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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF ACCOUNTABILITY SYSTEMS ON MOTIVATION TO RATE ACCURATELY

By

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A critical role of supervisors in the workplace is to guide and motivate the behavior of front-line employees, particularly those employees whose primary job entails customer service interactions. However, if accountability is not communicated and enforced to supervisors, they may be less motivated to adhere to organizational policies. The current experimental study examined how accountability systems and their implementation influence the motivation and behavior of those rating behavior accurately. Of unique interest is the use of an objective and non-dichotomous measure of the outcome behavior of accuracy. Participants (N = 174) were randomly assigned to one of 3 experimental conditions (accountability vs. no accountability vs. control) and then trained to evaluate vignettes of customer service interactions. In the pre and posttests, participants completed measures related to the constructs of the theory of planned behavior, perceived accountability, behavioral intention, and accuracy. Structural equation modeling and regression analyses were performed to test the utility of a theory of planned behavior (TPB) model and a modified TPB model that includes perceived accountability in the area of ratings accuracy. Results indicated that the TPB variables were predictors of behavioral intention, which was a subsequent significant, though weak, predictor of improved ratings accuracy. In addition, a perceived accountability instrument was created and tested for convergent and divergent validity and an extended TPB model with the inclusion of perceived accountability was tested. Perceptions of

shown to influence attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Perceptions of accountability were not found to influence increased ratings accuracy or to be a strong predictor of behavioral intentions to rate accurately. Key limitations of this research include the student sample used, as well as the lab setting, and induction effectiveness.

DEDICATION

To Moya Clarke Mulqueen and Herbert J. Mulqueen, Sr., my Nannie and Poppop – I wish you were here. You both have inspired me greatly; I couldn't have done this without the lessons you taught me.

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"You must do the thing you cannot do." --Eleanor Roosevelt

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION

Communication in the context of supervisor and employee feedback is a complex dynamic, with supervisors often providing incomplete and/or inaccurate feedback to employees (e.g. Curtis, Harvey, & Ravden, 2005; Eder & Fedor, 1989; Tziner, Murphy, & Cleveland, 2002). Organizations create policies that communicate procedures for employees and supervisors that give structure and guidelines for the performance feedback interaction to encourage accurate feedback from supervisors (Lefton, Buzzotta, Sherberg, & Karraker, 1977). Unfortunately, upper management does not always enforce the policies or standards, which creates a context where both supervisors and other organizational members know they will not be held accountable for certain actions (Curtis et al., 2005). Accountability, defined as being held answerable to one's actions (Ferris, Mitchell, Canavan, Frink, & Hopper, 1995) can become a "slippery slope" where quality and standards begin to erode, impacting the bottom line, customer satisfaction, and of particular interest in this research proposal, employee motivation. This issue is of significant interest to the service industry where service interactions are frequent, varied, and somewhat difficult to control (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990). It is also of value to organizational communication researchers who are interested in how accountability can be effectively communicated to organizational members.

Understanding what drives members of organizations to perform desirable behaviors and to be productive contributors to the organization's goals has been a ripe area of study. Research has demonstrated that those organizations that select and maintain a motivated staff are those that are the most successful and have a sustainable

competitive advantage over those that do not (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997; Walker, Johnson, & Leonard, 2006). However, maintaining a motivated staff is a complicated venture of organizational culture and superior human resource management. One key factor that may contribute to supervisors' ability to motivate employees is the aforementioned accountability system used to enforce organizational policies, or how their own managers hold employees accountable. One strategy used across organizations to monitor employees and hold them accountable for their actions is how performance feedback is communicated (Ferris et al., 1995). Performance feedback not only gives the supervisors a chance to monitor and guide the behavior of the employee, but also a time for the employee to receive information about what he or she can do to improve or to receive encouragement to repeat behaviors that have been successful. Furthermore, subjective performance assessment or performance ratings is a critical (e.g. Arvey & Murphy, 1998), and one of the most widely used measures of job performance (e.g. Dierdorff & Surface, 2007; Pulakos, Schmitt, & Chan, 1996). Performance evaluation decisions are made with social and political influences that may cause inaccuracies in evaluations (Judge & Ferris, 1992). A person can only be motivated to perform a behavior if they have the desire, the ability, and the knowledge of the proscribed standards to do so. The current research is interested in the relationship between the implementation of accountability systems and motivation to engage in accurate performance appraisals in the workplace as being accurate in rating behavior is also required for providing accurate performance feedback.

Performance Appraisals and Accountability

The area of performance appraisal has been studied extensively and the literature spans a number of diverse disciplines such as management (e.g. Earley, Northcraft, Lee, & Lituchy, 1990; Jaworski & Kohli, 1991; Longenecker, Sims, & Gioia, 1987), industrial-organization psychology (e.g. Decotiis & Petit, 1978; Korsgaard, 1996; Kozlowski & Bell, 2006; Kozlowski, Kirsch, & Chao, 1986; Murphy & Anhalt, 1992), sociology (e.g. Frink & Ferris, 1996) and social psychology (O'Leary & Hansen, 1983) to name just a few. Each discipline addresses the issue of performance appraisal and individual behavior in a variety of organizational contexts and through slightly different lenses. Despite the disparate viewpoints, what is agreed upon is that performance feedback is an integral element to monitoring and guiding behavior in organizations (Mohrman & Lawler, 1983). Only through holding organizational members accountable to the standards and rules of behavior set forth by the organization can the organization perform successfully. Performance appraisals are critical to the motivation of employees (Hale, 2002; Lefton et al., 1977), because the feedback sessions are supposed to provide employees with performance information that includes areas of excellence, areas for improvement, and organizational expectations. What is problematic and what makes this element such a competitive advantage for organizations, is that holding others accountable and giving performance appraisals are an inherently difficult tasks and not easy for competitors to duplicate.

At the heart of this research is the assumption that in order to guide and motivate the behavior of front-line employees the behavior of the supervisor must be monitored and motivated (Argyris, 2000; Covey, 1988). In other words, it is not enough to focus

directly on the behavior of front-line employees to move the organizational needle in a positive direction, it is critical to understand the motivation of supervisors in performing behaviors that cannot be easily or objectively monitored, like performance feedback. Of interest here is to examine how accountability systems and subsequent implementation of these systems influence the motivation and behavior of those performing ratings tasks. Thus, it becomes important to examine models and theories that might inform how organizations and individual supervisors can influence employees in meaningful ways.

A Persuasive Framework

Attempting to explain behavior through attitude change is nothing new in the persuasion literature, and the use of social influence theories as a theoretical framework in the context of organizations can be illuminating (e.g. Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991). A social influence framework can offer a great deal of insight into the motivation of employees as there appears to be an inherent connection between intention and work motivation (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976). Intention is often the target outcome in studies of cognitively based motivational techniques such as goal setting (Locke, 1968); however, goal and intention have frequently been treated as interchangeable ideas (Hughes, 1965; Locke, Shaw, Sari, & Latham, 1981), when they are actually separate constructs. There have been some studies within the organizational context that utilize the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) to explain different behaviors in organizations (Arnold, Loan-Clarke, Coombs, Wilkinson, Park, & Peterson, 2006), including feedback communication (Fedor, 1991) and information system usage (Huang & Chuang, 2007). And there have certainly been plenty of studies that have examined specific constructs of the theories,

without testing the entire model. Within studies that have tested the theoretical framework as a whole in the vocational realm, the core concepts of the TRA and TPB have generally, but not consistently been supported (e.g. Armitage & Conner, 2001; Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991).

Accountability

In addition to the TPB framework posited by the persuasion literature there are also other concepts of note that could help explain aspects of motivation in the workplace. The idea of accountability is nothing new, especially in the area of social psychology and industrial-organizational science (cf. Tetlock, 1985). Perceived accountability, or the expectation to have to explain or justify one's decisions or behavior (Sedikides, Herbst, Hardin, & Dardis, 2002) is an important concept in social cooperation, social norms, and organizational effectiveness. Despite its importance in both lay and academic study, accountability has differential impacts on behavior, especially behaviors associated with rating employee performance accurately (Tetlock & Kim, 1987). Briefly, accountability maintains social cooperation in that it is central to impression management; being held accountable taps a person's inherent need to avoid being negatively evaluated by others (Schlenker, Weigold, & Doherty, 1991; Tessor & Rosen, 1975).

While there has been much study of personality traits that influence impression management behavior (e.g. self-monitoring) (Fandt & Ferris, 1991), and behavior in reaction to accountability (e.g. Antonioni, 1994; Lerner & Tetlock, 1999; Schlenker et al., 1991), understanding personality traits can only explain some of the reactions to being held accountable (Tetlock, 1985). In the workplace, it might be taken for granted that

employees know what is expected of them and know that they are held accountable for performing up to the expressed standards as part of their social contract with the organization (Ferris et al., 1995). Problems arise when people are not held accountable and there are no consequences associated with performing or avoiding a certain behavior. For instance, it is a rare occurrence for upper management to consistently hold supervisors of frontline employees accountable for how they evaluate the frontline employees. Therefore, the frontline supervisors, knowing that they will probably not be asked to justify their performance ratings to upper management, might choose to risk being inaccurate in their evaluations in order to focus on other tasks that are seen to have greater consequences or greater expectations of being held accountable. In other words, unless the supervisors feel accountable for being accurate in their ratings of their employees, they are likely to be less motivated to be accurate in rating their employees' behavior, consequently not holding their employees accountable for their performance. Accountability can only be a motivational force when the expectation of being held accountable is present. In other words, the expectation of accountability can be communicated by organizations through policies and standards, but it is only through consistent implementation of the accountability system by leadership that behavior can be influenced consistently.

In summary, the problem of employee motivation is inherent to all types of organizations. Whether organizations are small or large in size, a motivated workforce is critical to the success of the organization. It is important that researchers investigate factors that influence employee motivation, especially factors associated with performance appraisal. The current proposal uses the Theory of Planned Behavior as well

as the construct of perceived accountability to predict behavioral intention to perform accurate ratings of customer service interactions and actual ratings behavior. Accountability is included in the model as contributing unique variance to behavioral intention, a predictor of subsequent behavior. Unlike most previous research in organizational settings using the TRA and TPB (e.g. Arnold et al., 2006; Becker, Randall, & Riegel, 1995; Cherry, 2006; Dubinsky & Loken, 1989; Hill, Mann, & Wearing, 1996; Kolekofski & Heminger, 2003; Slocombe, 1999) this research incorporates an actual behavioral outcome for which to test the utility of the theory and the role of accountability within the performance evaluation organizational context as well as measuring the actual outcome behavior.

CHAPTER II.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to develop the rationale for the study, a review of pertinent literature is presented. First, an overview of the motivation literature as it relates to organizational communication is provided. Second, the theoretical framework for the current research on employee motivation and accountability, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), and the concept of accountability are explicated. Then a review of the impact of accountability on intentions and ratings accuracy is forwarded. Finally, the proposed model and hypothesized relationships are presented.

Motivation in the Organizational Context

Employee motivation, a fundamental area of study across disciplines, has been studied through the examination of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Intrinsic motivation is generally defined as a person's drive to perform a certain behavior because they find the activity interesting and derive a level of satisfaction from performing the behavior (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1980; Porter & Lawler, 1968). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is engendered through a person's perception that there is a connection between performing a behavior and certain rewards or consequences, satisfaction stems from the outcomes rather than from performing the activity itself (e.g. Gagne & Deci, 2005; Porter & Lawler, 1968). Motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, is a critical area of study for organizations and academics because of its links to individual worker satisfaction (c.f. Katz & Kahn, 1978; Miner, 1980), organizational productivity (Katz & Kahn, 1978), and organizational citizenship behaviors (Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham, & Cummings, 2000). Performance

appraisals have differential effects upon both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and effects are influenced by how and why the feedback information is conveyed (Ryan, Mims, & Koestner, 1983).

The difficulty lies in the idea that for most employees, supervisors subjectively evaluate their performance, and it is this inherent lack of objectivity that creates room for bias, impression management, and other interpersonal inaccuracies. It is uncomfortable to give appraisal information whether it is positive or negative (Tessor & Rosen, 1975), and an effective manager must balance the need to convey feedback with the need to maintain a positive relationship with the employee (Eder & Fedor, 1989). The balance between providing honest and accurate performance feedback and relational needs is a difficult one to juggle, which can create a tendency for evaluators to be more lenient, especially if there are consequences for the ratee as a result of the score (Jawahar & Williams, 1997). Adding to the challenge is that it is usually the manager who must not only make the decision about the consequences for the ratee, but they must also implement the consequences as well. Therefore, having to give potentially negative feedback to an employee not only leads to consequences for the employee, but can also be perceived as a consequence to the manager. Overall, the feedback session itself is a complicated dance between the supervisor and the employee where each party must balance multiple goals. "At stake for the employee is the foregoing of impending punishment and/or the acquiring of social and material rewards. At stake for the supervisor is the maintaining of employee relations and/or enhancing employee performance that reflects positively on the supervisor." (Eder & Fedor, 1989, p. 331). Part of what makes an effective leader is their ability to make difficult choices and

possibly ignoring their individual need to be liked and/or bearing the discomfort giving negative feedback to employees in order to fulfill the needs of the organization (Salaman, 2004) – this balance of individual and organizational needs is challenging when it comes to providing evaluative feedback to employees. It is imperative that organizations understand and act upon what motivates their managers to be accurate in performance evaluations of their subordinates, and to minimize the sources of ratings distortion.

There are many sources of distortion of performance ratings in organizations. Such distortions have focused on qualities of the rater (e.g. halo bias, rater training, leniency biases) and strategies to minimize the impact of rater distortions, long sources of inquiry in many academic disciplines (e.g. Industrial organizational psychology, sociology, organizational behavior, communication, applied psychology, cognitive psychology). Halo has been thought to impact the accuracy of ratings in that raters influenced by halo assign ratings based on the overall impression of the ratee rather than differentiating on individual's performance on various levels (Kozlowski, et al, 1986; Murphy, 1982; Murphy & Balzer, 1989; Palmer & Feldman, 2005). Rater training to reduce halo and other biases can influence accuracy of ratings (Baltes & Parker, 2000; Borman, 1979, Latham, Wexley, & Pursell, 1975). Leniency biases, or the tendency for a rater to be lenient, has been found to be a stable tendency of the rater (Kane, Bernadin, Villanova, & Peyrefitte, 1995; Murphy & Cleveland, 1991). However, it is also important to note that context matters, and raters tend to be more lenient in their ratings when the scores have real consequences for the ratee (Jahawar & Williams, 1997). Of interest here is the distortion associated with the contextual influences that influence a rater's motivation to be accurate. It is also important to acknowledge that while some raters may

have intrinsic personality traits that allow them to be unencumbered by the competing demands to be lenient, organizational systems can still make efforts to foster environments that prioritize accuracy .

