REACTIONS TO PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK AND SOURCE: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM AND POWER DISTANCE

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ABSTRACT

REACTIONS TO PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK AND SOURCE: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF INDIVIDUALISM/ COLLECTIVISM AND POWER DISTANCE

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The major aim of the current study was to examine the moderating effects of collectivism and power distance cultural orientations-assessed at the individual level-on the relationship between feedback source and reactions to performance feedback, operationalized as perceived accuracy, perceived usefulness, and affective reactions. In the present study, focal reactions were those which came from observers of a third party's performance. Student participants took part in a 2 (feedback sign) X 3 (feedback source) experimental design. Participants were shown a video depicting an average level presentation performance of a pseudo employee. Following this, participants were provided favorable or unfavorable performance ratings for this presentation from one of three sources (a supervisor, subordinates, and peers). Participants were asked to evaluate the employee's performance ratings provided by the assigned source condition in terms of reactions. Then, measures of cultural orientations were administered. Study results showed that supervisor raters were

perceived to have more expertise than peer raters and subordinate raters. Similarly, participants perceived the feedback from a supervisor as more accurate than the feedback from peers. For negative feedback, participants perceived the feedback from subordinates and supervisor as more accurate than the feedback from peers. When feedback was positive, affective reactions to feedback from peers were more positive than those to feedback from subordinates. Further, collectivism levels of observers had positive effects on affective reactions when subordinates provided negative feedback and when a supervisor and peers provided positive feedback. The study results were discussed and contributions and limitations of study were presented.

Keywords: Feedback Source, Feedback Sign, Reactions to Feedback, Collectivism, Power Distance.

ÖZ

PERFORMANS GERİ BİLDİRİMİNE VE GERİBİLDİRİM KAYNAĞINA YÖNELİK TEPKİLER: BİREYSELCİLİK/ TOPLULUKÇULUK VE GÜÇ MESAFESİ DEĞİŞKENLERİNİN MODERATÖR ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışmanın en önemli amacı, bireysel düzeyde değerlendirilen güç mesafesi ve toplulukçuluk değişkenlerinin geribildirim kaynağı (üst, denk, ast) ile geribildirimin algılanan doğruluğu, yararlılığı ve duygusal tepkiler olarak işevuruklaştırılan performans geribildirimine yönelik tepkiler arasındaki ilişkideki moderator etkisini incelemektir. Bu çalışmada incelenen tepkiler, üçüncü bir kişiye verilen performans değerlendirmesini gözlemleyenlerin tepkileridir. Öğrenci katılımcılar 2 (geribildirim yönü) X 3 (geribildirim kaynağı) desende bir deneye katılmışlardır. Katılımcılara sahte bir çalışanın orta seviyedeki sunum performansını sergileyen bir video gösterilmiştir. Bunun ardından katılımcılara bu sunum performansı için üç kaynaktan birinden (bir amir, astlar ve iş arkadaşları) gelen olumlu veya olumsuz performans değerlendirmeleri sağlanmıştır. Son olarak katılımcılardan atandıkları kaynak tarafından verilen olumlu veya olumsuz performans değerlendirmelerini algılanan doğruluk, yararlılık ve duygusal tepkiler açısından değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Sonra, katılımcıların güç mesafesi, toplulukçuluk ve yatay ve dikey bireyselcilik/ toplulukçuluk değişkenleri değerlendirilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, amir

