involves initial expectations, schemes, and implicit personality theories (Feldman, 1981). Implicit personality theories are formed through prior experiences and determine the expectations we hold concerning the configurations of peoples' traits, characteristics, and behavior tendencies. Thus, this concept has relevance for understanding how judgments are formed about others.

Motowidlo (1986) proposed an information-processing model which differs somewhat from others. He suggested that there is a theoretical true score domain of behaviors which represents all possible positive and negative bits of information about a given stimulus object. In the evaluation process, raters possess an input sample of bits of information they have actually observed or experienced which is stored in memory. When making an evaluative judgment, raters retrieve only a sample of these stored impressions from memory. A particularly interesting feature of Motowidlo's model concerns the form in which information bits are encoded, processed, and stored in memory. He argued that information bits which make up the input sample are not stored in memory in purely descriptive and nonevaluative form but instead are transformed into either positive or negative evaluative impressions. Zajonc (1980) has sug-

gested that affective and evaluative impressions are formed, without much thinking or cognitive processing, very soon after initial exposure to a stimulus object.

More recent information-processing models highlight the importance of affect. Srull and Wyer (1989) proposed a model of person impressions and judgments in which the spontaneous encoding of an individual's behaviors in terms of general trait concepts can lead to the formation of a general evaluative concept of the individual as likeable or not. They suggested that it is this evaluative concept that serves as the basis of impression formation.

Feldman and Lynch's (1988) self-generated validity model is also relevant here. They suggested that if memories of beliefs, attitudes, and past behaviors exist, situational cues may activate any one of these cognitions and position it to serve as the direct determinant of a judgment. Which cognitions are activated is a function of environmental cues which direct attention to and make salient particular features of the individual or object. Key components of their model are diagnosticity and memory accessibility. High diagnosticity of one judgment for a second is achieved when the individual perceives that the judgment or decision for the first situation correctly identifies how a subsequent decision should be made. Accessibility refers to the likelihood that certain information will be retrieved from memory for use in making a subsequent decision. According to Feldman and Lynch, affect plays a key role in memory accessibility, resulting in cognitive categories associated with high levels of affect being much more accessible. They suggested that because affective responses have already been formed and are stored in memory, they simply need to be retrieved, and this process may occur automatically. Quite simply, the Feldman and Lynch (1988) model suggests that differences exist in the organization and degree of knowledge, and, when both are low, other factors may emerge to systematically influence judgments or decisions. Indeed, Woehr and Feldman (1991) have demonstrated that the causal relationship between memory and evaluative judgment in performance evaluation situations is flexible and tends to be dictated by the particular context.

Much has and continues to be learned about the performance-rating process from applying a cognitive information processing perspective. However, cautions have been raised recently regarding an exclusive cognitive focus and a failure to also take account of social, situational, and affective influences on the performance appraisal process (Dipboye, 1985; Ilgen & Favero, 1985; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984). Indeed, the field of social psychology has recently taken a critical look at the direction of social cognition research. Schneider (1991) suggested that research in this area has tended to focus predominantly on intrapsychic cognitive pro-

cesses and to deemphasize the social context, and that more efforts need to be devoted to an investigation of how social variables affect cognitive processes.

### *Social and Situational Context of Performance Evaluation*

In efforts to better understand performance evaluation, it is important to realize not only that it is a process, but a process that takes place in a work context which necessarily involves social and situational influences. Thus, theory and research needs to consider the social and situational context and its effects on the performance evaluation process. Indeed, social and situational context is a rather broad term and involves many aspects, some of which are detailed below.

*Rater and ratee characteristics and interpersonal similarity.* Several authors have discussed the relevance of demographic, personality, and/or attitudinal characteristics of the rater and ratee for understanding performance evaluations (Ilgen & Favero, 1985; Landy & Farr, 1980, 1983; Mitchell, 1983; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984). In addition, both Mitchell and Wexley and Klimoski have suggested the need to examine supervisor experience as a variable of importance in the rating process. Whereas supervisor experience is considered important for performance ratings, it needs to be distinguished from supervisor expertise (Feldman, 1986a, 1986b). Feldman has noted that expertise implies a very well developed and organized cognitive categorization system, including specifically detailed prototypes. Such a categorization system tends to serve as a guide for attention, encoding, and memory processes. Alternatively, experience alone makes no necessary claim to the development of complex cognitive categorization systems. It would be the nature and quality (and not simply the quantity) of experience which would lead to expertise.

In addition to the separate characteristics of rater and ratee, the similarity of the two sets of these personal characteristics has been suggested as important for the performance-rating process (Landy & Farr, 1980, 1983; Mitchell, 1983; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984). Existing research in this area seems to separate along the lines of whether actual similarity was assessed or whether perceived similarity was used. Actual similarity of attitudes and values has been associated with higher evaluations of subordinate performance (Miles, 1964; Senger, 1971), whereas actual similarity of demographic characteristics has produced inconsistent results (Ferris, Judge, Chachere, & Liden, 1991; Hamner, Kim, Baird, & Bigoness, 1974; Mobley, 1982; Schmitt & Lappin, 1980; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Zalesny & Kirsch, 1989). Research results on perceived similarity have generally demonstrated consistent and significant relationships with supervisor ratings of subordinate performance (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983; Turban & Jones, 1988; Wexley, Alexander, Greenawalt, & Couch, 1980).

Interestingly, Turban and Jones suggested that interpersonal similarity may not operate simply on supervisor bias in performance ratings. They suggested that it also is likely to affect supervisor-subordinate interactions and contribute to mutual liking.

*Distance.* Several researchers have called attention to the role of distance between supervisor and subordinate in the performance evaluation process. Rothaus, Morton, and Hanson (1965) discussed the importance of psychological distance between supervisor and subordinate. Furthermore, when Wexley and Klimoski (1984) proposed that the length of time the subordinate is known by the supervisor is a relevant measure of closeness to be investigated in performance evaluation, they were making implicit reference to psychological distance.

Another manifestation of distance can involve the physical separation between supervisor and subordinate. Mitchell (1983), Ilgen and Feldman (1983), and Wexley and Klimoski (1984) spoke of the opportunity to observe the subordinate. Also, spatial distance has been proposed as a factor that potentially can affect performance evaluations (Ferris & Judge, 1991). It seems, then, that interpersonal distance is believed to affect the performance evaluation process, whether this takes the form of psychological or physical distance. Unfortunately, this construct has been virtually ignored in research on performance evaluation.

#### *Affect and Performance Evaluation*

Affect or liking represents another potential influence on the performance evaluation process, and recent research has demonstrated significant effects (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Kingstrom & Mainstone, 1985; Tsui & Barry, 1986; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). DeNisi and Williams (1988) suggested that affect influences the processing of performance information, and Isen and Baron (1991) have elaborated upon this suggestion. They argued that positive affect facilitates the recall of information stored in memory which possesses an affective tone, and also that it makes people more "cognitively flexible"; that is, better able to see dimensions, form associations, and perceive potential relations among stimuli. Some research on affect and performance evaluations has demonstrated that liking for subordinates tends to increase halo error in ratings, but dislike of subordinates tends to demonstrate weaker effects on such evaluations (Sinclair, 1988; Tsui & Barry, 1986). Finally, affect has been found to be related to a number of outcomes related to performance evaluations, such as reward and resource allocation (Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Podsakoff, 1982).

#### *Subordinate Influence in Performance Evaluation*

A particularly noteworthy feature of the social context, with consider-

able potential to affect the performance evaluation process, is subordinate influence. Theory and research on subordinate upward influence has tended to focus on how the process operates in organizations (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Gardner & Martinko, 1988; Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Porter, Allen, & Angle, 1981; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984), the tactics used (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Porter *et al.*, 1981; Schilit & Locke, 1982; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984), and the conditions under which influence tactics are employed (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Mowday, 1978; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984).

Whereas subordinate influence has been considered in a number of organizational decision areas, recently particular attention has been devoted to an examination of subordinate influence in the performance evaluation process (Ferris & Judge, 1991; Ferris & King, 1991; Villanova & Bernardin, 1989). Ilgen and Feldman (1983) suggested that subordinates cannot be treated as passive elements in the performance evaluation process. They need to be viewed as actively involved in efforts to manage information and the impressions they convey. Palermo (1983) discussed the manner in which individuals come to attach meaning to events at work. The active influence of subordinates in attempting to manage the meaning of their work performance for their supervisor suggests that the meanings attributed to events are not always accurate (i.e., if subordinates, in fact, are successful in managing a self-serving impression which does not reflect reality). Several empirical research studies to date have demonstrated that subordinate influence tactics affect supervisor ratings of subordinate performance (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991). So, subordinates represent a potentially important influence in the performance evaluation process, but a closer look needs to be taken at the types of influence tactics they employ and the way the upward influence process operates.

*Subordinate influence tactics.* Numerous specific influence tactics have been isolated and studied in the social and organizational psychology literature (e.g., Kipnis *et al.*, 1980; Porter *et al.*, 1981). Tedeschi and Melburg (1984) recently have proposed a useful taxonomy for conceptualizing the vast array of influence tactics. These behaviors are classified according to two dimensions: assertive–defensive and tactical–strategic. Assertive behavior is initiated by the actor, presumably in response to a perceived opportunity. Defensive behavior is reactive, typically occurring when the actor is faced with a predicament or perceived threat. Tactical behavior has short-term objectives, whereas strategic behaviors serve longer-term, less clear-cut interests such as enhancing one's reputation.