The leadership skill of being able to balance the possible competing interpersonal goals comes not only from personality traits, but also from experience. This need for experience to be effective as a leader is especially problematic at the supervisory or front-line manager level of organizations as generally, they have the largest number of employees to manage and the least amount of managerial experience and training (Brown & Benson, 2005). Furthermore, supervisor level employees must also perform front-line tasks with technical skill along with guiding the workflow of a number of employees. Much of a supervisor's time is spent performing administrative duties such as payroll, scheduling, ordering, and other tasks that have immediate and objective consequences for the organization (Hales, 2005). The lack of managerial experience combined with competing time-consuming administrative tasks that have clear, immediate consequences (i.e., payroll, scheduling, requisitions) increases the likelihood that more time-consuming and subjective tasks like providing quality performance feedback will be perceived as less important or secondary to all other tasks. Put another way, when juggling multiple tasks people are more interested in performing tasks and behaviors when there is an immediate and concrete consequence for performance of the behavior (Locke & Latham, 1990).

One approach that supervisors may use as a time saving strategy to meet the competing demands of their positions, is to evaluate employee performance more favorably than deserved. Supervisors may inflate performance feedback to avoid conflict

or to manage impressions, and unfortunately, this sort of performance evaluation inaccuracy is not uncommon in the organizational context and can be difficult to identify. Organizations must trust that they have trained their managers sufficiently, expressed the importance of giving accurate evaluations and feedback, and motivated their managers to perform comprehensive performance appraisals. Therein lies the paradox; organizations must trust employees to perform difficult tasks, but the difficult tasks can be avoided easily if organizational members are not held accountable.

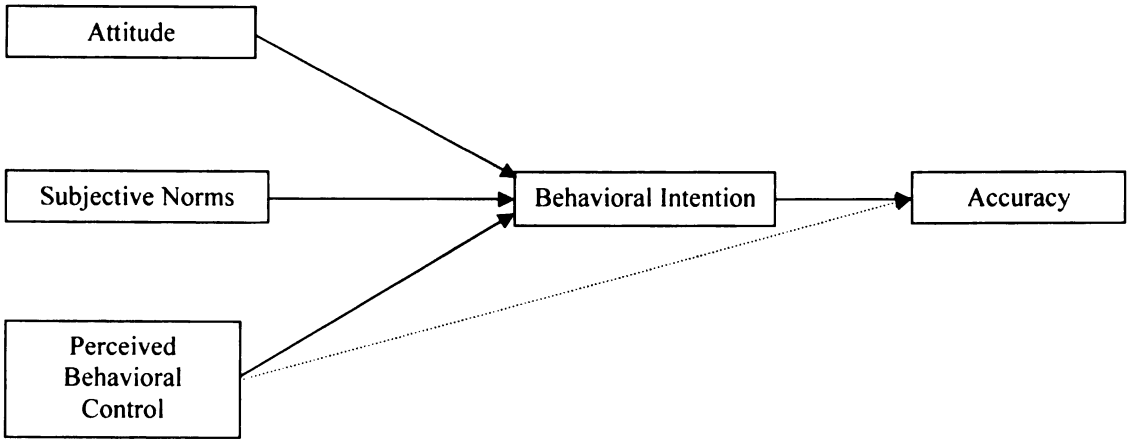
In sum, motivating supervisors to provide accurate feedback to employees is a challenging task due to relational concerns, competing responsibilities that create time constraints, lack of managerial experience among frontline supervisors, and lack of effective communication from upper management regarding the essentiality of providing accurate performance feedback. One persuasive framework that may have explanatory power for understanding how supervisors are influenced to provide accurate feedback is the Theory of Planned Behavior.

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and its extension, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) have been widely applied in the study of human behaviors. Both models aim to explain the psychological processes and causal relationship between people's attitudes and their performance of volitional behaviors. Volitional behaviors are defined as those behaviors that are performed by voluntary, conscious choice and not those that are borne out of habit, impulse, or mindlessness (e.g. Eagley & Chaiken, 1993; Langer, 1989). The TRA presumes that a person's behavior is best predicted by a person's intentions, which are

comprised of the attitude and subjective norm constructs, while the TPB also adds the perceived behavioral control construct (Ajzen, 1991) (see Figure 1). The theory states other factors that might influence behavior do so indirectly through attitude, subjective norms, or perceived behavioral control (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989). However, the TPB also allows for the addition of other variables that may provide unique variance apart from those included in the model (Ajzen, 1991).

Figure 1: The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991).



The TRA has been shown to explain fairly well the role of attitudes and intention on subsequent behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) and is a rather robust model of the psychological processes at work between attitudes and behavior (Hale, J. L., Householder, & Greene, 2002). Since its introduction, the TRA has been a source of academic inquiry and the model has been adapted and elaborated upon in many areas of persuasion and communication campaigns. The models and their individual links have been tested and continue to be used as a theoretical framework for a wide variety of empirical studies in many subject areas, particularly in the areas of health, consumer, and different pro-social behaviors. For example, TRA has been used to study condom use

(Albarracin, Johnson, Fishbein & Muellerleile, 2001) AIDS prevention (e.g. Finlay, Trafimow, & Moroi, 1999; Vanlandingham, Supresert, Grandjean, & Sittitrai, 1995); recycling (Park, Levine, & Sharkey, 1998); consumer behavior (see Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988 for an excellent review). Despite the broad reaching scope of the applicability of the models, comparatively little research has been performed of the whole of TRA or the TPB models in the organizational arena (Arnold, et al., 2006).

Arnold et al. (2006) examined the usefulness of the TPB in understanding complex workplace behaviors associated with occupational intentions and vocational decision behaviors and found that there was indeed utility in the theory in its explanation of both simple and complex behaviors. However, it was found that one caveat to using the TPB in the organizational context, is that attention should be paid to the differences in people's circumstances, especially regarding past vocational decisions and behavior and existing obstacles to implementing intention (Arnold et al., 2006). Like occupational intentions and vocational decisions, rating accuracy and rating decision making is a complex workplace behavior that is impacted by many factors. Of interest here is to test the utility of the TPB model in studying a complex behavior like ratings accuracy as well as to gain understanding of how the TPB constructs work in conjunction with accountability to explain behavioral intention and the behavioral outcome of ratings accuracy.

Attitude

According to the TPB, a person's attitude is influenced by the strength or certainty of their beliefs about an attitude as well as the valence of their evaluation of the behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The valence of the behavior is the extent to which the

action or behavior is judged to be positive or negative. In other words, the more positively that a person evaluates performing a certain behavior, the more likely that he or she will intend to perform said behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This notion that the beliefs that a person has regarding a specific behavior has influence on whether he or she performs the behavior appears innate to most studies of workplace motivation as well as the study of all behavior, in general.

Critical and somewhat ubiquitous to the current study of workplace motivation is the examination of the influence of attitude on behavior as demonstrated by the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), self-determination theory (Deci, 1975), and theory of behavior in organizations (Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 1980), which all show the importance of an individual's beliefs in his or her motivation to perform a behavior. That being stated, it is critical to implement strategies that reduce bias heuristic processing, and increase the desire or attitudinal motivation to perform accurate ratings, such as increasing personal outcome dependency (Neuberg & Fiske, 1987) and engendering personal accountability (Baltes & Parker, 2000). Such strategies to influence the desire and attention to perform accurate ratings have included increasing the perception of personal accountability (e.g. Corrigan & Hauenstein, 1996; McCallister, Mitchell, & Beach, 1979; Mero & Motowidlo, 1995; Mero, Motowidlo, & Anna, 2003) and attaching rewards to rating accurately to increase the perception of personal outcome dependency on being accurate in ratings (e.g. Murphy & Cleveland, 1995; Neuberg & Fiske, 1987). Feedback and performance appraisal plays a major role in the maintenance about behavior outcomes, in that in the absence of information about performance, a person is left to infer what is in fact desirable behavior (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). It has also

been found that the purpose of the performance rating influences the rater perceptions of the importance of being accurate and rating accuracy (Beckner, Highhouse, & Hazer, 1998; Longenecker et al., 1987; Williams, Denisi, Blencoe, & Cafferty, 1985). As stated before, performance ratings for administrative purposes tend to lower motivation to be accurate (e.g. Longenecker, et al., 1987), and those appraisals with concrete outcomes or purposes (e.g. raises, promotions) tend to have inflation of scores (e.g. Jawahar & Williams, 1997). In sum, most of the aforementioned strategies to influence the attitude of the employee to be accurate in rating performance, attempt to do so through observing or controlling the context (i.e. purpose, consequences, rewards) in which the rater is performing the ratings.

Subjective Norm

Subjective norms are defined as individuals' beliefs about how important or significant people in their lives feel that they should perform the behavior. In the organizational context, the supervisor's important others that influence their perceptions about performing a workplace behavior would likely include managers, peers, and subordinates, but may also include non-workplace individuals like friends or parents who also exert influence over work-related perceptions and behavior. Subjective norms are influenced by a person's normative belief, the perceived expectation of their important others regarding the behavior and their own motivation or pressure to perform the behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In other words, subjective norms encompass the expectations of behavior communicated by referent others (Ferris & Judge, 1991).

For example, if a supervisor perceived that her important others would want her to rate/evaluate her employees as accurately as possible, this perception potentially could

influence the supervisor to do so; conversely, a supervisor might perceive that a referent other does not value accuracy in evaluating employees, which might also influence the supervisor to not value the task. It is also possible that subjective norm would not be at all influential on behavioral intention, leaving other factors to predict behavioral intention to perform accurate performance ratings. It is important to note that referent groups will vary by individual such that peers at work may help determine subjective norm for one group, while family members or other significant others (e.g. church groups, college friends) may influence subjective norm for other groups. The subjective norm component of the TPB can also be related to perceived social pressure to perform a behavior because individuals may perceive more or less pressure from important others to engage in a given behavior.

Perceived Behavioral Control.

According to Ajzen (1991) a person's perceived behavioral control is determined by beliefs about available resources, opportunities, barriers, ability that are weighted by the perceived ease of performing the behavior. Put another way, the ease or difficulty in performing a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). PBC comprises the availability of ability, skills, resources, and opportunities required to perform the target behavior (e.g. Bandura, 1997; Van den Putte, Hoogstraten, & Meertens, 1996). The PBC construct is conceptually similar to perceived choice and perceived competence constructs defined in self-determination theory of motivation (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994), which states that to be self-determining means to perceive a sense of choice in instigating and controlling one's own behavior (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989).

PBC encompasses barriers specific to the individual, but other barriers might be associated with the organizational environment. If workers perceive that the organizational structure inhibits the performance of a behavior, it is less likely that the behavior will be performed effectively. Or if workers are not trained appropriately on a task, this also will impact perceived behavioral control, as they may not feel they are able to complete the task. While some organizational literature suggests that it is the responsibility of the organization to design jobs properly so tasks can be achieved easily (Herzberg, 1966), it may be the case that organizations have not achieved a high level of effectiveness for how work is conducted and monitored, thus impacting employees' perceptions of control. If management's role is to ensure that the worker is capable of performing desired work behaviors (McGregor, 1960), then appropriate training and job design are critical factors that may become barriers, impeding work performance and perceived behavioral control.

Perceived behavioral control may also be influenced by the level of direction and supervision provided in the workplace, which varies considerably across organizational contexts. In the hospitality context, many workers adhere to the proscribed standards imposed by the organization, while they simultaneously seek autonomy in their work as they strive to deal with customers in a personalized way. It has been shown that management styles and organizational designs that promote greater flexibility in performing one's job are positively related to increased employee satisfaction and organizational effectiveness (Deci, et. al, 1989; Lawler, 1986), illustrating the benefits that high levels of perceived behavioral control may confer in the workplace.

Many workers have high levels of motivation and will perform activities that they feel free to do without external contingencies (e.g. Ryan, Koestner, & Deci, 1991). This idea of free choice being integral to the ideal of intrinsic motivation is the quandary that managers in organizations face: providing employees with the illusion of choice in an organized environment where contingencies are part and parcel to social order. In Herzberg's (1966) Motivation-Hygeine theory, the idea of motivating employees through satisfying the social and psychological needs of workers through task design is problematic when the concept of free-choice is included (e.g. Miner, 1980). In order for the work to be satisfying, it helps that the worker feels as though there was a sense of ownership (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004) and choice involved (Deci, et al., 1985). In order to motivate employees to rate performance behavior accurately, the employees must perceive that they are capable of performing accurate ratings (i.e. self-efficacy) (Kane, Bernadin, & Villanova, 1995), and feel as though they have made the decision to do so willingly (Deci et al., 1994). Therein lies the paradox; ideally, management should encourage, and foster an environment where employees perceive high behavioral control and ownership of their work tasks, while they also monitor and sanction employee behavior to satisfy the need to conform to organizational standards and requirements of the organization. This balance of choice with organizational requirements influences perceptions of control which subsequently impact employees' behavioral intentions to engage in rating performance behavior accurately.

Behavioral Intention

Behavioral intention, defined as the representation of planned action (Locke & Latham, 1990), is influenced by a person's attitude, subjective norm, and perceived

behavioral control regarding the target behavior. Intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence behavior and to indicate how hard people are willing to try or how much effort they would exert to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181), and are considered the best predictor of future behavior in the TPB. Behavioral intentions have been used in performance appraisal research with regard to goal-setting (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979), occupational intentions (Arnold, et al., 2006), organizational commitment (Becker, et al., 1995), ethical judgments (Chang, 1998; Cherry, 2006; Dubinsky & Loken, 1989), benchmarking (Hill, et al., 1996), information sharing (Kolekofski, 2003) and polychronicity (Slocombe, 1999). For example, behavioral intention to perform ethical behavior was influenced more by perceived behavioral control than attitude (Chang, 1998), while perceived behavioral control was a better predictor of behavioral intention to perform ethical decision-making (Cherry, 2006). In other words, depending on the behavior under consideration, behavioral intention to perform the behavior will be differentially impacted by the subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and attitude constructs. In sum, behavioral intention is perceived to be the largest predictor of actual behavior in the TPB. The theory does, however, acknowledge that other variables beyond the TPB constructs can add unique variance to the model for certain behaviors within certain contexts. Specifically, within the organizational context, how workers interpret and react to conditions of accountability may play a significant role in how they decide to perform different behaviors.