The tactical–defensive category includes such behaviors as apologies,

accounts (excuses and justifications), disclaimers, and self-handicapping. Tactical assertive behaviors include ingratiation, intimidation, self-promotion, exemplification, entitlements (verbal claims of responsibility for positive events), and enhancements (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Schlenker, 1980). Strategic defensive behaviors range from learned helplessness to alcoholism and drug abuse, which are typically seen as self-handicapping behaviors, whereas strategic assertive behaviors include those aimed at developing desired reputational characteristics.

Much of the research on subordinate upward influence in organizations has focused on the use and effectiveness of ingratiation as an influence tactic (e.g., Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977). However, other influence tactics such as self-promotion also have been investigated. In fact, early research tended to confound ingratiation and self-promotion and the two were implicitly viewed as similar in their nature and effectiveness. Recent research has demonstrated that ingratiation, as efforts to appear likeable, and self-promotion, as efforts to appear competent, are, in fact, clearly distinguishable behaviors with potentially quite different consequences (Godfrey, Jones, & Lord, 1986).

*Subordinate upward influence process.* When one considers the many opportunities, rewards, and threats available in organizational settings, and specifically through the performance evaluation process, it seems quite reasonable to expect that people will find it advantageous to manage the impressions that others form of them. But such impression management does not occur under all circumstances, since it is likely to be intertwined in social responses that have other significance (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Generally, influence behaviors are most likely to occur when: (1) emotionality or task involvement is moderate or low enough, or other conditions exist to stimulate self-consciousness; (2) the social interaction and work context are not rigidly ritualized, scripted, or otherwise constrained (i.e., a reasonably high degree of uncertainty or ambiguity exists); (3) opportunities or threats create perceptions of instrumentality of influence behavior; (4) the employee believes that he/she will be successful; (5) the situation and the potential outcomes are important to the individual; and (6) the employee observes relevant others (e.g., supervisor, co-workers, etc.) engaging in influence behaviors, particularly when they do so successfully.

In organizations, there are many contexts that are generally characterized by ambiguous social or task conditions, dependency (a power difference) of the actor on the audience, and (often) performance-related demands. In fact, some research has reported that influence behaviors vary with the degree of ambiguity or uncertainty in the situation (Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Dyke, 1990; Pfeffer, Salancik, & Leblebici, 1976). If task and situation outcomes are ambiguous, or subjectively determined, there



appears to be more opportunity for subordinates to exercise upward influence. Ferris *et al.* (1989) further proposed that spatial distance between supervisor and subordinate in the work environment would increase uncertainty, but have a differential impact on the type of influence tactics used.

*Consequences of subordinate upward influence.* Employees engage in influence behaviors in an instrumental manner, and the decision to engage in such behaviors is presumably based on a subjective probability that the behavior will be effective in acquiring the valued outcome. In this sense, the process is similar to that characterized by expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964). Influence behaviors then generate effectiveness feedback, influencing subsequent decisions whether or not to engage in such behavior, and if so, what particular types.

However, the consequences of subordinate upward influence tactics may not operate quite that simply or directly. Rather, it may be the case that influence tactics operate on outcomes through affective reactions of the supervisor. There is general agreement that a relationship exists between the influence tactics or strategies one uses and how that person is evaluated (Schlenker, 1980). In fact, it has been shown that persons who demonstrate ingratiating types of behaviors tend to receive favorable evaluations (e.g., Jones, 1964). More specifically, other-enhancing communications (Jones, Gergen, & Davis, 1962), favor doing (Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and opinion conformity (Byrne, 1969; Byrne & Griffit, 1966) all have been found to increase liking. Furthermore, liking has been found to be positively related to supervisor responses, such as performance ratings (e.g., Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Kingstrom & Mainstone, 1985; Tsui & Barry, 1986; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and reward behavior (Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Podsakoff, 1982). Thus, it seems that subordinate upward influence tactics may affect liking, which in turn influences supervisor responses.

#### MODEL OF SUBORDINATE INFLUENCE IN THE PERFORMANCE EVALUATION PROCESS

The foregoing review suggests that social, situational, affective, and cognitive influences need to be collectively examined as they impact on the performance evaluation process. Furthermore, subordinates need to be considered active participants in the evaluation process, making efforts to manage the meaning of their performance, the impressions they convey to supervisors, and the resulting ratings they receive. Therefore, a causal model is proposed which characterizes the performance evaluation process as affected by subordinate influence tactics in addition to other social, situational, affective, and cognitive factors. The model was developed based on observations from empirical research (Kipnis &

Schmidt, 1988; Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), reviews of the performance evaluation literature (Ilgen & Feldman, 1983; Landy & Farr, 1983; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984), prior conceptualizations of subordinate upward influence processes (Ferris & Judge, 1991; Ferris *et al.*, 1989; Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Porter *et al.*, 1981), and social and situational influences (Ferris & Mitchell, 1987). The model is presented in Fig. 1.

The model depicts a number of social and situational factors influencing supervisor rating of subordinate performance, primarily operating through affective processes. Incorporated in this conceptualization are two different types of subordinate influence tactics which are likely to affect the performance evaluation process in different ways. A key consideration of this conceptualization is the notion that not all influence tactics are similarly perceived or equally effective, but that situational appropriateness is the determining factor. Fiske and Taylor (1984) suggested that individuals attempt to conform to situational norms concerning their behavior in social settings. Furthermore, for every social setting, there is a social interaction pattern of behavior which conveys the optimal identity for that particular setting. This has been referred to as a "situated identity," and it is suggested that people construct patterns of situationally appropriate behavior based upon their knowledge of these situated identities (e.g., Alexander & Knight, 1971; Gergen & Taylor, 1969).

This notion then suggests that some types of influence tactics will be considered more situationally appropriate and more effective than others.

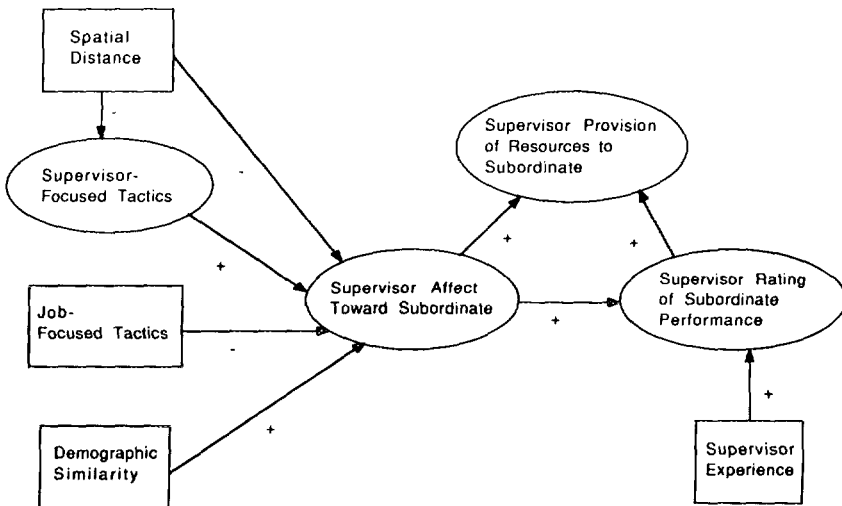


FIG. 1. Causal model of subordinate influence in the performance evaluation process.

Results by Wayne and Ferris (1990) indicated that influence tactics could be separated into job- and supervisor-focused categories. Job-focused tactics are oriented toward promoting oneself in efforts to appear more competent at one's job. Supervisor-focused tactics basically are ingratiatory behaviors, intended to make one better liked. The model proposes a negative relationship between job-focused tactics and supervisor affect, and a positive relationship between supervisor-focused tactics and affect. Behaviors included in the job-focused category have been associated in prior research with the concept of self-promotion (Giacalone, 1985; Schlenker, 1980), and such behaviors have been found to be ineffective, and even detrimental, with regard to achieving outcomes. It is proposed that such job-focused tactics lead to negative affect or dislike by the supervisor, resulting in lower performance ratings and lower provision of resources. The supervisor-focused influence tactics, involving favor doing, compliments, and other ingratiatory behaviors, are believed to lead to more positive affect by the supervisor through enhancement of one's interpersonal attractiveness (e.g., Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Regan, Straus, & Fazio, 1974; Wortman & Linsenmeier, 1977). This increased affect then presumably leads to higher performance ratings and provision of resources. As a central feature of the proposed model, it was important to initially clarify the roles of the two sets of subordinate influence tactics. Next, the linkages in the model are discussed more specifically.

The distance (or closeness) between supervisor and subordinate can manifest itself in several ways, and has been suggested as a potentially important influence on the performance evaluation process (Ilgen & Feldman, 1983; Landy & Farr, 1983; Mitchell, 1983; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984). Distance (or closeness) can be either physical or psychological in nature, and can be operationalized in such forms as spatial distance and interpersonal similarity. However, these measures of distance are believed to affect the performance rating process, not directly but through the effects exerted on supervisor affect toward the subordinate and influence behavior. Spatial distance is hypothesized to be negatively related to supervisor affect toward the subordinate, in that those who work closely to one another are more likely to reflect interpersonal attraction.

The effects of spatial distance also are proposed to affect influence behavior. Spatial distance presumably affects how informed the supervisor is regarding the subordinate's work behavior and performance. Spatial distance, then, is proposed to have a negative relationship with supervisor-focused tactics, due to the types of specific behaviors that make up these tactics. Showing an interest in the supervisor's personal life, praising his or her accomplishments, volunteering to help him or her on a task, and doing personal favors for him or her all involve direct contact between supervisor and subordinate. Thus, the subordinate may see little

usefulness in exhibiting such behaviors when the supervisor is never around. Presumably, there is little to be gained from "playing to an empty house."

Research on supervisor-subordinate work relationships has suggested that interpersonal similarity leads to mutual liking and attraction. Ducheon, Green, and Taber (1986) found that supervisor-subordinate similarity on several demographic characteristics was positively associated with the mutual affect felt between the supervisor and subordinate. Interpersonal similarity may lead to attraction and compatibility, following the similarity-attraction theory suggested by Byrne (1969). This being the case, demographic similarity is hypothesized to positively influence supervisor affect toward subordinate.

As presented earlier, the supervisor-focused and job-focused influence tactics are believed to differentially affect performance ratings through their effects on supervisor affect. Thus, supervisor-focused tactics are hypothesized to have a positive effect and job-focused tactics are hypothesized to have a negative effect on supervisor affect toward the subordinate. Thus, it appears that cognitive, information-processing mechanisms may operate through this process. Zajonc (1980) has suggested that affective responses may occur automatically in conjunction with automatic attentional processes. He argued that cognition and evaluation may be separate in some situations, and that affective responses may be experienced without prior cognition. Ilgen and Feldman (1983) concluded, then, that when attention comes to be automatically focused on a person, quite possibly there is a feeling of like or dislike that occurs nearly simultaneously. Relating this to subordinate influence tactics, they suggested that individuals who have become skilled at creating favorable impressions may do so by having learned to manipulate affectively relevant cues.

Supervisor affect, in turn, is believed to directly influence supervisor ratings of subordinate performance. Following from prior research (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Kingstrom & Mainstone, 1985; Tsui & Barry, 1986; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), it is hypothesized that supervisor affect toward subordinate has a positive effect on supervisor performance ratings. Some research has demonstrated that supervisor affect toward subordinate is associated with reward and resource allocation behavior (e.g., Podsakoff, 1982). Furthermore, it seems reasonable to conclude that positive affect would lead the supervisor to allocate other resources to the subordinate including time, attention, and support. Thus, it is hypothesized that supervisor affect toward subordinate has a positive effect on supervisor provision of resources to subordinate.

Conventional wisdom would suggest that higher performers are allocated greater resources than lower performers. Indeed, much greater at-

tention in the compensation area has been devoted to the linkage between performance and financial or monetary resources. In addition, a compelling argument can be made that supervisors would make investments in, and allocate information, job assignments, and their time more so to high performers, where they believe a greater return on such investments would likely be realized. Therefore, a positive effect is hypothesized for supervisor rating of subordinate performance on supervisor provision of resources to subordinate.

A final linkage in the model involves the influence of supervisor experience on the performance ratings they provide. Unfortunately, the prior research on rater experience has produced mixed results, with some studies focusing on how experience affects reliability of ratings, and others examining effects on rating leniency or favorability (Landy & Farr, 1980). However, more of the studies reviewed by Landy and Farr seem to suggest a positive relationship than a negative (or no) relationship between supervisor experience and performance ratings. It may be the case that less experienced supervisors rate more harshly as a means of demonstrating their capabilities to handle the job of supervisor and make "tough" decisions. As supervisors gain more experience, self-confidence, and become established in their jobs, there is less perceived need to demonstrate one's toughness, and, in fact, they may well adopt more lenient rating tendencies. Another explanation is that experienced supervisors may simply have a better understanding of, and appreciation for, the complexities of task performance. The experienced supervisor may have a better grasp of the uncertainties inherent in the behavior-performance relationship. Finally, it may also be that supervisors experience the costs of giving unfavorable ratings only over time, through subordinate complaints, appeals, and hostility. Perhaps more experienced supervisors have learned that unfavorable ratings simply are not worth the trouble they cause. Therefore, for these reasons, it is hypothesized that more experienced supervisors will tend to evaluate subordinate performance more leniently than supervisors with less experience.

A final point needs to be made about the selection of variables for this model. Specifically, some might perceive it as a serious omission that actual performance is not included. Indeed, we would agree that a comprehensive model of performance evaluation should include actual performance. The unfortunate fact is that in practice, we typically cannot obtain assessments of actual performance independent of ratings. The answer to the question, "what is performance in most jobs and organizations?" is that it is what supervisor ratings of subordinate performance reflect. So, whereas we do not dispute the potential effects of actual performance on performance ratings by supervisors, the model proposed and tested in this research focuses on nonperformance issues.

The purpose of the present study was to empirically test the causal model of subordinate influence in the performance evaluation process. Whereas the model highlights the role of subordinate influence tactics, it also incorporates a number of important, but underinvestigated, social and situational variables, in addition to affective and cognitive factors.

## METHOD

### *Sample and Procedure*

A research proposal was submitted, evaluated, and approved by the Research Board of a medium-size midwestern hospital. The nursing services department worked with the researchers in coordinating the data collection procedure, which involved questionnaire administration to staff nurses and their supervisors. Because of the nature of this research, there was a dyadic focus such that staff nurses needed to be matched with their supervisors for data coding and analysis purposes. There were a limited number of nurse supervisors; each one needed to respond to questions about more than one of their staff nurses. In an effort to keep the task manageable for supervisors, and enhance the validity of the responses, we imposed the requirement that there could be no more than four staff nurses for any one supervisor. Furthermore, we wanted to maximize representativeness of the sample across both hospital departments (i.e., 14 different departments) and work shifts (i.e., 3 different shifts), and ensure that participation in the study was voluntary.

The foregoing procedure and objectives resulted in a final sample of 95 staff nurses and 28 nurse supervisors, which reflected 47% of the 201 total staff nurses and 88% of the total nursing supervisors employed at the hospital. Staff nurses reported to a conference room at the end of their shift and completed questionnaires. Supervisors were given questionnaires at work, about each of their subordinates participating in the study, to complete as they found time either at work or at home.

For the staff nurses, the demographic composition of the sample demonstrates that 91 of the participants were female while only 4 were male, and 74% were married ( $n = 70$ ) with 26% ( $n = 25$ ) not married. The average age of the participants was 33.02 years, with a range of 21 to 55 years, and employees reflected an average tenure in the organization of 4.87 years, with a range of 2 months to 23 years. Finally, of the total number of employees, 61% worked the day shift, 22% worked the afternoon shift, and 17% worked nights.

Of the total number of supervisors, all were female, and they had an average age of 31.61 years, with a range of 24 to 49 years. Their tenure in the organization averaged 7.42 years, with a range of 3 months to 22.50 years. Average tenure as a supervisor was 2.74 years with a range of 3

months to 10 years. Supervisors reported an average span of control (i.e., number of employees reporting to them) of 17.39, with a range of 3 employees to 69.

### *Questionnaires*

Data on a number of measures were collected from different questionnaires distributed separately to supervisors and staff nurses. The major variables used in the data analyses are presented below, along with their psychometric properties.

*Affect of supervisor toward subordinate.* A three-item scale was used to measure the supervisor's degree of affect or liking toward the subordinate. The anchors for one of the items (measured on 5-point scales) ranged from "I don't like this subordinate at all" to "I like this subordinate very much." The anchors for the remaining two items ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The coefficient alpha reliability estimate was .88.

*Provision of resources.* Often a supervisor has several informal resources under his or her control such as providing employees with inside information, emotional support, or a flexible work schedule. In addition, these resources are often limited and not provided to all people. This 8-item measure assesses (on 5-point scales) the extent to which the supervisor makes such resources available to employees. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for the degree to which supervisors report they provide resources to subordinates is .82.

*Performance evaluation.* Each staff nurse's work performance was evaluated on four dimensions, consisting of ratings (from 1 = unsatisfactory to 5 = outstanding) on the specific dimensions of job knowledge, quantity of work, quality of work, and patient relations. Detailed behavioral anchors were included in each performance dimension. These items were then summed to form an overall measure of performance. The reliability estimate for this scale was .87.