Much of the theory of planned behavior research does not measure the target behavior of interest, and the research reveals varying effect sizes of the intention-behavior link (c.f. Sutton, 1998). Many studies do not measure behavior and instead

focus on the antecedents of behavioral intention (e.g. Chang, 1998; Kulkarni, 2007; Swaim, Perrine, & Aloise-Young, & 2007). If the study does have a measure of "behavior" , it is in the form of a self-report or the outcome variable of interest is "implementation intention" (e.g. Gollwitzer, 1999; Gratton, Povey, Clark-Carter, 2007); both are widely used in lieu of an objective measure of behavior. Self-reports of behavior are problematic in that there are social desirability and consistency concerns that may affect results of the study (e.g. Fisher & Katz, 2000; Mench & Kandel, 1988). If, indeed the outcome behavior is measured objectively frequently the measure is dichotomous in that the person either did or did not perform the behavior (e.g. wearing a seatbelt, recycling, blood donation, breast self-exam, etc.), and thus may attenuate the strength of the intention-behavior relationship due to a restriction in range (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Often times, desired behavior is not dichotomous in that quality of the performance of the behavior does matter. For example, in terms of the behavior of recycling, there are varying levels of commitment and performance (i.e. from performing the bare minimum of returning aluminum cans for deposit to the most extreme and composting and not throwing in the trash any item that has the potential to be recycled). This study offers unique contribution to the field in that it not only measures intention but also offers an objective measure of behavior that addresses the quality difference in performance of behavior.

A goal of this research was to test the TPB model in its entirety, including actual behavior, to explore the attitude behavioral connection with ratings tasks. It is posited that the TPB constructs of subjective norms, attitude, and perceived control will be

predictive of both behavioral intention and ratings behavior. The following hypothesis based on the TPB model (Figure 1) is proposed:

H1: In the TPB, (a) the constructs of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control will be predictive of behavioral intention to perform accurate ratings, and (b) behavioral intention will be positively related to accurate ratings.

Accountability in the Organizational Context

As stated before, accountability is critical to the maintenance of organizational standards and organizational members holding each other accountable provides a main mechanism of social control. It is through mechanisms of social control (e.g. performance evaluations, sanctions, rewards) that individuals are held accountable to performing up to stated expectations (Beu & Buckley, 2001). A critical element to the success of the performance evaluations is that the evaluator accurately assesses the performance of the ratee, in that without accurate behavioral observation, the validity of subsequent ratings and performance feedback is called into question. As critical as accountability is to organizations and society in general. it is a complex, multi-faceted construct that has varying definitions and subsequent impacts on behavior. In the following section the concept of perceived accountability will be defined and its impact on ratings accuracy also will be elucidated.

Definition of Accountability

Accountability has been defined several ways, and depending on the context, certain dimensions are emphasized over others. Most commonly used in this vein of research is Tetlock's (1985) aforementioned definition that describes accountability as "the social pressures that a person feels to justify one's views to others." However, some

definitions expand social pressures to imply that it is the *consequences* that are also important. For example, in the performance appraisal context, accountability means that there are *consequences that depend on some aspect of the ratings or judgment given* (Palmer & Feldman, 2005), while within the employment interview context, individuals are said to *be accountable for their judgments whenever their performance is monitored and there are consequences (either tangible or intangible) associated with that evaluation* (Siegel-Jacobs & Yates, 1996). This lack of differentiation of justification and accountability was acknowledged in a footnote "*Although we generally prefer the term "accountability," we do not intend to distinguish it conceptually from a need to "justify" one's actions.*" (Siegel-Jacobs & Yates, 1996, p. 1). Despite the differing conceptual definitions of accountability, the manipulation of the construct is fairly consistent in the studies performed.

To be sure, accountability and consequences are two separate constructs that depending on a number of variables can have differential impact on performance appraisal ratings and decision-making. It is not the intention of this research to oversimplify the impact of accountability on a person's behavior; it is indeed more complicated than previous literature implies. Therefore, it is posited here that it is not merely the pressure to justify one's decision that motivates people or wholly defines "accountability," but rather accountability as a motivator encompasses the myriad of perceived consequences of the decisions, judgments, or actions that the person feels as imminent from their actions. Being required or asked to justify one's own decisions, judgments and/or actions is not solely the motivator, but rather it is *how* the person must justify and the *potential social consequences* for the decision and justification. This

requirement to justify his or her decisions, judgments and/or actions to others is only one of many consequences that a person may perceive as imminent and influences feelings of social pressure.

A number of seminal theoretical papers in organizational literature have explored the impact of perceived social pressure on workplace behaviors, frequently through the lens of leadership style (e.g. Deci, 1976; Schein, 1975), while empirical studies have examined the perceived social pressure construct to mixed results (e.g. Monge, Cozzens, & Contractor, 1992; Van Hooft, Born, Taris, & van der Flier, 2005). On one hand, perceived social pressure to perform certain behaviors has been found to increase attention and motivation to perform a task and subsequently positively influence performance (Mero & Motowidlo, 1995; Mero, Motowidlo, & Anna, 2003). Conversely, perceived social pressure has also been found to negatively impact performance by increasing anxiety and display of impression management tactics, especially when the person is not confident that their performance will be evaluated positively by others (Schlenker et al., 1991; Tetlock, Skitka, & Boettger, 1989)

It has also been found that uncertainty about the consequences and outcomes of performing behaviors and subsequent performance evaluations by supervisors can influence behavior in the workplace (e.g. Eder & Fedor, 1989, Fandt, 1991; Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Fedor, 1991). For example, Eder & Fedor (1989) found that priming the self-evaluations of ratees through supervisor communication of the purpose of the ratings, yielded responses to feedback that varied in impression management tactics. Fandt (1991) also found that impression management behaviors like bolstering and excuse making increased when job ambiguity was high. Perceptions of job ambiguity, in turn, is strongly

influenced by ambiguous supervisory communication (Behrman, Bigoness, & Perreault, 1981). Uncertainty about the possible evaluation of behavior by significant others may influence the recipient of the evaluation to formulate strategies to minimize any negative effects that the evaluation may generate (e.g. Tetlock, 1987; Wood & Mitchell, 1981). This tendency to act politically and manage impressions in the workplace appears to be in response to the perceived social pressure to perform certain behaviors and to avoid negative outcomes (e.g. Curtis et al., 2005; Fandt & Ferris, 1990). This tendency to act politically and manage impressions in reaction to perceived social pressure may lead to the distortion of ratings accuracy of raters.

Accountability and Accuracy of Performance Ratings

Previous research on the effects of accountability on the accuracy of behavior ratings is inconsistent. Some studies imply that accountability enhances accuracy of ratings because people attend more carefully to information when they are held accountable (e.g. Feldman & Lynch, 1988; Kunda, 1990) or accountability debiases judgment (Kennedy, 1993). Accuracy is enhanced because accountability motivates the rater to engage in thoughtful processing as opposed to automatic processing (Feldman, 1981). However, most research implies that the outcome of the processing depends on the nature of the accountability consequences (Klimoski & Ash, 1974; Palmer and Feldman, 2005). It is the possible consequences that depend on the ratings or judgments given that impair or enhance accuracy of ratings (Decotiis & Petit, 1978). Thus, when attempting to understand the complexities of motivation to perform accurate performance appraisal it is important to understand the relationship between perceived or felt accountability and accuracy of ratings.

As stated before, there are a number of sources of distortion of performance appraisals and most studies focus on the rater and the design rating instruments (e.g. Arvey & Murphy, 1998; Curtis, Harvey, & Ravden, 2005) to reduce unconscious biases and improve accuracy. For example, Cleveland & Murphy (1992) examined performance appraisal behavior and suggested that behaviors that were typically determined as rating errors (e.g. leniency or consistently giving all subordinates high scores) could be viewed as adaptable responses to forces in the rating environment. Robbins & DeNisi, (1994) conducted research on ratings accuracy and found that affect towards the ratee can impact the acquisition and processing of information. Despite the study and refinement of the instrumentation, inaccuracies still occur and it has been found that managers are cognizant of their rating errors and knowingly bias rating scores for political reasons (e.g. Bernardin & Villanova, 1986; Longenecker et al., 1987). For example, Bernardin & Villanova found (1986) that characteristically, performance raters felt that they had inadequate time to devote to the task and this lack of time was perceived as a source of rater inaccuracy. One such political bias is inflation of scores to improve interpersonal relationships with subordinates (e.g. Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Longenecker, et al., 1987) It is therefore important to not only create an environment that allows the time and encourages the motivation to be accurate in performance ratings.

Accountability and TPB Constructs

There may be some question as to the distinctiveness of perceived accountability with the TPB constructs. To be sure, accountability has a normative element in so much that perceived social consequences and the perception that one may have to justify their own decisions to others, depends in part on the desire for social approval as well as the

perception of social pressure, which are related to subjective norm. However, the focus of the accountability construct is on the *social outcomes* or *consequences* associated with the performing or not performing a behavior (e.g. being judged by others, being evaluated, having to justify oneself, etc.). The measure of subjective norms as recommended by Ajzen (2006) is to elicit perceptions of important others' expectations for an individual's performance of a behavior, and is not a measure of perceived social consequences for performance of the behavior. The subjective norm construct may encompass social pressure to perform a particular way in the workplace because it would influence how an organizational member interprets the value that other organizational members place on the behavior. However, subjective norm does not include the perceived or tangible social outcomes that a person perceives as imminent for performance of the behavior, which is the key component to measuring accountability.

Perceived behavioral control and accountability are also related but distinct in that accountability does not tap a person's ability, skill, or confidence in performing the target behavior. PBC, as defined and operationalized, is comprised of the perceptions of the availability of ability, skills, resources, and opportunities required to perform the target behavior (e.g. Bandura, 1997; Van den Putte, 1993). Perceived accountability, as defined previously, addresses a person's perceived consequences, social outcomes, and social pressure to perform the target behavior. The two constructs might be correlated because being held accountable by a supervisor may impact an employee's perceptions of control over a given task. In other words, an employee may perceive more or less behavioral control depending on whether or not they believe their supervisor will hold them to a specific performance standard.

Proposed TPB Accountability Model

In summary, in organizational environments, it is critical to the success of the business to provide accurate performance appraisals. The problem is that the task of performance appraisal or providing feedback exists in an environment whereby managers must balance priorities of the organization (i.e. giving accurate feedback) with the oftentimes, competing, political needs of the workplace. One such way that this situation is balanced is through inaccuracies of rating performance. If the manager does not make efforts or place importance on being accurate, it is likely that the performance ratings will not be accurate (Tetlock, 1985). Therefore, to ensure that those rating employee behavior place importance on enacting accurate ratings, they must perceive that they are accountable for doing so by their own supervisors. In other words, the organization must create a context of accountability for rating accurately to influence the desired behavior in their employees.

It was posited that as perceived accountability increases, so should the intention to perform accurate ratings, as perceived accountability is indicative of greater perceived importance of the task and greater interest. Conversely, when perceptions of being held accountable are low, behavioral intention to perform accurate ratings should decrease. To examine the relationship between accountability and behavioral intention, the following hypothesis is posited:

H2: Higher perceptions of accountability will increase behavioral intention to provide accurate performance ratings.

Just as higher perceptions of accountability should positively influence intention to rate accurately, it should also directly influence rating behavior as accountability has been

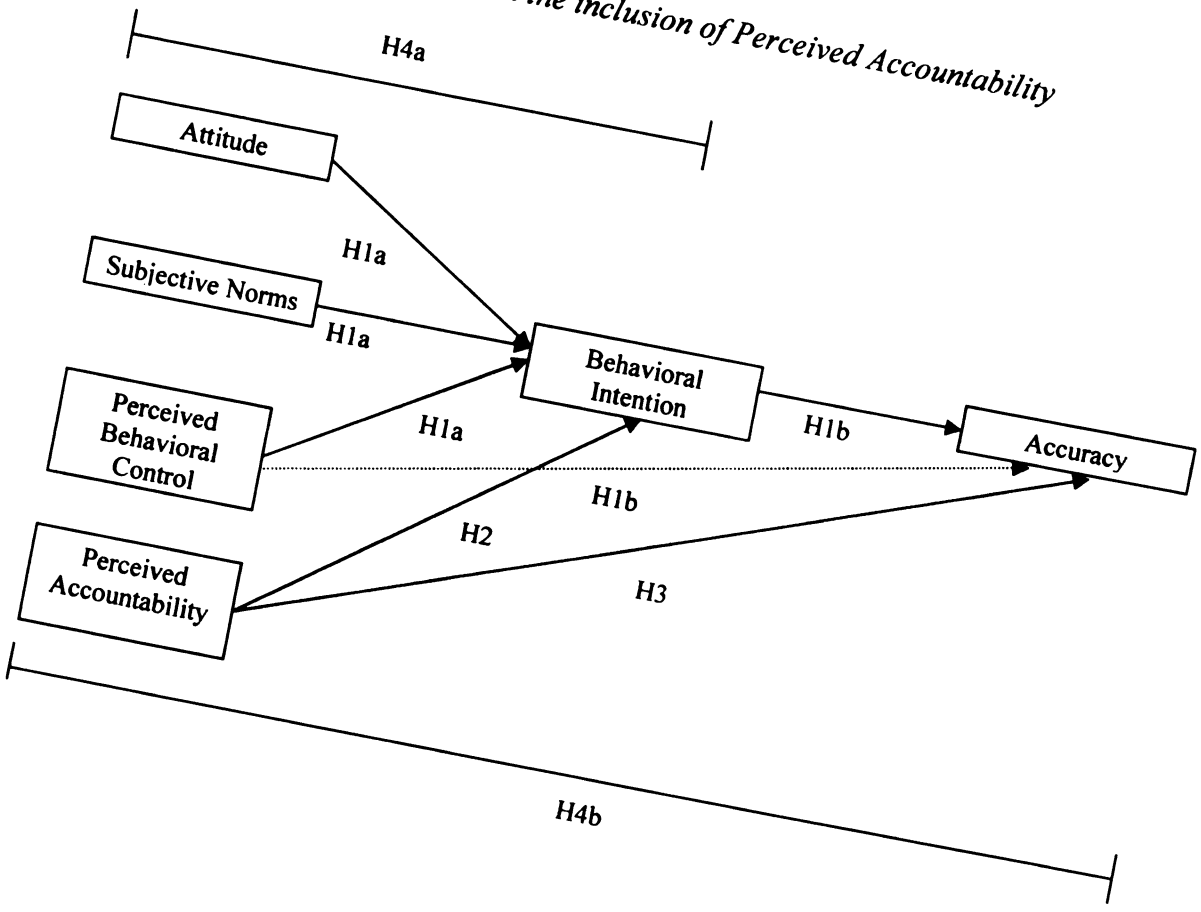
found to influence observational accuracy (Mero & Motowidlo, 1995)) and rater decision making (Klimoski & Inks, 1990) through increasing attention and interest in the task:

H3: Higher perceptions of accountability will be positively related to the accuracy of performance ratings.

Though the testing of the whole TPB model with a behavioral outcome is not overly common in the study of workplace behaviors, the attitude, perceived behavioral control, and normative influences have been shown to individually have a relationship to workplace behaviors (Arnold et al., 2006; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Thus, the theoretical framework of the TPB was used to examine the relationship between the context of accountability and rating behavior. In essence, the proposed model indicates that in the case of non-volitional behaviors in organizational environments, perceived accountability will account for unique variance in behavioral intention and actual behavior (performance ratings) than the traditional TPB model.