*Subordinate influence tactics.* A scale developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990) was used to measure subordinate influence tactics. The frequency that a subordinate had engaged in the behavior during the past 3 months was reported by their supervisors on a 7-point scale, ranging from "never" to "always." Results of a principal components analysis on this measure conducted by Wayne and Ferris indicated that the 24 items separated into three types of behaviors or tactics: job-focused, supervisor-focused, and self-focused. Because the self-focused tactics scale demonstrated poor reliability ( $\alpha = .34$ ), and because many of the items seemed to relate as much to the other scales as being distinct, it was not used in the analysis. Further research needs to address if self-focused tactics are in fact distinct from the other two tactics. The relevant items

loading on the job- and supervisor-focused dimensions were summed to form two scales (see Appendix for a complete list of these items). The extent to which subordinates engaged in each of these behaviors was assessed from the perspective of the supervisor. This was done because it was thought that with the nature of influence behavior, those that are most likely to behave in a self-interested manner may be the least likely to be open in their responses. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for these two influence behavior scales are: job-focused = .88; supervisor-focused = .83.

*Spatial distance.* A three-item measure (5-point Likert-type scale) developed by Kerr and Jermier (1978) was used to assess the degree of interpersonal distance that characterized the work-related interactions between supervisor and subordinate. Because it is hypothesized that spatial distance affects subordinate influence tactics, subordinate reports of spatial distance were used. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate was .80.

*Background data.* Additional data were collected from both supervisors and subordinates concerning age, sex, race, marital status, tenure, work shift, and the unit within the hospital in which they worked. Race, age, marital status, and job tenure similarly were collapsed into an overall measure of demographic similarity, consistent with the procedure suggested by Turban and Jones (1988). This composite index was then included in the causal model as a predictor of supervisor affect toward the subordinate. Race similarity was computed as a dichotomous variable (1 if the supervisor's and subordinate's race are the same; 0 if they are not). Marital similarity was assessed comparably (1 if the supervisor's and subordinate's marital status were the same; 0 if not). Age similarity was computed as the absolute difference between the age of the supervisor and age of the subordinate. Job tenure similarity was calculated in a comparable manner. These four variables were standardized and summed to form a composite similarity variable. Tenure with the current position as supervisor was used as the measure of supervisor experience.

## RESULTS

### *Causal Model Testing*

To test the proposed causal model (Fig. 1), a covariance structure model was employed. Covariance structure models, most commonly estimated by the LISREL software package, allow the joint specification and estimation of the measurement model and structural model hypothesized to account for the observed data (Long, 1983). LISREL 7 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989) was used.

There are two advantages of LISREL to the present study. First,



LISREL allows the estimation of latent variables from observed variables. It is unjustified to assume that variables in the causal model are measured without error. Structural relationships among concepts are disattenuated for measurement error, providing an assessment of the "true" relationship between the variables. Second, LISREL incorporates structural equation modeling techniques into the algorithm. This allows tests of nonrecursive models and models with endogenous independent variables. Finally, LISREL allows tests of alternative models to the hypothesized model; in the present study the feasibility of several alternative models is tested after first evaluating the hypothesized model.

Interpretation of causal effects based on results from covariance structure analysis is based on a number of assumptions (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982). Rarely are all of these assumptions met in practice, although the consequences of violating the assumptions vary in importance (Bollen, 1989). Thus, whereas causal assumptions are perfectly consistent with covariance structure analysis in theory, practical realities suggest caution in drawing causal inferences based on LISREL results.

With covariance structure models, it is essential to first examine the overall fit of the model. If the model does not fit the data acceptably, the overall hypothesis that the model is an accurate representation of the data is rejected. In such cases, the coefficients estimated in the model can be biased due to relevant omitted causes, and thus are meaningless (James *et al.*, 1982). Several statistics provide information on the fit of the model. The most widely used measure is the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) statistic. Perhaps the most conventional use of chi-square is to examine the ratio of chi-square relative to the degrees of freedom (Hoetler, 1983; La Du & Tanaka, 1989). Other conventional fit statistics include the goodness-of-fit index, adjusted goodness-of-fit index, root-mean-square-residual, and coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ).

It is important to note several limitations in interpreting fit statistics. First, a particular value of a fit statistic cannot be used to rule out the possibility of omitted variables. Based on examination of the fit statistics, it is possible to infer that a particular model fits the data well when, in fact, not all relevant causes of a dependent variable have been specified (La Du & Tanaka, 1989). Second, levels of most fit statistics depend on the sample size (La Du & Tanaka, 1989). For example, a  $\chi^2/df$  ratio of 2 implies a better fit when the sample size is 500 than when the sample size is 100. Conversely, a root-mean-square residual of .10 implies a better fit with a small sample size than with a large sample size. Finally, because the underlying distributions of most fit statistics are unknown, evaluating their acceptability is subjective. Because of these problems in interpreting what is or is not an acceptable value of a particular fit statistic, evaluative labels are not attached on values of the fit statistics. It is best to interpret

the acceptability of a particular model by examining the fit indices cumulatively (James & James, 1989; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1990).

### *LISREL Results*

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the variables used in the analysis. Scale reliabilities are provided in the diagonals. Because of the relatively small sample size, the measurement structure of the model was kept as simple as possible. Each variable was treated as manifest. When the sample size is relatively small, a parsimonious estimation strategy is an important consideration because the number of parameters estimated relative to sample size is an important determinant of convergence, standard errors, and model fit in covariance structure models (Hayduk, 1987; Idaszak, Bottom, & Drasgow, 1988). Although the sample size is small, Bentler (1985) suggested that a sample size to parameter ratio of 5 or more is sufficient to achieve reliable estimates in maximum likelihood estimation. Because the sample size to estimated parameter ratio in the present study was 5.6, the sample size was considered adequate for the analyses (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988).

Prior to estimating relations between manifest variables, Hayduk (1987) encouraged the researcher to sequester error variances of concepts based on their known psychometric properties. Accordingly, the error variances for each manifest variable measured by multiple items were fixed at one minus the reliability coefficient. For example, because alpha for the performance scale was .87, the error variance for performance was fixed at .13. Single-item measures of concepts (e.g., supervisor experience) were assumed to be measured without error.

Figure 2 provides the maximum likelihood estimates of the hypothesized model. The parameter estimates of the model indicate that spatial

TABLE 1  
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATIONS OF VARIABLES

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Supervisor affect toward subordinate	41.35	5.81	(.92)							
2 Provision of resources	27.40	4.94	.78	(.82)						
3 Performance rating	11.58	2.35	.74	.73	(.87)					
4 Supervisor-focused tactics	25.21	6.64	.47	.29	.43	(.83)				
5 Spatial distance	7.68	2.83	-.25	-.09	-.29	-.46	(.80)			
6 Job-focused tactics	32.05	9.66	-.39	-.18	-.34	.16	-.01	(.88)		
7 Demographic similarity	0.30	1.95	.23	.28	.20	-.09	.15	-.07	—	
8 Supervisor experience	2.72	2.61	.20	.16	.32	-.09	-.16	-.47	.47	—

Note: Decimals are omitted. Scale reliabilities are in parentheses.

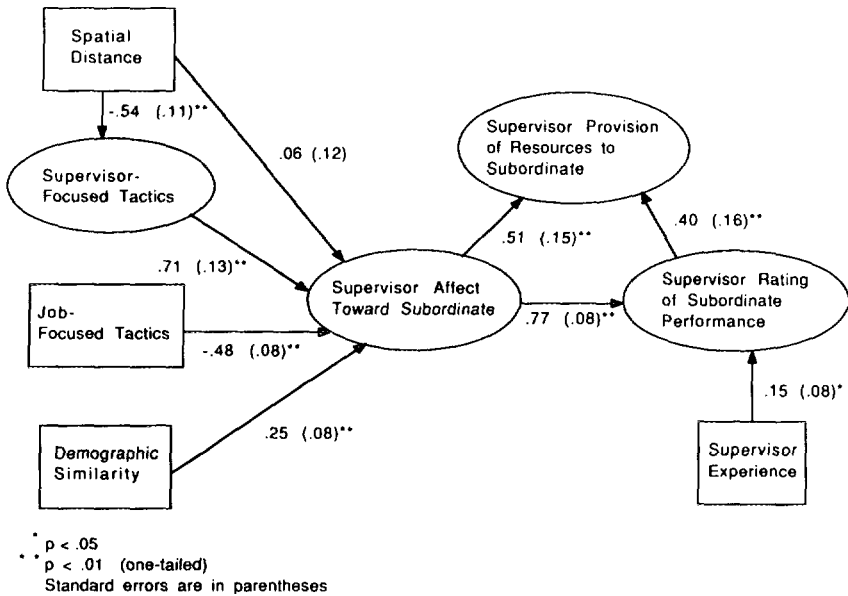


FIG. 2. Structural estimates of causal model.

distance was not significantly associated with supervisor affect toward subordinate. However, spatial distance was significantly associated with supervisor-focused tactics. Job-focused tactics led to lower levels of supervisor affect toward the subordinate. On the other hand, supervisor-focused tactics led to higher levels of liking. Demographic similarity led to higher levels of affect of the supervisor toward the subordinate. High (or low) levels of supervisor affect led to high (or low) performance ratings. Supervisor affect toward subordinate and appraised performance each strongly influenced supervisors' provision of resources to subordinates. Finally, experienced supervisors issued significantly higher ratings than inexperienced supervisors. The fit statistics from the causal model estimation are displayed in Table 2. Examination of the fit statistics cumulatively suggest that the model provides an adequate fit to the data.