H4: The TPB model that includes perceived accountability (Figure 2) will explain more variance in the accuracy of ratings than the TPB model without perceived accountability.

Figure 2: The TPB model with the inclusion of Perceived Accountability



CHAPTER III

METHOD

Chapter Overview

The current chapter discusses the research methods used in this study. First, the pilot study and its results will be discussed. Second, the main study will be discussed, with the research design, participant description, experimental procedures, and measures described in detail. Finally, effectiveness of training and induction procedures will be presented.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the main study. The pilot study served several purposes: to assess the appropriateness of the measures to be used in the main study, to assess the clarity of the training and induction procedures, and to examine the utility and effectiveness of different types of induction messages. Four sessions were conducted with participants (N = 50, 15 males, 35 females; average age 20.24 SD = 1.6) recruited from undergraduate communication courses. Participants were assigned to one of 4 message conditions: justification (i.e., induction message indicated that those participants that were not accurate would have to explain or "justify" their scores to the experimenter, no mention of the gift card), no justification (i.e., induction message indicated that regardless of the accuracy of participants' scores, no one would have to justify their scores to the experimenter), justification with a gift card incentive, and no justification with a gift card incentive.

A goal of performing a pilot was to assess the study measures, including the well established attitude, perceived control, subjective norm, and intention measures and the newly created perceived accountability and adapted accuracy measures. The measures

demonstrated an acceptable level of reliability (i.e. Cronbach's Alpha of greater than .70) with improvement shown when some items were removed. However, a number of items were exhibiting a level of heteroskedaskity that needed to be addressed. In addition to removing those items that were grossly non-normal, it was also determined that the length and repetitiveness of the survey instrument might be causing a level of fatigue and influencing participants' responses. Items that were repetitive were removed for the main study (e.g. "I plan to rate the customer service interactions accurately."). In addition, it was determined that all items should be converted or presented in the same scale to reduce possible confusion; therefore, semantic differential items were modified or removed so that all items were Likert scaled (e.g. For me to rate the vignettes: (1) Informative (7) Uninformative was altered to a Likert scaled "I think it is informative to rate the vignettes accurately.")

Items that sought to examine the relationship of specific referent others were also included in the pilot survey instrument. Though it was determined that the items were superfluous to the subjective norms items, an interesting result was that the target referents of the participants were primarily friends and family.

In addition to the modification of the survey items, the accuracy scale was assessed and subsequently modified for the main study. The original accuracy measure (Appendix A) was adapted from an actual employee behavior assessment tool used by a large casino organization. It was determined that in spite of the measure being used in a real-world organization, there were inherent confounds within the items (e.g., double-barreled questions) and the instrument was confusing to the participants. Based on the results of the pilot, all of the items in the original measure were broken down into their

individual objective behavioral components and measured on a scale of 0-4, where 0 or an "F" indicated a failure to perform the behavior and 4 or an "A" indicated that the behavior was performed extremely well. Twelve items were created that assessed the objective assessment of behavioral performance and five items were included (e.g. "How would you rate the overall greeting?") that assessed the subjective impression of the overall performance of each behavior, but were not used for assessment of accuracy. This inclusion of subjective evaluation items aimed to maintain similarity to the original instrument. The inclusion of both subjective and objective measure of performance is consistent with recommended formats of performance appraisal instruments (e.g. Hobson & Gibson, 1984).

Another goal of performing the pilot was to assess the clarity of training and induction procedures. It was originally anticipated that each of the experimental sessions would be 45 minutes in duration; however, through piloting it was determined that the session lasted closer to one hour. It was determined that part of the time discrepancy was the accuracy instrument that the participants were being trained to complete was somewhat confusing and ambiguous. Furthermore, it was determined that the practice vignettes were overly simple and were not adequate in preparing the participants for the certification final ratings exercise. Therefore, different vignettes were chosen to use for practice, while the same two vignettes were used for the certification and accuracy measures.

The final goal of the pilot test was to examine what types of consequences were necessary to induce perceived accountability. Specifically, the researcher wanted to determine whether requiring verbal justification was sufficient by itself to induce

perceived accountability and would the "threat" of not being entered into a cash prize drawing be necessary. It was determined that there were no differences across experimental conditions of accountability whether the money inducement was included or not. It was determined that not only did the threat of the losing a chance to win the gift card create the potential for a number of IRB issues and possibly induce reactance, the threat did not add increase the strength of the accountability induction. Hence, in the main study the induction message addressed *only* the consequence of having to justify answers to the experimenter to induce perceived accountability among participants.

MAIN STUDY

Research Design

In order to investigate the role of perceived accountability within the context of the Theory of Planned Behavior, a between subjects design with a pre- and post-test was used. Participants (N = 174) were randomly assigned to one of 3 experimental conditions (accountability vs. no accountability vs. control) and then trained to evaluate vignettes of customer service interactions. In the pre- and post-tests, participants completed measures related to the constructs of the theory of planned behavior, perceived accountability, and a behavioral measure of performance accuracy.

Participants

A convenience sample of N = 174 undergraduate and graduate students participated in the main study. Participants were recruited from communication courses in the Department of Communication and courses in the School Hospitality Business at Michigan State University (MSU). Participation in the study contributed towards

fulfillment of a research participation requirement or course credit offering. Furthermore, participants were entered into one of three drawings for a cash prize. Thirty-six percent of the participants were male (n = 63) and 64% were female (n = 111). Participants ranged in age from 18 to 33 years (M = 19.63, SD = 1.91). Ninety-seven percent of all participants were citizens of the United States, with the remaining 3% being international students. All participants were current students at MSU, 47% of the sample was comprised of lowerclassmen (e.g. 46 freshmen, 50 sophomores) and the remaining 53% were upperclassmen (e.g. 46 juniors, 29 seniors, and 3 unreported). Participants were asked to report their ethnicity, which included 119 European Americans or Whites, 20 African Americans or Blacks, 5 Asian Americans or Pacific Islanders, 5 Latino(a) Americans or Hispanics, 1 Native American, and 24 of mixed or other ethnicity (e.g. Indian, Arab American, Korean, Chinese, and Jewish). Fifty-two percent of participants reported that they were currently employed (n = 90) and of those, 41 participants reported that their current position was in the foodservice or hospitality industry, and 33 participants reported that they currently worked in a customer service capacity. Sixty-four percent of the participants reported that they had worked in a hospitality service company (n = 111) and 74% reported that they had work experience in a position that was primarily customer service oriented (n = 129).

Institutional Research Ethics

In adherence to the University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS) at Michigan State University (MSU) all participants were provided a statement of informed consent which included necessary information outlined by MSU Appendix B. This information included: the title of the research project; a statement of

the purpose of the research; anticipated total participation time, a description of the risks associated with participation; a statement describing confidentiality of records associated with identifying the participant; contact information about the research; information and contact information about rights of human subjects; and a statement that participation is voluntary, and refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled. After reading the statement of consent, they signed and dated the form to indicate their consent.

Data Collection Procedures

Participants attended one of 16 experimental sessions that were held in a classroom on campus over the course of 2 weeks. Sessions were scheduled throughout the day and different days of the week to maximize opportunities for students to attend. Session attendance ranged from 6 to 26 participants ($M = 12.44$, $SD = 6.95$), with most sessions having approximately 9-11 participants in attendance. When participants arrived, they were instructed to take a seat where they could clearly see the screen set up in the front of the classroom and were given a consent form, survey packet and a card with their assigned participant number. Once the session began, doors were closed and the experimenter asked the participants to read and sign the consent form (Appendix B) and to complete a note card with their contact information (name, address, phone, email) so that the experimenter could submit their name for a cash prize drawing. Participants were told verbally that the purpose of the research was to examine motivation and attitudes in the workplace and to evaluate a training program for performance assessment. Participant contact information was kept separately from the data and discarded after completion of data collection to maintain confidentiality. Each participant was assigned a code number

that was recorded on each survey packet to ensure that data were correctly entered for each participant and also to ensure confidentiality.

Once participants read and signed the consent form, they were asked to turn to and read the first page in the survey packet which provided the organizational culture statement (Appendix C) that included the condensed history, culture, and context customer service philosophy for a large casino company. The researcher introduced herself to the group and briefly reviewed the culture statement, highlighting main points for the participants to consider. Participants were then asked to turn the page and read the purpose and expectations page in the packet (Appendix D) that explained briefly what the participant could expect during the experimental session. The experimenter again reviewed the main points of the purpose and expectations page. Specifically, she verbally reinforced what to anticipate during the experimental session, the purpose of the exercise they were to perform, and that participants should consider themselves to be in a supervisory position. Participants were instructed that their final scores would be examined and evaluated by the researcher at the conclusion of the session and that those with inaccurate scores may be asked to remain afterwards to explain and justify their ratings with the experimenter. This message served as the initial induction of accountability as the goal was to ensure that all participants perceived that there were consequences for their participation in the study.

Once everyone had read the organizational statement, they answered questions about the information what they had just read (Appendix E) and signed a statement that indicated they had read and understood the organizational culture statement and the expectations of the study. The researcher also then reviewed the correct answers to the

questions about the organizational statement and study expectations with the participants in order to verbally reinforce learning. For the purposes of this study, it was essential that the participants took the task seriously, and that there were possible consequences associated with how they performed on the ratings task.

Training and certification phase. After completion of the induction check, participants were instructed that they were to begin actual training on rating the vignettes. In essence, all participants were led through a truncated version of the same training that employees of the modeled casino company. All participants were "trained" by the researcher to score the vignettes across 6 aspects of customer service interactions (i.e. the greeting, attitude, use of name, anticipation of guest needs, appreciation for business and the farewell), using an instrument adapted from previous training efforts of a large casino organization (see Appendix E). After the 6 aspects of customer service interactions were described to participants, they were exposed to the first practice vignette, which was shown on a large screen at the front of the classroom. Participants then rated the vignettes using the evaluation instrument. The vignette was played again to provide participants with ample opportunity to examine the vignette. To complete the first practice vignette, the experimenter elicited verbally the responses of the participants and provided the correct answers. This procedure was repeated for a second practice vignette to ensure that participants understood evaluation criteria and how to apply them correctly.

After repeating the training on the two vignettes, participants were "certified" using a third vignette. It was important that individuals be trained and certified (i.e., able to perform at a specified standard) so that they all could demonstrate a minimum ability to rate customer service interactions accurately. To be certified participants had to score

at least 9/12 (75%) behavior items correctly; all participants was well above the minimum (M = .96 , SD = .061) with most participants scoring 100% correctly. The purpose of the certification was to ensure that all participants could demonstrate a minimum ability to assess the behaviors. If there had been scores less than 75% their data would not have been included in the analysis.

Pre-test phase with accountability induction. After training and certification, participants completed a pre-test survey (Appendix F) with measures of attitude, subjective norm, perceived control, behavioral intention and perceived accountability. Once they completed the pre-test survey, participants completed a word find distraction task as a strategy to reduce carryover from pre-test measures and to also provide an opportunity for the second accountability induction to occur. Specifically, while participants completed the distraction task, the experimenter behaved as though she had a telephone call and left the room for one minute where the induction message was given to the participants in the form of an overheard scripted conversation between two confederates. In the control condition, the experimenter remained in the room. In the *no-accountability condition*, an enlisted confederate, once the experimenter left the room, told another confederate in a voice loud enough for all participants to hear, that her roommate participated in this study last week and that it did not matter how accurate the participants were; no one had to stay later and justify their answers to the experimenter. In the *accountability condition*, an enlisted confederate, once the experimenter left the room, told another confederate in a voice loud enough for participants to hear that her roommate participated in this study last week and that it did matter how accurate the participants were; the roommate had to stay an extra 10 minutes and explain her ratings

to the experimenter. In the *control condition*, the participant simply left the room and no confederate conversation occurred.

Post-test phase. Following the distraction task and accountability induction, participants completed the next section of the survey packet, the post-test portions of the survey which included the same items as the pre-test survey. Once participants had completed the survey items, they completed a second distraction task comprised of a word find activity. After approximately three minutes of completing the distraction task, participants viewed a final vignette twice and evaluated it using the same evaluation instrument. Participants also then completed demographic and work experience questions (Appendix G). Participants submitted the survey to the experimenter, and in all conditions the experimenter examined the final ratings page to ensure that all items were completed and handed the participant a slip of paper (Appendix H) that instructed the participants to not discuss this experiment with anyone, and that they should expect an email debriefing them in no more than 3 weeks. An example of the debriefing email can be found in Appendix I.

Experimental Materials

Vignettes of service interactions. Rather than create videos for this study, portions of a training video for casino customer service employees were used to train participants on how to rate the performance of employees. The video used previously for customer service employees, included those employees who work with guests directly as part of their workday (i.e., security guards, hotel receptionists, beverage servers, bartenders, slot attendants, table games personnel, and restaurant servers). Each vignette in the video consisted of one complete customer service interaction between an employee and a

customer and each was approximately 30-45 seconds in duration. In the videotaped interactions, actors portrayed employees and guests in scenes around a casino that are common to casino guests (e.g. a security guard greeting a lost guest). These carefully scripted, professionally produced videos included **actors performing interactions that vary in performance quality from excellent to poor according to the organizations pre-determined criteria of customer service quality**. These criteria were based on six basic behavior markers that have been shown to affect a customer's perception of overall service quality: 1) the greeting, 2) portrayal of an upbeat and positive attitude, 3) use of customer's name, 4) anticipation of needs, 5) appreciation for the customer's business, and 6) the farewell. While videotaped interactions is not the same as viewing the behavior in the organizational environment, Ryan, Daum, Bauman, Grisez, Mattimore, Nalodoka, & McCormick (1995) found that viewing performance on videotape rather than directly does not affect the accuracy of ratings.

Measures

The survey packets consisted of items that measure Theory of Planned Behavior constructs (attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, behavioral intention) for the behavior of being accurate in rating the videotaped interactions. TPB items were adapted from previous literature based on Ajzen's (1991) measurement design recommendations, for internal consistency, question formation and ordering of items (Francis, Eccles, Johnston, Walker, Grimshaw, Foy, Kaner, Smith, & Bonetti, 2004). Accuracy, and perceived accountability were also measured along with demographic information. Unless reported otherwise, all items were measured on a 7-point scale.

Furthermore, standardized alpha coefficients are reported throughout. Measurement items and scales are detailed in Table 1 and Appendix G.

Table 1: Factor Loadings and Reliabilities for Variables at Pre-test and Post-test

		Pre-test	Post-test
Subjective Norm	Most people who are important to me think I should strive to rate customer service interactions as best I can.	.67	.85
	People whose work values I respect would want me to try hard to rate customer service interactions accurately.	.62	.73
	I think my peers at work would want me to be accurate in my ratings of customer service interactions.	.47	.60
	Most people who are important to me think I should be accurate in my ratings.	.74	.74
	Most of my friends think that it is important to be accurate in rating the vignettes.	.81	.71
	Cronbach's Alpha	**.79**	**.85**
Perceived Control	I am able to rate customer service interactions accurately.	.68	.75
	I have control over being accurate in my ratings.	.52	.62
	I understand what is required to rate customer service interactions accurately.	.75	.71
	I am confident that if I wanted to I could rate the customer service interactions accurately.	.81	.84
	Cronbach's Alpha	**.77**	**.79**
Attitude	It does not matter whether or not I rate the vignettes accurately. Reversed.	.66	.50
	It is important to me that I rate the customer service interactions accurately.	.89	.91
	It is very good for me to be accurate in my ratings of customer service interactions.	.61	.71
	I think there are benefits to being accurate in my ratings.	.41	.47
	I think it is informative to rate the vignettes accurately.	.55	.62
	Cronbach's Alpha	**.76**	**.78**
Perceived Accountability	I believe that the ratings I give must be acceptable to others.	.40	.50
	I expect that there are consequences if I don't rate these vignettes accurately.	.64	.70
	I expect to have to justify my ratings.	.47	.44
	I feel like someone is going to evaluate me on how well I perform on this task.	.60	.73
	I feel that there are high standards for this ratings task.	.63	.75
	I think that I will be rewarded if I perform well in this ratings task.	.44	.53
	Cronbach's Alpha	**.70**	**.78**
Intention	I intend to do my best in rating these vignettes accurately.	.86	.83
	I will make a strong effort to rate the customer service interactions the best I can.	.85	.79
	I intend on being accurate in my ratings of the vignettes.	.88	.89
	I plan to be accurate in my ratings of the vignettes.	.79	.86
	Cronbach's Alpha	**.90**	**.91**

TPB Measures

Subjective norm. To measure subjective norm, using a revised version of Ajzen (1991) items. Each participant was asked to indicate their level of agreement strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) with 5 statements about how important others in their life would think about being accurate rating the service interactions (e.g. "Most people who are important to me think I should strive to rate customer service interactions as best as I can" "People whose work values I respect...", "I think my peers at work would...").

A confirmatory factor analysis of the revised scale was conducted and the model was found to be valid in both the pre-test and post-test measures. For example, in terms of the pre-test, the one factor model exhibited a good fit, $\chi^2(5, N = 174) = 13.96$, $p = .016$, $\chi^2/df = 2.792$, CFI = .964, RMSEA = .10. Moreover, the Cronbach coefficients for the revised scale measuring subjective norms ($\alpha = .79$, pre-test; $\alpha = .85$, post-test) were reliable.

Perceived behavioral control. In order to measure perceived behavioral control four questions using a 4 item Likert type scale, each participant was asked to indicate their level of agreement strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) with statements about how they perceived their ratings were with their ability and control. Example of items include: "I am able to rate customer service interactions accurately"; "I have control over being accurate in my ratings."; "I understand what is required to rate the customer service interactions accurately." The measurement model was found to be valid for both the pre-test and post-test. For example, the post-test exhibited a good fit, $\chi^2(2, N = 174) = 3.822$,

p = .148, χ^2/df = 1.911, CFI = .992, RMSEA = .073.The scale was found to be reliable for both the pre-test (α =.77) and the post-test (α = .79).

Attitude. To measure participants' attitudes towards rating the customer service interactions accurately, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) to 5 statements regarding their attitude towards rating the customer service vignettes accurately. Examples of items include: "It is important that I rate the customer service interactions accurately"; "It is very good for me to be accurate in my ratings of customer service interactions;" "I like to be accurate in my ratings." The measurement model was found to be valid for both the pre-test and post-test. For example, the post-test exhibited a good fit, $\chi^2(5, N = 174) = 5.844$, p = .322, χ^2/df = 1.169, CFI = .996, RMSEA = .091.The scale was found to be reliable for both the pre-test (α =.76) and the post-test (α = .78).

Perceived accountability. A six item seven-point Likert-type scale has been created to tap perceptions of accountability anchored by strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Examples of items include "I expect to justify my ratings;" "I believe that the ratings I give must be acceptable to others;" and "I feel like someone is going to evaluate me on how well I perform this task." A confirmatory factor analysis supported the model for both the pre-test and post-test. For example, for the post-test the exhibited a good fit $\chi^2(9, N = 174) = 4.860$, p = .352, χ^2/df = 1.109, CFI = .996, RMSEA = .025. The scale for perceived accountability was found to be reliable for both the pre-test (α =.70) and the post-test (α = .78). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was also performed on the three TPB constructs and perceived accountability to evaluate the discreteness of the items that

measured the subjective norms, perceived control, attitude, and perceived accountability. CFA results supported that perceived accountability was indeed a distinct construct from the TPB.

Behavioral intention. Four Likert type items were used to assess the participants' intentions to perform accurate ratings. Each participant was asked to indicate their level of agreement strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) with statements about their intentions to be accurate in rating the customer service vignettes. Examples of items include: "I plan to be accurate in my ratings the vignettes"; "I intend to do my best in rating these vignettes accurately"; and "I will make a strong effort to rate the customer service interactions the best I can." The scale was found to be reliable for both the pre-test (α =.90) and the post-test (α = .91). The measurement model was found to be valid for both the pre-test and post-test. For example, the pre-test exhibited a adequate fit, $\chi^2(2, N = 174) = 11.127$, $p = .004$, $\chi^2/df = 5.563$, CFI = .980, RMSEA = .162.

Accuracy. The difference of the participants' score from the true score of the videotaped interactions determined the level of accuracy. The accuracy measure (Appendix E) consisted of 18 (12 objective and 5 subjective) items that ask the participant to assess how the service provider in the vignette performed up to the expressed standard, from (0) behavior absent to (4) behavior performed quite well. The measure includes the standard and what behavior is necessary to achieve the given score to reduce confusion. An example of accuracy questions include "How well did the employee initiate the greeting with the guest?" and "How well did the employee offer friendly verbal greeting to the guest?"

The true score for the vignettes was calculated via an assessment of what the vignettes were designed to portray as well as previous expert ratings that identify the correct answers. An index of accuracy items was created to determine how accurate participants were in their assessments of vignettes according to the true score of the 12 objective items. A perfect accuracy score would be zero deviations from the true score or 100 percent accurate on the 12 objectively scored items. The accuracy scores ranged from .5 to 1.0 (i.e. 50% to 100% correct) (M = .78, SD = .102). In other words, greater scores meant increased accuracy in ratings.

Demographics. Participants were also asked to provide basic demographic information such as age, gender, ethnic background, and level of education. They also provided a brief description of their work experience, including work experience in a customer service capacity, supervisory experience, and current work status as they may be important covariates to consider (Appendix I).

Induction checks. A series of questions were asked to ensure that individuals read and understood the Organizational Culture Statement (e.g., "How many key attributes have been found to be important to an excellent customer service interaction?") Additionally, it was important to assess the induction of perceived accountability across conditions. Thus, a question assessed whether or not participants perceived they would have to justify their answers to the experimenter (e.g., "True or False, contingent upon the accuracy of my final ratings score participants may be asked to justify their answers verbally to the experimenter?") as well as requirement to sign a statement that confirmed that they had read and understood the organizational culture statement and expectations sheet. Please see Appendix D for the complete list of questions.

Effectiveness of Training. In order to control for ability, part of this experimental design included a certification or pre-test. Though there was no specific hypothesis that addressed the differences between the pre-test and post-test results, but analyses were performed to determine whether or not the transfer of training by participants was effective. The results of the certification as discussed previously were very high in that the average score of all participants was well above the minimum standard (M = .96 , SD = .061) with most participants scoring 100% correctly, which is an indicator that training was successful. The final ratings task yielded a greater range of and significantly lower scores, they ranged from .5 to 1.0 (i.e. 50% to 100% correct) (M = .78, SD = .102) with most participants scoring .83 or 83% correct. Based on these results, the training component of the experiment was deemed successful.

Effectiveness of the induction. Unfortunately, despite the induction being effective in the pilot, during the main study, it appears that there was no significant difference between the accountability and no accountability conditions. The largest difference between groups for the post-test mean of perceived accountability was found between the control group (N = 56) and those found in the no-accountability condition (N = 60) exhibited. Scores in the control group exhibited higher means in perceived accountability (M = 4.27, SD = 1.27) than the no accountability condition (M = 3.77, SD = 1.40), which was in the opposite direction than what was planned. Though there were differences, they were small ($t = 2.012$, $df = 114$, $p < .05$) and the overall difference between conditions was not significant (see Table 3 in Appendix L).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter first presents steps taken to prepare the data for analysis including data screening, data preparation, and measurement model testing. Then, results for each of the hypotheses will be described. Finally, post hoc analyses were also conducted to examine alternative models not hypothesized in the original study.

Data Screening and Preparation

Missing data. Prior to analyses, the data were examined for missing values using the missing value analysis (MVA) option in SPSS 15.0, which pinpoints missing values and assesses the pattern of missing values across all cases. The MVA indicated that data were complete and no missing values existed.

Normality. Data were first analyzed for univariate normality of distributions (Agresti & Finlay, 1997) as they are integrally important to the validity of statistical assumptions (McClendon, 1994). Two indicators of univariate normality are skewness and kurtosis. The results reveal that some of the data in the main study were heteroskedastic (i.e. univariate nonnormal) whereby skewness ranged outside the normal range (i.e., between -1 and +1). Further, kurtosis of items also ranged outside the acceptable range (i.e., -3.00 to +3.00) In order to address these problems, transformations of affected variables were performed so that assumptions of normality were not violated when conducting data analyses. Testing was performed on both transformed and untransformed data; it was found that the variables did not exhibit significant behavior differences prior to or after transformation.

Testing the measurement model. Second, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the variables in the models including: attitude, perceived behavior control, perceived accountability, subjective norms, and intentions in order to assess the adequacy of the measurement model by using the AMOS structural equation modeling program. Final CFA results were reported previously in the methods section along with the explanation of specific items to measure constructs.

Testing Hypotheses

To compare the TPB and the hypothesized model including perceived accountability, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to conduct complete and simultaneous tests of all the relationships (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). First, the model was specified (see Figure 2), and then the measurement and structural models were estimated, evaluated, and modified (Anderson and Gerbing, 1991). Evaluation of the adequacy of the TPB model was based on several criteria, some of which concern the model as a whole (e.g., fit indices) and some of which relate to the fit of individual parameters (path coefficients) (Byrne, 2001). Specifically, to test the fit of the measurement and structural models, the appropriate cut-offs of the fit indices offered by Hu and Bentler (1998) as well as Knoke and Borhnstedt (2002) including Chi-Square (non-significant values desired), the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df; less than 3 desired), Comparative Fit Index (CFI; greater than .90 shows good fit) (Bentler, 1990), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; greater than .10 shows poor fit), were utilized[i]. Furthermore, it was the fit of the individual parameters that provided the test for two of the hypotheses. The zero-order correlation between all the variables tested in the TPB model including perceived accountability are presented in

Table 2. Regression analyses were performed (see Table 4 in Appendix M) to examine the path coefficients. Path coefficients were assessed in regards to the magnitude, direction, and statistical significance (i.e. $p < .05$) with hypothesized relationships. The following section will describe the results of specific testing of each hypothesis.

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Coefficients for Study Variables

Variable			Pre-test						Post-test					
Pre-test	**M†**	**SD†**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
1 Subjective Norms Perceived	5.73	1.03	**.79**											
2 Accountability	4.44	1.28	.271**	**.70**										
3 Perceived Control	6.28	0.712	.386**	.024	**.77**									
4 Attitude	6.17	0.904	.461**	.221**	.479**	**.76**								
5 Intention	6.79	0.4	.340**	.117	.483**	.441**	**.90**							
6 Certification	0.96	0.061	.163**	.054	.199**	.185*	.071	**1**						
Post-test														
7 Subjective Norms Perceived	5.48	1.18	.800**	.387**	.287**	.468**	.331**	.077	**.85**					
8 Accountability	4.07	1.36	.288**	.798**	.175*	.265**	0.13	.048	.379**	**.78**				
9 Perceived Control	6.35	0.674	.277**	0.054	.822**	.530**	.447**	.162*	.242**	.172*	**.79**			
10 Attitude	6.2	0.835	.433**	.211*	.443**	.826**	.416**	.172*	.433**	.214**	.477**	**.78**		
11 Intention	6.67	0.4	.364**	.126	.523**	.561**	.754**	.069	.412**	.201*	.525**	.541**	**.91**	
12 Accuracy	0.78	0.102	.185*	.141	.179*	.159*	.157*	.145	.115	.143	.157*	.143	.192*	**1**

† Means and Standard Deviations prior to transformation.

* p< .05; ** p< .01

Cronbach's Alpha in Diagonals

Hypotheses

Results of Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1a predicted that the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) constructs (e.g. Attitude, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Control) would be predictive of behavioral intention to perform accurate ratings. In addition, Hypothesis 1b also predicted that the TPB constructs would be predictive of increased accuracy of ratings. The results of the regression analyses indicate that behavioral intention was positively influenced by the overall model of all three TPB constructs $F(3,173) = 46.799$, $p < .001$, adj. $R^2 = .443$, $p < .001$. Regression results are presented in Table 3 in (Appendix M) and the results using SEM of the modeled relationships are illustrated in Figure 4.

As for ratings accuracy, the regression analysis testing model including all three of the TPB constructs as a direct predictor of increased ratings accuracy was not significant, $F(3,173) = 1.935$, adj. $R^2 = .016$, $p = .126$. Therefore, Hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Results of Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 posited that higher perceptions of accountability will increase behavioral intention to provide accurate ratings. The results of the regression analysis without the TPB variables indicate that the factor perceived accountability was a weak, but significant predictor of behavioral intentions to rate more accurately $F(2,174) = 7.228$, $p < .05$, adj. $R^2 = .035$. ($\beta = .202$, $p < .05$). Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported.