Table 3 provides the indirect effects of job- and supervisor-focused tactics. The stability index is less than 1.0, indicating that the model is stable and indirect effects can be properly interpreted (Hayduk, 1987). Both job-focused tactics and supervisor-focused tactics, although not hypothesized to have direct effects on performance ratings, had substantial indirect effects. As hypothesized, they were in opposite directions. Through their effect on supervisor affect, job-focused tactics led to lower performance ratings. Supervisor-focused tactics indirectly led to higher performance ratings. The same situation held for the indirect effects of

TABLE 2  
FIT STATISTICS OF STRUCTURAL MODEL

Fit statistic	Value
Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ )	40.870
Degrees of freedom ( <i>df</i> )	19.000
$\chi^2/df$	2.150
Goodness-of-fit index	.910
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index	.829
Root-mean-square residual	.111
Overall coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ )	.658
$R^2$ (supervisor-focused tactics)	.334
$R^2$ (supervisor affect toward subordinate)	.644
$R^2$ (supervisor rating of subordinate performance)	.743
$R^2$ (supervisor provision of resources to subordinate)	.847

influence tactics on resource provision. Job-focused tactics led to much lower provision of resources, whereas supervisor-focused tactics led to much higher levels of resource provision. All these indirect effects were statistically significant.

#### *Alternative Model Testing*

As indicated earlier, the hypothesized model fit the data very well. However, because one model fits the data well does not rule out the possibility that other models might fit the data at least as well. Hayduk (1987) encouraged researchers to test alternative, particularly nested, models. Nested models address the issue of whether the decrease in  $\chi^2$  between the hypothesized model and the model with an additional causal link added is significant. If so, the hypothesis of the original model as an

TABLE 3  
INDIRECT EFFECTS OF JOB AND SUPERVISOR-FOCUSED TACTICS

Path	Indirect effect	Standard error
Job-focused tactics to supervisor rating of subordinate performance	-.39	.07
Supervisor-focused tactics to supervisor rating of subordinate performance	.54	.11
Job-focused tactics to supervisor provision of resources to subordinate	-.42	.08
Supervisor-focused tactics to supervisor provision of resources to subordinate	.58	.11

*Note.* All effects are significant at the .01 level. Stability Index = .855.

adequate representation of the data is rejected. The proper model should include the added causal link.

Several added causal links, although not hypothesized, seemed reasonable to investigate. One alternative model is that supervisors like high performers, rather than (or in addition to) issuing favorable ratings to those they like. Finding such a link would call into question the validity of the present model, because supervisor affect toward the subordinate might be more of a *result*, rather than a cause, of performance ratings. In response to this possibility, the hypothesized model reviewed earlier was estimated with an added link from supervisor evaluation of subordinate performance to supervisor affect toward subordinate. Estimation of this model yielded a decrease in chi-square of only 0.62 with 1 less degree of freedom, which was not significant, indicating that adding the linkage from performance to affect does not significantly add to the explanatory power of the model. Thus, the results do not support the inference that high performers are better liked, but rather that supervisors who like their subordinates appraise them more favorably, as hypothesized.

Another alternative model is that influence tactics predict performance ratings directly. This would be expected if subordinate influence tactics caused differing supervisor evaluations of subordinate performance without necessarily operating through affect. For example, it is possible that defensive tactics, such as excuse-making, may not cause the supervisor to like or dislike the subordinate, but might lead the supervisor to evaluate the subordinate less harshly. These additional direct links, from job- and supervisor-focused tactics to performance ratings, were added to the hypothesized model. The decrease in chi-square with this model (2.14), with 2 fewer degrees of freedom, was not significantly less than the hypothesized model. Thus, influence tactics can be concluded to operate on appraised performance only as mediated through supervisor affect. No direct links were found to exist.

Because both evaluation of influence tactics and affect toward subordinate were evaluated by the supervisor, it is possible that the causal direction of the influence tactics-supervisor affect linkage instead (or also) operates opposite to that hypothesized—that is, from supervisor affect to report of influence tactics. This might be expected if supervisor's liking of the subordinate biased their evaluation of the behaviors in which subordinates engaged. In order to estimate reciprocal paths from supervisor affect toward the subordinate to the influence behaviors, instrumental variables were used to identify the concepts. In the parlance of structural equation modeling, instrumental variables refer to exogenous variables used to identify nonrecursive links (Fox, 1984; Goldberger, 1964). The instrumental variables chosen were self-monitoring, age, spatial distance, and formalization. These instrumental variables were suggested by

past research as relevant influences (Ferris & Judge, 1991). This alternative specification, adding a link from supervisor affect toward the subordinate to the influence behaviors, was estimated with each influence tactic. When adding a link from supervisor affect to evaluation of supervisor-focused tactics, the decrease in chi-square was not significant (decrease  $\chi^2 = 0.63$ ; decrease  $df = 1$ ; ns). Adding a link from affect to job-focused tactics also did not significantly improve the fit of the model (decrease  $\chi^2 = 0.53$ , decrease  $df = 1$ , ns). Thus, the data support the hypothesis that supervisor evaluation of subordinate influence tactics is not dependent upon the degree to which the supervisor likes the subordinate.

Some may believe that the relations observed between the constructs are not structural relations, but measurement relations. For example, it is possible that the relatively strong relations observed between the constructs are due to the fact that they are simply alternative measures of an overall affective construct. To investigate the possibility that measures of supervisor affect toward subordinate, supervisor evaluation of subordinate performance, and supervisor provision of resources to subordinate were in fact distinct constructs, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted consistent with Brooke *et al.* (1988) and Mathieu and Farr (1991). If these variables are sufficiently distinguishable from one another, a single factor solution should fit the data significantly worse than the hypothesized factor structure. The results indicated that when a model was estimated with the hypothesized measures loading on the respective constructs, the model fit the data well ( $\chi^2 = 144.25$  with 74 degrees of freedom; goodness of fit index = .837; root-mean-square-residual = .07). Further, all measurement loadings were significant. This model also fit significantly better than a single factor model (difference in  $\chi^2 = 131.12$  with 5 degrees of freedom,  $p < .01$ ). It also fit better than a three-factor model composed of a random ordering of the measurements (difference in  $\chi^2 = 112.47$ ). Thus, it is reasonable to interpret the relations between the variables as structural relations. The interpretations of the results, therefore, should be sound.

Finally, as indicated earlier, an alternative model was estimated using subordinate rather than supervisor reports of influence tactics.<sup>1</sup> The model fit the data acceptably ( $\chi^2/\text{degrees of freedom} = 1.89$ ). In fact, the overall fit is very similar to the model using supervisor reports of influence tactics. All relationships that were significant in the previous model were significant in this model, with one exception. Although positively related to supervisor affect toward the subordinate, subordinate reports

<sup>1</sup> A model was estimated with both subordinate and supervisor reports of influence tactics. Unfortunately, this model failed to converge, perhaps due to the additional burden the added measurement loadings imposed on model due to the relatively small sample size.

of job-focused tactics failed to achieve statistical significance. Overall, the commonality between the models provides some evidence for the validity of the findings. In light of the confirmatory results presented earlier on the hypothesized model—in addition to the nonsignificant alternative links tested—the causal model displayed in Fig. 1 is supported by the data.

## DISCUSSION

Over the past decade, the field has witnessed a major shift in focus from instrumentation to process considerations involving theory and research in performance evaluation. Conceptual and empirical attention has been devoted to cognitive and affective influences, as well as aspects of the social and situational context, on the performance evaluation process. However, most empirical efforts have tended to isolate the effects of one or two of these elements and not fully consider the complex dynamics inherent in the examination of a more extensive set of influences. The present study was an attempt to address this need by proposing and testing a causal model of the performance evaluation process which highlighted the role of subordinate influence and took account of social, situational, affective, and cognitive considerations.

### *The Causal Model*

The causal model tested resulted in some interesting findings. Spatial distance demonstrated significant effects on supervisor-focused influence tactics. Quite logically, it seems that individuals are inclined to engage in influence tactics directed at the supervisor only in contexts where subordinates and supervisors work in reasonably close proximity. Alternatively, by their very nature, job-focused tactics necessitate no such interpersonal closeness, but in fact could be employed in various situations irrespective of distance.

The hypothesized negative effect of spatial distance on supervisor affect toward subordinate was not supported. It was believed that supervisors and subordinates who worked in close proximity would develop a greater degree of interpersonal attraction than those working more distant from one another, thus leading to higher supervisor affect toward subordinate. This linkage in the model did not achieve significance, and furthermore reflected a positive, not negative, sign on the coefficient, contrary to prediction.

The paths from both supervisor-focused and job-focused influence tactics to supervisor affect toward subordinate were both supported in the predicted direction. It was suggested that influence tactics are neither similarly perceived nor equally effective across situations, but that situational expectations and appropriateness are important considerations.

The notion of "situated identities" refers to the social interaction pattern of behaviors which conveys the optimal identity for that particular setting (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Furthermore, it has been suggested that people construct patterns of situationally appropriate behavior based upon their knowledge of these isolated identities (e.g., Alexander & Knight, 1971; Gergen & Taylor, 1969).