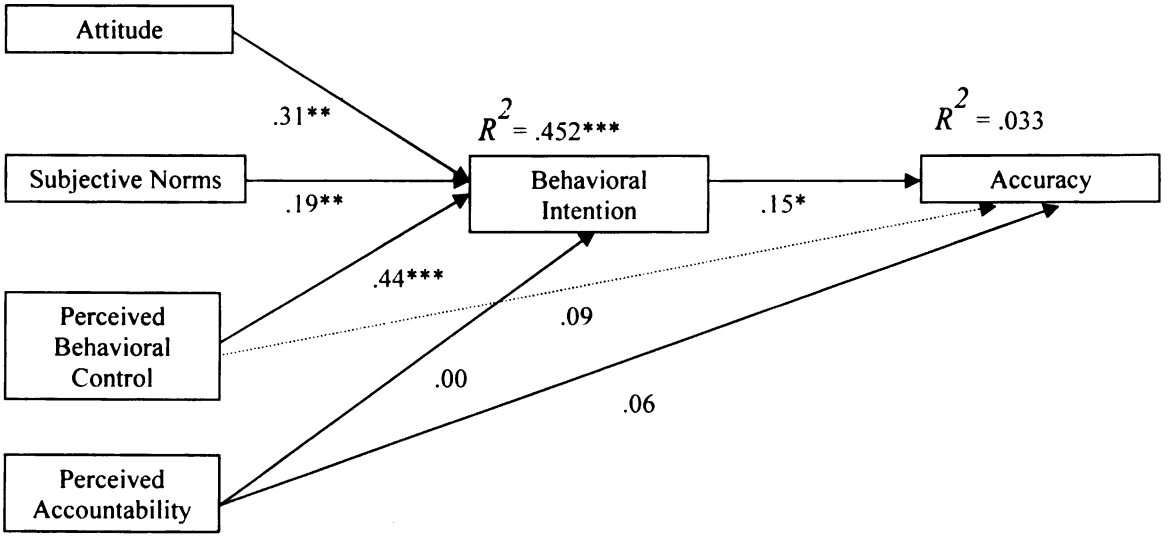
Results of Hypothesis 3. It was predicted in Hypothesis 3 that perceptions of accountability would be positively related to the accuracy of behavioral ratings. The

results of the regression analyses indicated that perceived accountability was not a significant predictor of increased ratings accuracy $F(2,174) = 1.506$, $p = .221$ ($\beta = .135$, $p = .221$). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Results of Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 posited that the TPB model that included perceived accountability would explain more variance in ratings accuracy than the TPB model without perceived accountability. Two methods of comparison were used to determine if this hypothesis was supported assessment of the path coefficients and the fit indices of the models in SEM. Despite the regression analyses of the individual path of perceived accountability confirming a significant relationship behavioral intention (See Hypothesis 2), when perceived accountability was included with the TPB variables, the relationship was not exhibited in the complete model (Figure 4).

The direction and magnitude of four of the seven standardized path coefficients were consistent with the hypotheses (see Figure 4).The results of the model test that the proposed model that extended the TPB to include perceived accountability did not fit the data well $\chi^2(9, N = 174) = 108.356$, $p = .000$, $\chi^2/df = 12.040$, $CFI = .513$, $RMSEA = .253$ in part due to the high multicollinearity of the TPB predictors.

Figure 3: Tested model with path coefficients



Note: $\chi^2(9, N = 174) = 107.312$, $p = .000$, $\chi^2/df = 11.924$, CFI = .518, RMSEA = .251
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

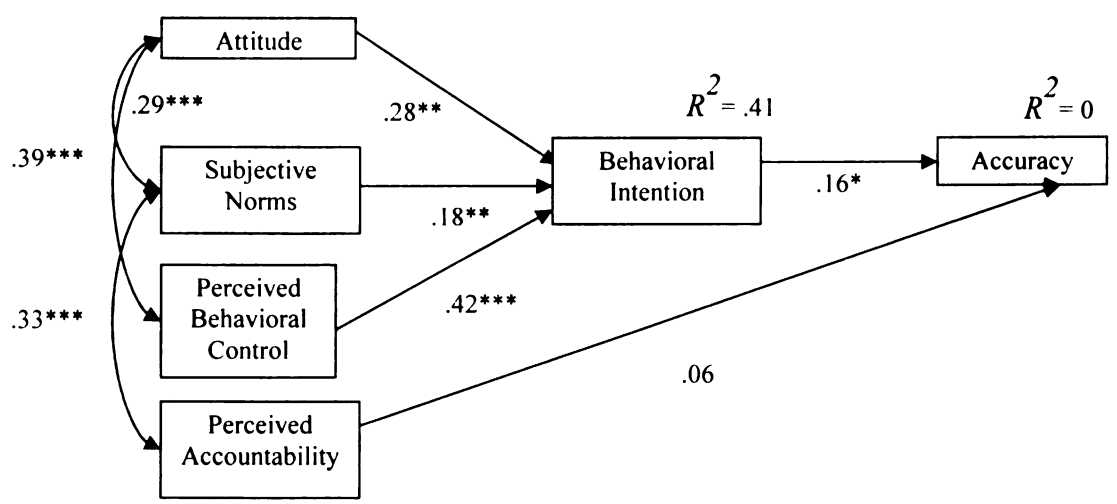
By examining the relationship of perceived accountability with both intention and accuracy, it does not appear to be a significant predictor of either variable and therefore Hypothesis 4 is not supported. Examination of the fit indices of the model with the inclusion of perceived accountability: $\chi^2(9, N = 174) = 107.312$, $p = .000$, $\chi^2/df = 11.924$, CFI = .518, RMSEA = .251. The results of the model without the variable of perceived accountability were as follows: $\chi^2(5, N = 174) = 78.873$, $p = .000$, $\chi^2/df = 15.775$, CFI = .589, RMSEA = .292. Although comparison of the fit indices provides ambiguous results, as the model including accountability yielded improved RMSEA and χ^2/df outcomes, the more parsimonious model without the additional variable demonstrated an improvement on the CFI index. However, hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Post hoc Analyses

In addition to testing the previous hypotheses, post hoc analyses were also conducted to further investigate alternative models for the data. First, an alternative model that addressed the multicollinearity of the TPB variables was analyzed. Then, an alternative model that identifies accountability as mediated through the TPB constructs was tested. Finally, a model that identifies accountability as a predictor of the TPB constructs was tested.

Post hoc Model 1. As found in previous studies, there is a relationship between the TPB variables and covariances are to be expected, however the exact relationships tend to vary from behavior to behavior. Attitude generally has a relationship with both perceived control and subjective norms, and therefore the inclusions of these relationships improved the overall fit of the proposed model (Figure 5), $\chi^2(7, N = 174) = 22.692$, $p = .002$, $\chi^2/df = 3.242$, CFI = .923, RMSEA = .114

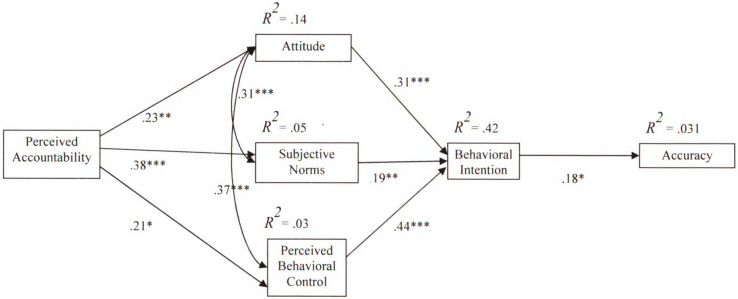
Figure 4. Post hoc 1: Proposed TPB model with the inclusion of Perceived Accountability and Covariance relationships



Note: χ^2 (7, N = 174) = 22.692, p = .002, χ^2/df = 3.242, CFI = .923, RMSEA = .114
* p <.05, ** p < .01, ***p < .001.

Post Hoc Model 2. A second post hoc model was proposed to examine the relationship that perceived accountability should have on the TPB variables in that by definition, accountability focuses on the tangible or imminent outcomes associated with performing a behavior. As stated before, subjective norms are influenced by a person's normative belief, the perceived expectation of their important others regarding the behavior and their own motivation or pressure to perform a behavior. The perception of accountability should influence subjective norms in that the level of perceived level of social consequence should be indicative of the certainty of or the perceptions that a person feels about their referent others beliefs about the behavior. Perceived accountability should also be predictive of a person's attitude, or the extent to which the action or behavior is judged to be positive or negative. A person's level of perceived accountability should be indicative of the person's belief that performance of the behavior is positive or negative. Perceived behavioral control, or a person's beliefs about available resources, opportunities, barriers, ability to perform a behavior ought to be influenced by a person's level of perceived accountability. Contexts of accountability should influence the level of control that a person feels about performing a behavior, whether or not performance of the behavior is voluntary or under their own control. Therefore a model that included perceived accountability and the theory of planned behavior variables was tested (Figure 6), but with accountability included as a predictor of the three TPB constructs rather than having a direct relationship with behavioral intention.

Figure 5. Post hoc 2: Perceived Accountability as a predictor of TPB variables



Note: $\chi^2(6, N = 174) = 12.593$, $p = .050$, $\chi^2/df = 2.099$, CFI = .968, RMSEA = .080.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The inclusion of perceived accountability improved the fit indices of the model of TPB constructs $\chi^2(6, N = 174) = 12.593$, $p = .050$, $\chi^2/df = 2.099$, CFI = .968, RMSEA = .080 and strengthened the relationship between intention and accuracy.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The buzzword accountability, or lack of, is often touted as the blame for failures in many organizations in that employees are simply not being held accountable to proscribed standards. Ubiquitous to social organizations, accountability is not a simple idea to define or to operationalize. Furthermore, gaining understanding of what motivates employees to perform certain behaviors has long been the source of lay academic inquiry, a holy grail of sorts. The critical role that managers play in the workplace with the level of impact that they have on the motivation of employees and their potential to influence the behavior of front-line employees is critical to the success of many organizations, particularly those employees whose primary job entails customer service interactions. However, if accountability is not communicated or enforced, employees may be less motivated to adhere to organizational policies. This research aimed to not only gain understanding of the concept of accountability and create a perceived accountability scale, it also sought to test and extend the Theory of Planned Behavior with the inclusion of the perceived accountability construct and, more importantly, the inclusion of an objective measure of behavior.

The current experimental study examined how accountability systems and their implementation influence the perceptions of accountability, motivation, and behavior of those who were required to assess the behavior of others. Participants were randomly assigned to one of 3 experimental conditions (accountability vs. no accountability vs. control) and then trained to evaluate vignettes of customer service interactions. In the pre and posttests, participants completed measures related to the constructs of the theory of

planned behavior, perceived accountability, and accuracy. Both structural equation modeling and regression analyses tested the utility of a theory of planned behavior (TPB) model and a modified TPB model that includes perceived accountability in the area of ratings accuracy.

First, an overview of the results from each of the four hypotheses will be discussed followed by alternative models posed by the post hoc analyses. Then theoretical contributions and practical implications for the TPB in the organizational context will be discussed. Finally, limitations of the current research will be identified and directions for future research will be proffered.

Interpretation of Results

Generally, the results of the main study supported the model of the constructs identified by the theory of planned behavior better than the same model with the inclusion of perceived accountability. However, subsequent analyses indicated that there was indeed a relationship, albeit a weak one, between accuracy of scores and perceptions of accountability. Indeed, most of the variables of interest were not significant predictors of rating accuracy success and illustrates that rating accuracy is indeed a complex behavior worthy of more inquiry. Furthermore, by including an objective measure of behavior the results illustrated that, at least for the complex behavior of rating accuracy, the intention behavior connection is somewhat weaker than in previous inquiries. A more in-depth discussion of key findings is presented below.

Hypothesis 1. Similar to other complex behaviors like occupational intentions and vocational decisions, rating accuracy and rating decision making is a complex behavior that is impacted by many factors. This study sought to perform a test of the TPB model

and hypothesized that the TPB constructs would be predictive of both behavioral intentions to be accurate as well as actual ratings behavior. Consistent with the assumptions of the attitude-behavioral relationship posited by the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) this hypothesis was partially supported. Furthermore, results indicated that behavioral intention was indeed influenced by subjective norms, attitude, and perceived behavioral control (adj. R^2 = .452, $p < .001$). However, the strength of the intention-behavior link was not as strong as meta-analyses have indicated in that the average correlation for that relationship is r = .53 (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988), and the current intention-behavior link was a modest r = .17. Other meta-analyses put the proportion of variance in behavior explained by intention between 19% and 38% of the variance (Armitage & Conner, 2001). This weaker than predicted relationship between intention and behavior could be explained by the fact that an objective and non-dichotomous measure of the behavior was used in lieu of a self-report, estimation intention, or goal measure.

Another explanation for the weak intention – behavior link is that fatigue may have played a role in the manner in which the participants indicated their level of intention. The means of all intention items did not vary a great deal, and scores ranged from 4 to 7 with means ranging from (M = 6.61, SD = .614) to (M = 6.82, SD = .417), indicating perhaps a strong social desirability effect. In other words, it is not surprising that participants reported a strong intention to try and rate the vignettes accurately because individuals typically seek to do things correctly. However, actual performance on a behavioral task where the measurement of the behavior indicates better or worse performance, is quite different than previous measures of behavior which may be

dichotomous in nature (e.g., the behavior was performed or not performed) and based on self-report.

If the case was that everyone had strong intention to be accurate, and subsequently they were not found to be performing more accurate ratings, there might be other influences of behavior at play. A person may believe that they are able to perform the behavior (i.e. perceived control), that they think it is good to perform the behavior (i.e. attitude), that important others think it is good to perform the behavior well (i.e. subjective norms), and they intend to make accurate ratings (i.e. behavioral intention), but despite, they still may not perform the behavior well. Given that all participants were trained and demonstrated a minimum ability to perform the ratings and to be accurate during the certification portion, a lack of ability is not likely to be an explanation for the differences in accuracy scores.

Hypothesis 2 & 3. In addition to the test of the TPB variables, this study sought to explore the construct of perceived accountability and its influence on intention and behavior. Hypothesis 2 posited that perceptions of accountability would influence positively the intention to perform accurate ratings while Hypothesis 3 posited that perceived accountability would positively influence actual ratings behavior. Though the hypothesized relationship between perceived accountability and intention was supported, there was no significant relationship with ratings accuracy. Further, the relationship between perceived accountability was significant when examined holding other predictors constant, however this relationship was non-existent when incorporated into the TPB model.

It is interesting that the relationships were indeed so low in that perceived accountability is a construct that has normative and attitude related aspects and therefore should behave similarly to the TPB factors. The results indicating very little relationship to intention and ratings behavior provides support to the discriminant validity of the perceived accountability construct from the TPB exogenous factors. Furthermore, results indicated that none of the variables of interest (i.e. TPB and Perceived Accountability) were predictive of increased ratings accuracy making it possible that regardless of the perceptions that the participant expressed about the task, no perception was predictive of the level of the participant's performance.

Perceptions of accountability may be influenced by results of past behavior (i.e. whether or not the person was or was not held accountable by others for performing the behavior). The finding that past behavior can be highly predictive of future intention and behavioral outcomes (e.g. Ajzen, 2002; Silk, Westerman, Kingsley, & Mackert, 2005) is important to consider when examining perceptions of accountability. When a behavior has already been enacted, a person has a concrete idea of what sorts of consequences are associated with performance or non-performance of the target behavior, thus reducing uncertainty as to the outcome evaluation of performance of that behavior.

Hypothesis 4 and Post Hoc Model 1. The results of the test of the Theory of Planned Behavior model with the inclusion of perceived accountability indicated that perceived accountability did not add significant explanatory power to the model predicting rating accuracy. Given that both theoretically and visible in the results that there were significant relationships between the TPB variables and a relationship between subjective norms and perceived accountability, a model that included those relationships

was proposed and tested. Results indicate that this model was an improvement to the model without covariance relationships included and fits the data well. However, perceived accountability was still not found to add significant explanatory variance to the model as the TPB variables provided strong relationships to behavioral intention. As stated before, the finding that the perceived accountability construct, though related to the TPB variables, does not influence behavioral intention in the same way is evidence that the perceived accountability construct is tapping different perceptions in attitudes.

Post hoc model 2. Given the strong relationships between the TPB variables and perceived accountability variable, a second post hoc model was proposed to examine the logical role perceived accountability played in influencing TPB variables. This model takes into account the contextual framework in those perceptions of being held accountable should influence the salience of attitudes, subjective norms and level of perceived control. This model was found to best fit the data and the relationship between intention and behavior was strengthened.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The theoretical and practical implications of this study are discussed in the following section including a discussion for the implications of the theory of planned behavior and the implications of the perceived accountability instrument to the study of organizational communication.

Implications

Implications for Theory of Planned Behavior. The results presented in the in the main study have some important implications for the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991). First, the results demonstrate support for the use of the TPB framework in

workplace-type behaviors like rating behavior in so much that the TPB constructs were predictive of behavioral intention to make accurate ratings. Second, the results of the main study demonstrate that when using a non-dichotomous and objective measure of behavior, the relationship between intention and behavior may not be as strong as previously found with studies that utilize self-reports, modified intention measures or dichotomous measures of behavior. This result is especially important when performance of the target behavior can vary in terms of quality or quantity (i.e. how well the behavior is performed) as it may not be sufficient always to only measure intention or to measure a behavior as an either performed or did not perform. By measuring behavior differently that what is traditionally performed in TPB studies the results indicate that modifications of behavioral measures might aid in gaining understanding about the attitude-behavior connection. Also, the results that indicate that perceived accountability can be a predictor of the TPB constructs may aid in future tests of the theory, especially in conjunction with the use of past behavior being a predictor of future behavior.

The incorporation of perceived accountability as a predictor of the TPB variables might be of particular usefulness of those studying workplace behaviors in that perceptions of accountability may be a strong indicator of how salient or important a person interprets the organizational pressures to perform certain behaviors. Finally, the results indicating that perceptions of accountability influence TPB variables might encourage researchers to examine those variables that might engender feelings of accountability. Put another way, personality traits may play a role in how people interpret contexts of accountability and subsequently impact their attitudes and behavior. For example, a person that is high on conscientiousness or self-monitoring may perceive the

expectations of others as more salient or important than those who are low and subsequently may feel increased influence of the implementation of accountability systems. Therefore, in addition to the traditional personality testing that many organizations already implement in the selection process, it may also be important to examine what impacts existing and potential employees' attitudes and behavior.

Implications of accountability. The results of this study adds to the body of organizational literature in terms of the importance of accountability, as well as offering an integrated explication and validated instrument. First, perceived accountability was further explicated and a perceived accountability instrument was created and validated. The results indicate that not only does this instrument have convergent validity it also demonstrates divergent validity in that it indeed tapping different attitudes than the TPB measures. Though perceived accountability was not found to be significant in accounting for unique variance, it is heavily related to TPB constructs – providing another path for influencing those constructs. In other words, accountability is important and figuring out strategies that make employees feel accountable. The instrument created for this study offers scholars another avenue to pursue in gaining understanding of contextual influences on behavior. Accountability has both positive and negative outcomes; it can therefore be a double edged sword that can be both the carrot or the stick in terms of motivation.

Practical Implications. The results of this study suggest a number of practical implications to be considered. First, as stated before, the test of the complete TPB model including an objective measure of behavior is not typically performed. The results that the intention behavior relationship is not a strong as previous findings suggests that future

research should consider utilizing an objective measure of outcome behavior if possible. It is important to the study of behavior to understand that with some behaviors, intention may not be necessarily predictive of behavior. Perhaps by including an objective measure of behavior, better tests of the influences can be found and put into use. Second, the explication of perceived accountability as well as instrument creation can offer scholars another way to test contextual influences on motivation and behavior in social organizations.

Perceived accountability, as it has been defined in this study, can be utilized in the study of as a barometer of the relative importance or salience of social pressures in the workplace choices and behaviors. The results indicate that engendering perceptions of accountability is difficult to consistently induce or influence in that the environmental impact of accountability systems can from person to person. The difficulty of creating an environment where employees feel accountable for their performance consistently is of particular interest to organizations in so far as selection and management of personnel is concerned. There is no simple solution, but perhaps studying the levels of perceived accountability that employees feel with regards to certain behaviors organizations can increase their understanding of what organizational policies or procedures are making an impact and which ones may be ineffective in guiding behavior. For example, if an organization wishes to improve performance of a group of employees, the organization may want to examine the perceived accountability that employees feel to perform different job duties. The results could help the organization determine where the gaps exist in organizational policies and managerial implementation with employees' perceptions of consequences to perform aspects of their jobs. The results could aid the

organizations to not only determine where the perceived pressures are more perceived as more salient or important and subsequently, implement strategies to ensure that employees are performing job duties according to the desired standard.

It is important to note that there is a difference between the concept of perceived accountability and the personality trait of conscientiousness. Conscientiousness is defined through the characteristics such as responsibility, dependability, persistence and achievement orientation (Barrick & Mount, 1993) and is associated with how people allocate their effort when making decisions and performing tasks (Frink & Ferris, 1999). Frink and Ferris (1999) explored the relationship between the trait of conscientiousness and performance under conditions of accountability and found that those with higher levels of conscientiousness performed at higher levels than less conscientious people when held accountable for their performance by others. People with higher levels of conscientiousness may be more responsive to conditions of accountability and therefore feel more responsibility to perform a task than those who are less conscientious. Thus, further study into the relationship between personality traits, like conscientiousness, and perceptions of accountability might offer insight to the differing reactions to accountability systems in organizations.

The results of this study that indicate that performance of the ratings task decreased from performance on training certification is indicative of the gap that exists in organizations transfer of training to actual task performance.

Limitations

Though as many factors as possible were controlled for in performing this research, there were a number of limitations to the present study with regard to the

study's sample, induction, design, and measurement instruments. First, the sample was quite young, were all college students, and lack organizational experience. Further, this study was performed in a classroom setting with said student participants that may have constrained the possible level of consequence and made it difficult to induce feelings of accountability.

The results of the induction indicated that there were limited differences between accountability conditions. Despite there being no significant differences in the means of the pilot groups between accountability conditions whether the gift card consequence was included or not $t(27) = .134$, $p < .894$. There appeared to be a significant difference between the perceived accountability without mention of the gift card and the no accountability condition $t(26) = 2.513$, $p < .05$. The decision was made to proceed with the induction without modification. One explanation for the higher scores of perceived accountability in the control group was that the researcher remained in the room during those sessions. The fact that the person with the authority did not leave the room in the control condition and did leave the room for a minute in the other conditions, essentially gave permission participants (i.e. the confederates) to talk while absent and subsequently undermined the accountability induction. In other words, the departure of the experimenter, regardless of the justification message, may have violated the expectations of the participants with regards to accountability. This violation might have given the non-verbal message that the experimenter did not take the session seriously thus explaining the results of the control group having greater feelings of accountability.

This problem with the induction could be caused by a number of reasons, including but not limited to the difficulty in inducing senses of consequence and

accountability in a lab setting and with a student sample. Part of the quandary is that in part, perceptions of accountability is engendered by holding others accountable. Given that there was no real consequence, or rather the consequence did not appear to be important enough to the participants to influence their perceptions of accountability. The effect that perceived accountability might have on ratings behavior cannot be assessed in this study due to the lack of variance in perceptions of accountability. The types of consequences that may have been more effective in inducing feelings of accountability would not likely be either realistic in a lab study with students and/or would not be approved by an IRB board. It is still believed that perceptions of accountability have an impact on behavior despite the lack of evidence found in this limited study.

Unfortunately, the greatest effect on the differences between the pre-and post test measures of perceived accountability was time $F(1,173) = 35.931$, $p < .001$, partial eta = .174. It is posited that there was a large impact of both practice effects as well as fatigue of the participants. In a short period of time, the participants completed over 90 items that, by design, were repetitive. Future research would attend to the issue of fatigue and practice effects through the removal of superfluous items as well as allow increased time between the pre-test and post-test in order to minimize the perceptions that the items were repetitive. The length of the sessions and the pre-and post test design, was quite long at an hour in comparison to many of the other studies offered to the students for research credit. Furthermore, the design combined with number of survey items made it somewhat difficult to keep the session interesting and motivating. Fatigue may have had a role in the responses elicited from some participants.

The dependent variable of ratings accuracy is a limitation to the findings of the study in terms of variance and type of measure. Though it is still maintained that this measure of behavior is an improvement to the traditional dichotomous alternative, in this study there was not a great deal of variance in the accuracy scores and therefore attenuating results. The quality of ratings could have been measured in other ways including objective measures of effort (e.g. note-taking, attention). Further, it would have been useful to have included another measure of motivation in addition to the behavioral intention measure. The survey items were grouped by construct and may have influenced the manner in which the participants scored the items, especially as fatigue may have occurred.

Future Research

Better measures of intention need to be developed and tested to reduce the impact of social desirability and consistency concerns as well as improved measures of accuracy and outcome behavior. Further study of perceived accountability, especially in organizational environments and a working adult sample. Different inductions of accountability will be tested to determine what can influence varying levels of accountability perceptions. Further, personality traits will be tested to explore if perceptions of accountability are more easily induced or less variable depending on different personality characteristics (e.g. conscientiousness, self-monitoring, anxiety). It is important to gain understanding of whether perceived accountability is a trait or whether organizational policies and procedures can influence perceptions. If perceived accountability is trait-like then there are selection and testing issues in organizations may

need to address. The design of the instruments should be modified in length and order to minimize possible order and fatigue effects.

In addition to improvement of accuracy measures, an interview study of working adults to examine the impact of perceived accountability in the workplace should be performed. A validation study of the perceived accountability instrument with a working adult sample could offer the field and organizations a greater understanding of the role of accountability in the workplace.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the current study examined the relationships between perceived accountability, behavioral intention, and ratings accuracy. The study also tested the model of relationships put forth in the Theory of Planned Behavior. The results indicate that perceived accountability had a significant, though small relationship with behavioral intention to rate accurately, however it was not a significant predictor of ratings accuracy. Results also indicated that the data were consistent with the model of relationships proposed by the Theory of Planned Behavior, however the relationship between behavioral intention and ratings accuracy behavior was not as strong as suggested by previous tests of the model. A post hoc model was proposed and tested that included perceived accountability as a predictor of subjective norms, attitude, and perceived control, and subsequently the post hoc model was found to fit the data well. It is suggested that future research of perceived accountability using a working adult sample would provide insight to the impact of perceived accountability on workplace behaviors.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Pilot Accuracy Measure

Initiates Friendly Greeting (Smiles and Makes Eye Contact)		
Initiates conversation with a friendly verbal greeting.	TOP	○
Responds with **friendly** verbal greeting, does not initiate conversation.	MIDDLE	○
Does not offer **friendly** verbal greeting.	BOTTOM	○
Observer Notes: Note: Friendly = smile and eye contact		
Demonstrates Upbeat and Positive Attitude		
Enthusiastic, energetic, uses tone (volume & inflection) **AND** gestures to convey positive energy.	TOP	○
Pleasant, polite, professional; open body language (little motion) **AND** steady tone.	MIDDLE	○
Appears to be going through the motions; monotone **OR** closed body language.	BOTTOM	○
Observer Notes: Note: demonstration of U & P using gestures necessary, only if physically possible		
Uses Customer Name to Personalize Service		
Uses customer name **AND** introduces self (as appropriate).	TOP	○
Uses customer name **OR** introduces self.	MIDDLE	○
Does not use customer name **OR** introduce Self.	BOTTOM	○
Observer Notes:		
Smiles and Makes Eye Contact		
Smiles **AND** makes eye contact together throughout interaction (at least 3 times).	TOP	○
Smiles **AND** makes eye contact together through some of the interaction (at least 2 times).	MIDDLE	○
Does not smile **AND** make eye contact together during at least 2 parts of the interaction.	BOTTOM	○
Observer Notes:		
Anticipates Customer Needs Proactively		
Anticipates needs by celebrating luck (e.g. actual customer win) **OR** proactively offering **other** products/ services that customer might need/want	TOP	○
Responds thoroughly to customer question/need (may refer to someone who knows).	MIDDLE	○
Does not respond thoroughly to question **OR** if no question, does not celebrate luck or proactively offer products/ services.	BOTTOM	○
Observer Notes: **key: ANTICPATES needs = not merely responding to customer request**		
Expresses Friendly Appreciation for the Business		
Expresses friendly appreciation for the business **AND** extends a **positive parting remark** (e.g. "Good Luck" or "Have a Nice Day")	TOP	○
Expresses friendly (smile & eye contact) **appreciation** for the business (e.g. "Thank you")	MIDDLE	○
Does not express friendly appreciation for the business. (Note: "Thank you" for the tip does not count as appreciation for the business.)	BOTTOM	○
Observer Notes: **Key point:** Appreciation for the business		
Overall Moment of Truth		
Exceeds expectations	TOP	○
Meets expectations	MIDDLE	○
Falls below expectations	BOTTOM	○

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of Study: Exploring the service encounter

Researcher: Dr. Kami J. Silk
Department of Communication
Michigan State University

Email: silkk@msu.edu
Office: CAS 566
Phone: 355-0221

Thank you for considering participation in this research study. The following set of questionnaires will be asking you about yourself, your experience in this training session, your feelings about the exercises and some demographic information. You will also be asked to rate the behavior of videotaped customer service interactions. All answers are CONFIDENTIAL. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. Your identities will not be linked to the data you provide. The total time necessary is 45-60 minutes. Following completion of the research tasks, you will be debriefed in writing via email about the purpose of this research. You must be 18 years or older to participate in this research.

Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw your consent to participate at any time without penalty. In addition to the research credit provided you may be entered into a drawing for a $100 gift card.

While this study is not expected to yield any immediate benefit to the individual participants, it will contribute to communication research knowledge. There are no anticipated risks associated with participation.

The final results of the study will be made available. To obtain the report please contact Kami Silk at the above address.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact – anonymously, if you wish, Peter Vasilenko, Ph.D., Director of the Human Research Protection Programs (HRRP) at Michigan State University: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, email: irb@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824.

I voluntary agree to participate in this study.

_____	_____	_____
Print your name	Your signature	Date

Appendix C: Organizational Culture Statement

Organizational Culture Statement

XYZ Entertainment is the world's largest provider of branded casino entertainment through operating subsidiaries nearly 40 casinos in three countries. Since its beginning in Reno, Nevada 70 years ago XYZ Entertainment is focused on **building loyalty and value with its customers through a unique combination of great service**, excellent products, unsurpassed distribution, operational excellence and technology leadership.
XYZ sets the standard of excellence in the gaming industry with employees who are devoted to delivering truly great service. Our employees are critical to our success.
We provide great customer service in exciting and entertaining environments, with the goal of becoming the overwhelming first choice for casino entertainment.