This would suggest that certain types of influence tactics are considered more situationally appropriate and effective than others. The supervisor-focused tactics essentially involve ingratiation behaviors where the effort is to appear likable, and in fact, they lead to higher supervisor affect. The job-focused tactics were essentially self-promotion behaviors in which the effort is to appear competent, but these behaviors led to lower supervisor affect. Thus, in the context of performance evaluation, it seems that supervisor-focused behaviors are considered more situationally appropriate and effective than others. Interestingly, the opposite pattern of results has been found recently in research on how influence tactics affect employment interviewer decisions. Kacmar, Delery, and Ferris (1992) competitively tested the effectiveness of ingratiation versus self-promoting behaviors and found that interviewers made more favorable evaluations of the self-promoting than the ingratiation candidate. In light of these findings, and those of the present study, it appears that in different human resources decision-making contexts, different types of behaviors are considered situationally appropriate and effective. Furthermore, it seems clear that ingratiation and self-promotion are distinguishable behaviors, with quite different consequences (Godfrey *et al.*, 1986). It would be useful for future research to investigate if the effectiveness of different types of influence tactics also varies with respect to other human resource outcomes (e.g., career progression, pay raise decisions, etc.).

The effects of subordinate influence tactics appear to have cognitive and affective information processing implications as well. Models of the performance evaluation process by Feldman (1981) and Ilgen and Feldman (1983) discuss the categorization process, and they distinguish between models of information processing that are automatic and controlled modes of processing, which require conscious effort. In addition, Motowidlo (1986) proposed an information-processing model in which he argued that information is not stored in purely descriptive form, but instead is transformed and stored as either positive or negative evaluative impressions. It appears that such affective and evaluative impressions are formed automatically very soon after initial exposure to the behavior or stimulus object (Zajonc, 1980). The demonstration of situationally appropriate influence tactics by subordinates, then, seems to be perceived by supervisors and automatically assigned an evaluative label and stored in memory for future use. When it is retrieved from memory, it is brought



out as an evaluative impression. Furthermore, Feldman and Lynch (1988) would likely argue that, in the present case, affect is both highly accessible and sufficiently diagnostic for the performance evaluation judgments made here.

It is noteworthy that these results concerning subordinate influence tactics are supportive of the findings of Wayne and Ferris (1990) with regard to supervisor-focused tactics, but are inconsistent with the job-focused tactics results. Whereas the present results demonstrate a significant negative causal link from job-focused tactics to supervisor affect toward subordinate, Wayne and Ferris reported a near significant ( $p < .10$ ) linkage for job-focused tactics, but in the positive not negative direction. These differences could be a function of the different occupational groups sampled in the two studies. The Wayne and Ferris study sampled bank employees whereas the present research involved staff nurses. Grabbing responsibility for positive events and self-enhancements simply may be less tolerated by supervisors in the nursing profession, whose roots trace to the example of the Good Samaritan (Dolan, Fitzpatrick, & Herrmann, 1983).

A demographic similarity index was tested in this causal model in order to address the possible influences of similarity on liking, which may go beyond the liking variance accounted for by influence tactics. It was found that the demographic similarity path was positive and significant, leading to supervisor affect. This supports the similarity-attraction paradigm established in the work of Byrne (1969). Pfeffer (1983) has argued that such processes also apply to demographic characteristics, and our results support that proposition.

A final set of linkages examined in the present causal model were the supervisor affect—performance ratings, the supervisor affect—provision of resources, and the performance ratings—provision of resources relationships. All three of these paths indicated strong support for the predictions. The first two of these three significant linkages even more firmly establish the findings from prior research that supervisor affect toward subordinate is related positively to the supervisors' ratings of subordinate performance (e.g., Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Kingstrom & Mainstone, 1985; Tsui & Barry, 1986; Wayne & Ferris, 1990), and to allocation of rewards or resources (Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Podsakoff, 1982).

There appear to be potential cognitive, information processing implications of the linkages between supervisor affect toward subordinate and both performance ratings and provision of resources. DeNisi and Williams (1988) suggested that affect influences the processing of performance information, and Isen and Baron (1991) shed light on this suggestion in their conceptualization of positive affect and its role in organizational settings. They argued that positive affect facilitates the recall of

information stored in memory which possesses a positive affective tone. Thus, positive affect toward a subordinate (perhaps created by the influence tactics he or she employs) should result in the supervisor recalling more positive performance-related behaviors and evaluative impressions, which should lead to the supervisor rating the subordinate's performance highly and allocating resources to him or her. The opposite pattern would be expected for negative affect, but dislike has been found to demonstrate somewhat weaker effects on such evaluations (Sinclair, 1988; Tsui & Barry, 1986).

This third linkage, between supervisor ratings of subordinate performance and supervisor provision of resources to subordinate, has both logical and prior research support. It makes sense that organizational resources should be allocated differentially on the basis of a legitimate criterion such as performance. In fact, the very basis of performance-based reward systems assumes the accurate assessment of "objective performance," followed by the allocation of resources and rewards based on that performance assessment. Indeed, we can extend this argument beyond the allocation of purely monetary rewards to also include supervisor time, attention, information, job assignments, and other resources supervisors control. However, where this assumption breaks down is in the accurate assessment of "objective performance," which for most jobs simply does not exist. Rather, performance level can only be known through the supervisor's subjective evaluation, which can be substantially influenced by affective reactions to the subordinate, further affected by influence tactics displayed by the subordinate. Of course, all of this suggests that even when reward and resource allocation appears to be based solely on performance and not a result of interpersonal influence, we may find that influence simply enters the equation at an earlier point to affect outcomes.

The final linkage in the model hypothesized, and found support for, a positive effect of supervisor experience on supervisor ratings of subordinate performance. This finding is consistent with some previous research (for review, see Landy & Farr, 1980) and may reflect a "toughness-leniency" progression that supervisors move through as they gain additional experience in supervision. It also may result from a better appreciation for the complexities of task performance on the part of the experienced supervisor.

#### *Contributions, Limitations, and Future Research*

The present study makes contributions to our understanding of influences on the performance evaluation process in several ways. First, the present study is responsive to appeals for research on performance evaluation which assess the influence of a broader set of factors, including

social, situational, affective, and cognitive elements (Dipboye, 1985; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Ilgen & Favero, 1985; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983; Mitchell, 1983; Wexley & Klimoski, 1984). It is important to understand the context within which performance evaluation takes place in order to meaningfully interpret the behavior of raters. Factors such as distance, similarity, and subordinate influence attempts help to form this performance evaluation context. Prior theory and research not only has failed to adequately address some of these variables individually, but also there have been limited efforts made to collectively consider their effects on the performance evaluation process.

Another contribution of this study concerns the methodology employed to gather upward influence information. A potential problem in the study of "sensitive" topics like subordinate upward influence is the possibility of social desirability in responses when the actor or influencer is asked to self-report on the extent to which he or she engages in a series of influence tactics. Such use of the actor as the exclusive source of information regarding influence tactics presumably could affect the validity of the results, yet this approach has been employed in prior research (e.g., Wayne & Ferris, 1990) for at least two reasons. First, it is often quite difficult or impossible to obtain information from alternative sources in organizational field research. Second, despite potential problems, using the actor or influencer as the source of information on influence tactics has some merit, and while socially desirability response bias might pose a potential problem in using actor sources of influence tactics, it has not been empirically substantiated to date.

The present study tested this notion by assessing upward influence tactics from both the actor/subordinate and the target/supervisor, and estimating separate models using each source. Essentially, the results of the two-model estimation procedures were similar. These results using the supervisor as the information source in the present study recently have been replicated by Valerius (1990) on a sample of city parks and recreation department managers. Furthermore, the discriminant validity evidence presented earlier allows greater confidence to be placed in the results as representing structural relations between theoretically and empirically distinguishable constructs.

Despite the contributions, the present research is not without its limitations. In this study, performance of the subordinate was measured by supervisor ratings (which was appropriate given the way the upward influence process was modeled and that performance is typically assessed in this manner in organizations). However, it would be desirable to have an "objective" measure of subordinate performance available against which to validate the present results. For example, it could be the case that "objective" poor-performing subordinates tend to make dispropor-

tionate use of job-focused upward influence tactics which result in supervisors liking them less and assigning them lower performance ratings. Furthermore, "objective" high-performing subordinates may make greater use of supervisor-focused influence tactics resulting in greater liking by supervisor and higher performance ratings. If this were the case, "objective" performance would be confounded with upward influence tactics, and it would be impossible to disentangle the effects. Unfortunately, for many jobs, "objective" measures of performance simply do not exist, making this issue highly problematic and difficult to address. Some efforts were made in the present study to gather follow-up data, from nonparticipant sources, on the performance of employees who took part in this research. Although the limited data gathered suggested no systematic differences in performance, these efforts provided only sketchy information and are not sufficient to discount this alternative explanation.

A second issue represents both a limitation of the present study and a direction for future research: that is, the cross-sectional nature of the research design. Whereas much can be learned from cross-sectional research, and such research has yielded useful results in this area, we need to design longitudinal research in order to develop a more informed understanding of how subordinate upward influence operates over time to affect the performance evaluation process. It seems likely that employees draw upon a diversified portfolio of influence tactics to manage impressions over their careers, and examinations of the differential use and effectiveness of these tactics over an extended period of time are best investigated using longitudinal research designs.

Future research in this area needs to investigate how subordinate upward influence tactics affect other types of human resources decisions and activities beside the performance evaluation process. Some efforts have been made to examine the effects of influence tactics on employment interviewer decisions (e.g., Baron, 1986; Gilmore & Ferris, 1989; Kacmar *et al.*, 1992), career progress (e.g., Gould & Penley, 1984), and pay increase decisions (e.g., Dreher, Dougherty, & Whitely, 1988; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988). Further research is needed in these and other areas, such as promotion decisions and career progression. Furthermore, efforts need to focus on competitive tests of different types of influence tactics so we can increase our understanding of the effectiveness of different types of tactics in different situations.

It is important to note that the interpretations offered in this study were not based on proof of causality, but rather that the causal relations are "more or less reasonable relative to alternative specifications" (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989, p. 1). Covariance structure models do not permit *proof*

of causality; they do permit *inferences* of causality (Hayduk, 1987; James *et al.*, 1982; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1986). Such analysis increase the plausibility of the causal model tested while simultaneously decreasing the plausibility of alternative causal models. Whereas the causal inferences made in this study were supported through comparisons with alternative specifications, this does not rule out the possibility of omitted influences.

In conclusion, a final issue that poses a challenge for, and bears consideration by, anyone pursuing research in this area is raised: that is, the issue of intentionality of the observed influence behaviors. As researchers, we often may assume that when a person demonstrates a behavior we have defined as an influence tactic, that person is necessarily doing so with the intention to manipulate and opportunistically bring about some valued and desired outcome. Until we design research (if possible) to expressly address the intentionality issue, we must be cautious in making such unfounded assumptions. It could be the case, for example, that some of the behaviors that make up the supervisor-focused category (e.g., favor-doing, volunteer to help supervisor, show a personal interest in supervisor) are interpreted by some employees and supervisors not as efforts to manipulate for personal gain, but as what an employee is expected to do as part of regular work behavior, or perhaps because he or she genuinely likes the supervisor. In fact, it is quite likely that supervisors observing the same behavior, but attributing different intentionality on the part of the actor, would respond quite differently. Efforts to address the intentionality issue also should have important implications for the work being done on organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1988). On the surface, some supervisor-focused influence tactics and citizenship behaviors might appear to be quite similar, if not identical. Indeed, Fandt and Ferris (1990) characterized the blurred distinction between these two sets of behaviors when they suggested that the demonstration of citizenship-type behaviors might be quite self-serving and instrumental in achieving valued outcomes. The critical distinction between subordinate influence tactics and organizational citizenship involves not the particular behaviors themselves as much as the intentions of the individual exhibiting those behaviors. Thus, the intentionality issue remains a challenge, and an important one at that.

Hopefully, the present study and the foregoing discussion of issues and challenges will serve to stimulate more research on social, situational, affective, and cognitive influences on the performance evaluation process. By simultaneously considering the effects of several categories of influences, we should move toward a more informed understanding of the performance evaluation process, and the social context in which it operates.

## APPENDIX

## Job-Focused and Supervisor-Focused Influence Tactics

*Job-Focused Tactics*

Play up the value of a positive event that you have taken credit for.

Try to make a positive event that you are responsible for appear greater than it actually is.

Try to take responsibility for positive events, even when you are not solely responsible.

Try to make a negative event that you are responsible for not appear as severe as it actually is to your supervisor.

Try to let your supervisor think that you are responsible for positive events that occur in your work group.

Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of your supervisor.

Work late at the office so that your supervisor will see you working late and think that you are a hard worker.

Make your supervisor aware of your accomplishments.

Agree with your immediate supervisor's major opinions outwardly even when you disagree inwardly.

Create the impression that you are a "good" person to your supervisor.

Disagree with your supervisor on *major* issues.

Take responsibility for negative events, even when you are not solely responsible.

*Supervisor-Focused Tactics*

Take an interest in your immediate supervisor's personal life.

Praise your immediate supervisor on his or her accomplishments.

Do personal favors for your supervisor.

Offer to do something for your supervisor which you were not required to do; that is, you did it as a personal favor for him or her.

Volunteer to help your immediate supervisor on a task.

Compliment your immediate supervisor on his or her dress or appearance.

Agree with your supervisor's major ideas.

## REFERENCES

- Alexander, C. N., Jr., & Knight, G. W. (1971). Situational identities and social psychological experimentation. *Sociometry*, 34, 65-82.
- Bargh, J. A. (1989). Conditional automaticity: Varieties of automatic influence in social perception and cognition. In J. S. Weman & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *Unintended thought*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Bargh, J. A., & Pietromonaco, P. (1982). Automatic information processing and social perception: The influence of trait information presented outside of conscious awareness on impression formation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, 437-449.

- Baron, R. A. (1986). Self-presentation in job interviews: When there can be "too much of a good thing." *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 16, 16-28.
- Bentler, P. M. (1985). *Theory and implementation of EQS: A structural equations program*. Los Angeles: BMDP Statistical Software.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. New York: Wiley.
- Borman, W. C. (1978). Exploring upper limits of reliability and validity in job performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63, 135-144.
- Brooke, P. P., Russell, D. W., & Price, J. L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 139-145.
- Byrne, D. (1969). Attitudes and attraction. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 4, pp. 35-90). New York: Academic Press.
- Byrne, D., & Griffitt, W. (1966). A development investigation of the law of attraction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 4, 699-702.
- Cardy, R. L., & Dobbins G. H. (1986). Affect and appraisal accuracy: Liking as an integral dimension on evaluating performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 672-678.
- Cooper, W. H. (1981). Ubiquitous halo. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90, 218-244.
- Crocker, J. (1981). Judgment of covariation by social perceivers. *Psychological Bulletin*, 90, 272-292.
- DeCotiis, T., & Petit, A. (1978). The performance appraisal process: A model and some testable propositions. *Academy of Management Review*, 3, 635-646.
- DeNisi, A. S., & Williams, K. J. (1988). Cognitive approaches to performance appraisal. In G. R. Ferris & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 6, pp. 109-155). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- DeNisi, A. S., Cafferty, T. P., & Meglino, B. M. (1984). A cognitive view of the performance appraisal process: A model and research propositions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 33, 360-396.
- Dipboye, R. L. (1985). Some neglected variables in research on discrimination in appraisals. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 116-127.
- Dolan, J. A., Fitzpatrick, M. L., & Herrmann, E. K. (1983). *Nursing in society: A historical perspective*. Philadelphia: Saunders.
- Dreher, G. F., Dougherty, T. W., & Whitely, W. (1988). *Influence tactics and salary attainment: A study of sex-based salary differences*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, 48th Annual National Meeting, Anaheim, CA.
- Duchon, D., Green, S. G., & Taber, T. D. (1986). Vertical dyad linkage: A longitudinal assessment of antecedents, measures, and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 56-60.
- Dyke, L. S. (1990). *Self-promotion in organizations*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada.
- Fandt, P. M., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). The management of information and impressions: When employees behave opportunistically. *Organization Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 45, 140-158.
- Feldman, J. M. (1981). Beyond attribution theory: Cognitive processes in performance appraisal. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66, 127-148.
- Feldman, J. M. (1986a). A note on the statistical correction for halo error. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 173-176.
- Feldman, J. M. (1986b). Instrumentation and training for performance appraisal: A perceptual-cognitive viewpoint. In K. M. Rowland & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 4, pp. 45-99). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Feldman, J. M., & Lynch, J. G., Jr. (1988). Self-generated validity and other effects on

- measurement on belief, attitude, intention, and behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 421-435.
- Ferris, G. R., & Judge, T. A. (1991). Personnel/human resources management: A political influence perspective. *Journal of Management*, 17, 1-42.
- Ferris, G. R., Judge, T. A., Chachere, J. G., & Liden, R. C. (1991). The age context of performance evaluation decisions. *Psychology and Aging*, 6, 616-622.
- Ferris, G. R., & King, T. R. (1991). Politics in human resource decisions: A walk on the dark side. *Organizational Dynamics*, 20, 59-71.
- Ferris, G. R., & Mitchell, T. R. (1987). The components of social influence and their importance for human resources research. In K. M. Rowland & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 5, pp. 103-128). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Ferris, G. R., Russ, G. S., & Fandt, P. M. (1989). Politics in organizations. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Eds.), *Impression management in the organization* (pp. 143-170). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Fiske, S. T., & Taylor, S. E. (1984). *Social cognition*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fox, J. (1984). *Linear statistical models and related methods*. New York: Wiley.
- Gardner, W. L., & Martinko, M. J. (1988). Impression management in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 14, 321-338.
- Gergen, K. J., & Taylor, M. G. (1969). Social expectancy and self-presentation in a status hierarchy. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 5, 79-82.
- Giacalone, R. A. (1985). On slipping when you thought you had put your best foot forward: Self-promotion, self-destruction, and entitlements. *Group & Organization Studies*, 10, 61-80.
- Gilmore, D. C., & Ferris, G. R. (1989). The effects of impression management tactics on interviewer judgments. *Journal of Management*, 15, 557-564.
- Godfrey, D. K., Jones, E. E., & Lord, C. G. (1986). Self-promotion is not ingratiating. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 106-115.
- Goldberger, A. S. (1964). *Econometric theory*. New York: Wiley.
- Gould, S., & Penley, L. E. (1984). Career strategies and salary progression: A study of their relationships in a municipal bureaucracy. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34, 244-265.
- Hamner, W. C., Kim, J. S., Baird, L., & Bigoness, W. J. (1974). Race and sex as determinants of ratings by potential employers in a simulated work-sampling task. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 705-711.
- Harris, M. M., & Schaubroeck, J. (1990). Confirmatory modeling in organizational behavior/human resource management: Issues and applications. *Journal of Management*, 16, 337-360.
- Hayduk, L. A. (1987). *Structural equation modeling with LISREL: Essentials and advances*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins.
- Hoetler, J. W. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness-of-fit indices. *Social Methods and Research*, 11, 325-344.
- Idaszak, J. R., Bottom, W. P., & Drasgow, F. (1988). A test of the measurement equivalence of revised Job Diagnostic Survey: Past problems and current solutions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 647-656.
- Ilgen, D. R., & Favero, J. L. (1985). Limits in generalization from psychological research to performance appraisal processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 311-321.
- Ilgen, D. R., & Feldman, J. M. (1983). Performance appraisal: A process focus. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 5, pp. 141-197). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Isen, A. M., & Baron, R. A. (1991). Positive affect as a factor in organizational behavior. In