We concentrate on building loyalty and value for our customers, shareholders, employees, business partners and communities by being the most service-oriented, geographically diversified company in gaming.

Spotlight on Success is how XYZ employees provide the best customer service in the gaming industry. This program provides training and ongoing evaluations of our service professionals who work in our front line positions. With this training, our service professionals are taught to consistently deliver exemplary customer service to our guests.

Our company truly is distinguished by its talented and dedicated employees. We **recognize and reward** superior contributions and outstanding achievements.

Appendix D: Purpose and Expectations

Purpose and Expectations

Excellent customer service is critical for the success of our organization. Our customer service philosophy is based on the moment of truth, where each interaction that our employees have is critical to the impression that our guest form about our organization. After much research and years of testing, they've found that there are some aspects of the interaction that influence the impression of our guests more than others. **We have chosen 6 key attributes or behaviors to that everyone that encounters a guest must be able and motivated to perform.** Part of your role as a supervisor is to monitor and guide the behavior of your employees. In order to do so, clear expectations of behavior must be set and measured.

The purpose for this training program is to ensure that there is clarity of behaviors and to make it easier for the employees to execute the 6 critical aspects of the interaction more consistently. In order to measure effectively, you must be able to recognize the different execution of the behaviors and rate them accurately.

- You will first be trained to evaluate the videotaped interactions accurately.
- You will then be certified to ensure your ability to perform the ratings accurately.
- You will then complete questionnaires regarding the exercise.
- You will complete the final ratings exercise and demographic information.

Critical to the test of this program is **that you do your best** at rating the videotaped interactions accurately. Your scores will be examined and evaluated. Contingent upon the accuracy of your scores, you may be asked to justify your ratings verbally with the experimenter at the conclusion of the session.

In order to be entered into the drawing, be sure to provide your name and email on the note card provided to you as well as mark all study materials with your code.

Appendix E: Induction

After reading the purpose and organizational culture statement please answer the following questions:

XYZ is in what type of industry? _____

What is the key to the success of the XYZ organization?_____

_____

How many key attributes have been found to be important to an excellent customer service interaction?

_____

True or False, contingent upon the accuracy of final ratings score participants may be asked to justify their answers verbally to the experimenter?

_____

By signing below, I have indicated that I have read and understood the organizational culture statement, the purpose and the expectations of my participation in this research.

Signature: _____

COPY CODE FROM CARD GIVEN TO YOU WITH YOUR PACKET HERE:

_____

STOP! STOP! STOP! STOP! STOP! STOP!

PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS FROM EXAMINER.

Appendix F: Practice, Certification, and Accuracy Instrument

Greeting **Based on Harrah's standards for customer service...**	**F**	**D**	**C**	**B**	**A**
How well did the employee **initiate** the greeting with the guest?	0	1	2	3	4
How well did the employee offer a **friendly** verbal greeting to the guest?	0	1	2	3	4
How would you rate the **overall greeting**?	0	1	2	3	4
Observer notes:					
Attitude **Based on Harrah's standards for customer service...**					
How well did the employee express **energy and enthusiasm** in voice and body language?	0	1	2	3	4
How well did the employee **smile at the guest** throughout the interaction?	0	1	2	3	4
How well did the employee **make eye-contact with the guest** throughout the interaction?	0	1	2	3	4
How well would you rate the employee's overall attitude during the interaction?	0	1	2	3	4
Observer notes:					
Use of Name **Based on Harrah's standards for customer service...**					
How clearly did the employee use the **customer's name** during the interaction?	0	1	2	3	4
How clearly did the employee use their **own name** during the interaction?	0	1	2	3	4
Overall, how well did the employee use of name in the interaction?	0	1	2	3	4
Observer Notes:					
Proactive Anticipation of Guest Needs **Based on Harrah's standards for customer service...**					
How well did the employee celebrate **luck** of the guest? (e.g. actual win)	0	1	2	3	4
How well did the employee proactively offer other product/services that guest might want need?	0	1	2	3	4
How well did the employee respond **thoroughly** to guest's question or need? (may have referred to someone who knows)	0	1	2	3	4
How would you rate their Overall Anticipation of Guest Needs?	0	1	2	3	4
Observer Notes:					
Provides Warm Farewell **Based on Harrah's standards for customer service...**					
How well did the employee express friendly **appreciation for the business?** (Thank you for Tip doesn't count)	0	1	2	3	4
How clearly did the employee extend a **positive parting remark?** (e.g. "Good Luck", "Have a nice day")	0	1	2	3	4
How would you rate the overall farewell?	0	1	2	3	4
Observer Notes:					
Overall Interaction Score	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix G: Survey Instrument of Subjective Norms, Perceived Control, Perceived Accountability, Attitude and Intention

Instructions:
Please circle the response that best reflects your agreement with the statement—please be honest. In making your ratings, please be sure to answer all items – **do not omit any** and **never circle more than one** number on a single scale. Circling 1 indicates strong disagreement with the statement while circling 7 indicates that you strongly agree.

Most people who are important to me think I should strive to rate customer service interactions as best as I can.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

People whose work values I respect would want me to try hard to rate customer service interactions accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think my peers at work would want me to be accurate in my ratings of customer service interactions.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think my direct supervisor would think it is important to do my best to rate the vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think upper management would want me to rate customer service interactions accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Generally speaking, I strive to do the best that I can on whatever tasks I am asked to do because that what society expects me to do.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Most people whose opinion I value would approve of me being accurate in my ratings

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Most people who are important to me think that I should be accurate in my ratings of the vignettes.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Most of my friends think that it is important to be accurate in rating the vignettes.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Generally speaking, I care a great deal what the researcher thinks I should do in rating the vignettes?

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Generally speaking, I care a great deal what those important to me think I should do?

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I am able to rate customer service interactions accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Rating customer service interaction is extremely difficult for me.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

Rating customer service interactions accurately is impossible for me.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I have control over being accurate in my ratings.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I understand what is required to rate customer service interactions accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I am confident that if I wanted to I could rate the vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I plan on paying close attention so that I can rate accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I intend to do my best in rating these vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I will make a strong effort to rate the customer service interactions the best I can.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I intend on being accurate in my ratings of the vignettes

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I will make an effort to be accurate in my ratings of the vignettes

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I plan to be accurate in my ratings of the vignettes

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I believe that the ratings I give must be acceptable to others.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I expect that there are consequences if I don't rate these vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel a strong responsibility to give accurate ratings.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I expect to have to justify my ratings.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 . 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel like someone is going to evaluate me on how well I perform on this task.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel obligated to be accurate in my ratings.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 · 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel that I am being judged in my performance of accurate ratings.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel that that there are high standards for this ratings task.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel accountable to perform accurate ratings.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel that I may be punished for not performing well in this ratings task.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

It is part of my job to perform well on job related tasks.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think that I will be rewarded if I perform well in this ratings task.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

It is important that my ratings are acceptable to others.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I feel obligated to perform up to the standards of performance described to me.

Strongly Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

It does not matter whether or not I rate the vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

It is important to me that I rate the customer service interactions accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

It is very good for me to be accurate in my ratings of customer service interactions.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

It is acceptable for me to rate the customer service interactions inaccurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think there are consequences for making errors in my ratings.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think there are benefits to being accurate in my ratings.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think there is a value in performing accurate ratings.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think rating vignettes is interesting.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think it is useless to rate the vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I think it is informative to rate the vignettes accurately.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

I like to be accurate in my ratings.

Strongly Disagree : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : Strongly Agree

STOP STOP STOP STOP STOP
PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTION BEFORE PROCEEDING

Appendix H: Distraction Tasks

Please complete the following exercise by circling the list of words to the left within the puzzle on the right.
You have 4 minutes.

Band	Jazz
Bass	Music
Beat	Note
Bebop	Piano
Blow	Play
Blues	Rhythm
Clarinet	Saxophone
Combo	Scale
Dixieland	Scat
Drums	Swing
Gig	Trumpet
Guitar	Tune
Horn	Voice
Improvisation	Wail

G	H	M	Y	T	H	S	W	A	I	L	J	O
O	Z	X	S	A	C	O	B	L	U	E	S	T
B	Z	S	C	A	L	E	V	O	I	C	E	H
E	A	H	S	B	A	P	L	M	A	O	I	N
B	J	H	I	W	R	H	Y	T	H	M	L	D
O	P	L	H	A	I	J	G	T	W	B	N	N
P	L	D	T	T	N	N	I	L	A	O	M	A
I	D	I	N	G	E	R	G	N	L	E	W	L
H	U	R	M	N	T	P	D	M	O	R	B	E
G	O	M	U	S	I	C	M	N	G	T	N	I
H	J	T	M	M	L	S	A	U	D	L	E	X
N	O	I	T	A	S	I	V	O	R	P	M	I
T	S	A	X	O	P	H	O	N	E	T	R	D

Total Words Found _____

STOP STOP STOP STOP STOP STOP
PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTION.

Please complete the following exercise by circling the list of words to the left within the puzzle on the right.
You have 3 minutes.

Bake	Livestock
Calf	Meeting
Conservation	Member
Fair	Nature
Farm	Prize
Garden	Project
Hands	Ribbon
Head	Rural
Health	Sew
Heart	Skill
Home	Youth
Leader	

T	K	C	O	T	S	E	V	I	L	O	R	N
C	A	L	F	E	H	G	R	T	H	M	N	O
Y	T	F	W	N	L	G	R	U	Y	H	J	I
R	U	R	A	L	N	I	H	J	T	W	N	T
J	Y	M	I	I	B	F	H	L	N	A	G	A
G	L	K	T	B	R	E	A	V	N	M	N	V
M	S	E	O	P	P	E	N	T	H	Y	N	R
E	E	N	A	C	H	L	D	C	H	O	M	E
M	G	A	R	D	E	N	S	E	H	U	R	S
B	H	N	G	S	E	R	A	J	H	T	W	N
E	A	V	F	N	D	R	A	O	L	H	G	O
R	T	K	N	M	T	H	M	R	A	F	L	C
L	D	A	E	H	G	N	B	P	R	I	Z	E

Total Number of Found Words _____

STOP STOP STOP STOP STOP

PLEASE WAIT FOR FURTHER INSTRUCTION

Appendix I: Demographic Information

Directions: Please provide us with some information about yourself.

Your Age _____ Male ___ Female ___
Please check one that best describes your ethnicity:

____ Black/African-American ____ Native American
____ Asian American ____ Pacific Islander
____ White/Caucasian ____ Mixed (please specify) _____
____ Hispanic ____ Other (please specify) _____

Please indicate the highest level of education you have received:

____ Some high school ____ Bachelor's Degree
____ High School Degree ____ Some advanced level ertificate
___ Currently Attending College ____ Doctoral/Advanced Degree
____ Graduate degree (Masters) ____ Other (Please describe) _____
____ Associates Degree

If currently attending college, what is your major concentration? _____

If currently attending college, how long? _____

Work experience:

Are you currently employed? Yes____ No ____

If yes, please indicate the number of months at current job? _____

On average, how many hours a week do you work? _____

How would you describe your position at work? (you may indicate more than one)

____ Administrative/Support ____ Clerical
____ Customer facing ____ Management/Supervisor
____ Retail ____ Sales
____ Foodservice/Hospitality ____ Hourly/Skilled
____ Technology ____ Human Resources
____ Healthcare ____ Other (Please specify) _____
____ Finance

Are you now, or have you ever worked in a hospitality service company (for example: hotel, restaurant, coffeehouse, bar, casino)? ___Yes ____ No
Are you now, or have you ever worked in a position that was primarily customer service oriented?
___Yes ____ No
If yes, please describe your position. _____
Are you now or have you ever had the role of supervisor or manager at work?
___Yes ____ No
If yes, please describe your position._____

Appendix J: Deferred Debriefing Slip

Thank you for your participation in this research study today. You will receive an email in no less than 4 weeks regarding this research. We ask that you please do not disclose any information about this research study with anyone as it may affect future data collection and results. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this research, please feel free contact the primary investigator, Tierney Orfgen (orfgenti@msu.edu).

Appendix K: Debriefing Email Template

Dear Participant,

Thank you again for your participation on (DATE) of the service encounter research study. The purpose of the research was to explore how accountability affected performance and motivation of the ratings of the vignettes. As you may recall, you were asked to complete a number of questionnaires regarding your feelings about the exercises and about the vignettes. You were also asked to rate the vignettes. Part of the actual research was to examine how perceptions of accountability affected your responses and accuracy.

You may have been in a condition that involved two people talking when the experimenter left the room briefly to make a phone call. These two individuals were actually confederates of the researcher and their conversation was part of the experiment to induce feelings of accountability.

In effect, though it was said that those with inaccurate scores might have to justify their answers to the experimenter. In fact, no participants were asked to justify their answers. It was necessary to ensure that participants felt that there were consequences for the accuracy of their ratings in order to study the effects of feelings of accountability on ratings behavior, which was the true aim of the research.

Again all your answers are CONFIDENTIAL. Your privacy will be protected to the maximum extent allowable by law. Your identities will not be linked to the data you provide.

If you have any questions or concerns, or would like to receive the results of the study, please contact Tierney Orfgen, orfgenti@msu.edu. If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact – anonymously, if you wish, Peter Vasilenko, Ph.D., Director of the Human Research Protection Programs (HRRP) at Michigan State University: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, email: irb@msu.edu, or regular mail: 202 Olds Hall, East Lansing, MI 48824.

Appendix L: Table 3: ANOVA Results for Perceived Accountability Post-test Across Experimental Conditions

Table 3: ANOVA Results for Perceived Accountability Post-test Across Experimental Conditions

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.431	2	4.216	2.304	0.103
Within Groups	312.908	171	1.83		
Total	321.339	173			

Appendix M: Table 4. Regression Results for Behavioral Intention and Accuracy

Table 4. Regression Results for Behavioral Intention and Accuracy

Model	Variables included in model:	Variable	β	Adj. R^2	Δ R^2
DV: Behavioral Intention					
1	SN, PC, & ATT			.452	.452
		Subjective Norms (SN)	0.173**		
		Perceived Control (PC)	0.402***		
		Attitude (ATT)	0.279***		
2	SN, PC, ATT, & PA			.	.001
		Perceived Accountability (PA)	0.002		
DV: Accuracy					
1	SN, PC, & ATT			.033	.033
		Subjective Norms (SN)	-0.007		
		Perceived Control (PC)	0.110		
		Attitude (ATT)	0.106		
2	SN, PC, ATT, & PA			.035	.002
		Perceived Accountability (PA)	0.093		

* p <.05, ** p < .01, ***p < .001

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