- L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, (Vol. 13, pp. 1-53). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- James, L. A., & James, L. R. (1989). Causal modeling in organizational research. In C. Cooper & I. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 371-404). London: Wiley.
- James, L. R., Mulaik, S. A., & Brett, J. M. (1982). *Causal analysis: Assumptions, models, and data*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Jones, E., & Pittman, T. (1982). Toward a general theory of strategic self-presentation. In J. Suls (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on the self*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Jones, E. E. (1964). *Ingratiation*. New York: Appleton Century Crofts.
- Jones, E. E., Gergen, H. G., & Davis, K. E. (1962). Some determinants of reactions to being approved or disapproved as a person. *Psychological Monographs*, 77 (whole No. 566).
- Joreskog, K. G., & Sorbom, D. (1986). *LISREL VI. User's guide*. Mooresville, IN: Scientific Software.
- Kacmar, K. M., Delery, J. E., & Ferris, G. R. (1992). Differential effectiveness of applicant impression management tactics on employment interview decisions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 22, 1250-1272.
- Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22, 375-403.
- Kingstrom, P. O., & Mainstone, L. E. (1985). An investigation of the rater-ratee acquaintance and rater bias. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28, 641-653.
- Kipnis, D., & Schmidt, S. M. (1988). Upward influence styles: Relationship with performance evaluations, salary, and stress. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 528-542.
- Kipnis, D., & Vanderveer, R. (1971). Ingratiation and the use of power. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 17, 280-286.
- Kipnis, D., Schmidt, S. M., & Wilkinson, I. (1980). Intraorganizational influence tactics: Exploration in getting one's way. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 65, 440-452.
- La Du, T. J., & Tanaka, J. S. (1989). Influence of sample size, estimation method, and model specification on goodness-of-fit assessments in structural equation models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 625-635.
- Landy, F. J., & Farr, J. L. (1980). Performance rating. *Psychological Bulletin*, 87, 72-107.
- Landy, F. J., & Farr, J. L. (1983). *The measurement of work performance: Methods, theory, and applications*. New York: Academic Press.
- Liden, R. C., & Mitchell, T. R. (1988). Ingratiation behaviors in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 13, 572-587.
- Long, J. S. (1983). *Covariance structure models: An introduction to LISREL*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Farr, J. L. (1991). Further evidence for the discriminant validity of measures of organizational commitment, job involvement, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 127-133.
- Miles, R. E. (1964). Attitudes toward management theory as a factor in managers' relationships with their superiors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 7, 308-314.
- Mitchell, T. R. (1983). The effects of social, task, and situational factors on motivation, performance, and appraisal. In F. Landy, S. Zedeck, & J. Cleveland (Eds.), *Performance measurement and theory* (pp. 39-59). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mobley, W. H. (1982). Supervisor and employee race and sex effects on performance appraisals: A field study of adverse impact and generalizability. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 598-606.
- Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Information processing in personnel decisions. In K. M. Rowland

- & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 4, pp. 1-44). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Mowday, R. T. (1978). The exercise of upward influence in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 23, 137-156.
- Nathan, B. R., & Alexander, R. A. (1985). The role of inferential accuracy in performance rating. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 109-115.
- Nathan, B. R., & Lord, R. G. (1983). Cognitive categorization and dimensional schemata: A process approach to the study of halo in performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 102-114.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Palermo, D. S. (1983). Cognition, concepts, and an employee's theory of the world. In F. Landy, S. Zedeck, & J. Cleveland (Eds.), *Performance measurement and theory* (pp. 97-155). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Pfeffer, J. (1983). Organizational demography. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 5, pp. 299-357). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pfeffer, J., Salancik, G. R., & Leblebici, H. (1976). The effect of uncertainty on the use of social influence in organizational decision making. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21, 227-245.
- Podsakoff, P. M. (1982). Determinants of supervisors' use of rewards and punishment: A literature review and suggestions for further research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 29, 58-83.
- Porter, L. W., Allen, R. W., & Angle, H. L. (1981). The politics of upward influence in organizations. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 3, pp. 109-149). Greenwich, CT: JAI.
- Pulakos, E. D., & Wexley, K. N. (1983). The relationship among perceptual similarity, sex, and performance ratings in manager-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 129-139.
- Regan, D. T., Straus, E., & Fazio, R. (1974). Linking and the attribution process. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 10, 385-397.
- Rothaus, P., Morton, R. B., & Hanson, P. G. (1965). Performance appraisal and psychological distance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 49, 48-54.
- Schilit, W. K., & Locke, E. (1982). A study of upward influence in organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 27, 304-316.
- Schlenker, B. (1980). *Impression management: The self-concept, social identity, and interpersonal relations*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Schmitt, N., & Lappin, M. (1980). Race and sex as determinants of the mean and variance of performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 65, 428-435.
- Schneider, D. J. (1991). Social cognition. In M. R. Rozenzweig & L. W. Porter (Eds.), *Annual review of psychology* (Vol. 42, pp. 527-561). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, Inc.
- Senger, J. (1971). Managers' perceptions of subordinates' competence as a function of personal value orientation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 14, 415-423.
- Sinclair, R. D. (1988). Mood, categorization breadth, and performance appraisal: The effects of order of information acquisition and affective state of halo, accuracy, information retrieval, and evaluations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 42, 22-46.
- Smith, E. R., & Lerner, M. (1986). Development of automatism of social judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 246-259.
- Srull, T. K., & Wyer, R. S. (1989). Person memory and judgment. *Psychological Review*, 96, 58-83.

- Tedeschi, J., Melburg, V. (1984). Impression management and influence in the organization. In S. Bacharach & E. J. Lawler (Eds.), *Research in the sociology of organizations* (Vol. 3, pp. 31-58). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Tsui, A. S., & Barry, B. (1986). Interpersonal affect and rating errors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29, 586-599.
- Tsui, A. S., & O'Reilly, C. A., III. (1989). Beyond simply demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32, 402-423.
- Turban, D. B., & Jones, A. P. (1988). Supervisor-subordinate similarity: Types, effects, and mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73, 228-234.
- Valerius, L. (1990). *Antecedents of impression management among upper level managers in public leisure service agencies and their effects on performance appraisal*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Villanova, P., & Bernardin, H. J. (1989). Impression management in the context of performance appraisal. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Eds.), *Impression management in the organization* (pp. 299-313). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Wayne, S. J., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and a field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 487-499.
- Wayne, S. J., & Kacmar, K. M. (1991). The effects of impression management on the performance appraisal process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 48, 70-88.
- Wexley, K. N., & Klimoski, R. (1984). Performance appraisal: An update. In K. M. Rowland & G. R. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 2, pp. 35-79). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Wexley, K. N., Alexander, R. A., Greenawalt, S. P., & Couch, M. A. (1980). Attitudinal congruence and similarity as related to interpersonal evaluations in manager-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23, 320-330.
- Woehr, D. J., & Feldman, J. (1991). *Processing objective and question order effects on the causal relation between memory and judgment in performance appraisal: The tip of the iceberg*. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Wood, R., & Mitchell, T. (1981). Manager behavior in a social context: The impact of impression management on attributions and disciplinary actions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 28, 356-378.
- Wortman, C. B., & Linsenmeier, J. A. W. (1977). Interpersonal attraction and techniques of ingratiation in organizational settings. In B. M. Staw & G. R. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organizational behavior* (pp. 133-178). Chicago: St. Clair.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1980). Feeling and thinking: Preferences need no inferences. *American Psychologist*, 35, 151-175.
- Zalesny, M. D., & Kirsch, M. P. (1989). The effect of similarity on performance ratings and interrater agreement. *Human Relations*, 42, 81-96.

RECEIVED: June 18, 1991