değerlendiricilerin iş arkadaşları ve ast değerlendiricilerine kıyasla daha çok uzmanlığa sahip olarak algılandığını göstermektedir. Benzer şekilde katılımcılar amirden gelen geribildirimi iş arkadaşlarından gelen geribildirime kıyasla daha doğru olarak algılamışlardır. Geribildirim olumsuz olduğunda, katılımcılar iş arkadaşlarından gelenden ziyade astlardan ve amirden gelen geribildirimi daha doğru olarak algılamışlardır. Geribildirim olumlu olduğunda ise iş arkadaşlarından gelen geribildirime yönelik olan duygusal tepkiler astlardan gelenlerden daha olumlu olmuştur. Astlar olumsuz geribildirim sağladığında ve amir ve iş arkadaşları olumlu geribildirim sağladığında gözlemleyenlerin toplulukçuluk seviyeleri duygusal tepkiler üzerine pozitif yönde bir etki yapmıştır. Son olarak çalışma sonuçları tartışılmış ve çalışmanın katkıları ve sınırlılıkları sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Geribildirim Kaynağı, Geribildirim Yönü, Geribildirime Yönelik Tepkiler, Güç Mesafesi, Toplulukçuluk.

To my lovely parents ***İbrahim & Nur Solmazer***

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

In general, feedback refers to the information regarding employees' performance. Feedback is perceived as an information source, which is acquired from the information the job provides (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) and performance assessments (Pearce & Porter, 1986). Feedback has received extensive research attention (e.g., Balcazar, Hopkins, & Suarez, 1985; Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Krenn, Würth, & Hergovich, 2013). There are two lines of research in the feedback literature (Kinicki, Prussia, Wu, & McKee-Ryan, 2004). In the first line of research, people passively receive feedback (e.g., Ilgen et al., 1979), whereas, people seek feedback intentionally (e.g., Ashford & Cummings, 1983) in the second line of research (Kinicki et al., 2004). Furthermore, in the first line of research, source characteristics such as the power, credibility and status (e.g., Collins & Stukas, 2006; Fedor, Davis, Maslyn, & Mathieson, 2001; Kinicki et al., 2004; Stone, Gueutal, & McIntosh, 1984) and feedback characteristics such as the sign (e.g., Facteau, Facteau, Russell, & Poteet, 1998; Kinicki et al., 2004) have been examined in relation to responses to feedback. In the second line of studies, feedback seeking behaviors have been examined (e.g., Crommelinck & Anseel, 2013; De Luque, & Sommer, 2000; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000). The current study represents the first line of research by simultaneously investigating the effect of different status sources (e.g., supervisors, peers, subordinates) in the organizational hierarchy and the sign of feedback on feedback reactions using an experimental design. Additionally, the present study investigates the moderating effects of collectivism and power distance on the source-reactions association and sign-reactions association. In the literature, feedback provided for employees' or participants' own performance were investigated in relation to different variables such as feedback sign and source expertise. But, in the experimental study,

observers' reactions to feedback provided for an employee were assessed in relation to sign, source, and observers' cultural orientations. More specifically, the present study's focus is on the way observers perceive and react to different types of feedback (e.i, positive versus negative) from different feedback sources (a supervisor representing downward feedback, peers representing lateral feedback, subordinates representing upward feedback). Related to this, some studies investigated observers' perceptions regarding some organizational behaviors such as voice behavior (e.g., Whiting, Maynes, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2012). This study is expected to provide additional insights into understanding the potentially distinct reactions to feedback from different sources typically utilized in MSF.

In the following parts, I first review the literature on performance feedback and multi-source feedback (MSF) in terms of their content and importance followed by reactions to feedback and its relationship with the status of feedback and the sign of feedback. Finally, I discuss the possible moderating effects of collectivism and power distance on the source-reaction association by drawing on the literature on culture.

1.2. Performance Appraisal and Feedback

Performance appraisal refers to a management system in which an employee is assessed in terms of his or her performance quality within an organization (Grote, 2002). It involves the evaluation and improvement of employees with regard to their present performance and their improvement potential (Fletcher & Perry, 2001). The main aim of any performance assessment is to maximize the benefits obtained from employee skills, knowledge, and interests (Arthur, 2008). Members in organizations rate the employees' performance to inform them about their level of task performance. More specifically, Kluger and DeNisi (1996) defined feedback interventions as "actions taken by (an) external agent (s) to provide information regarding some aspect(s) of one's task performance" (p.255).

Within the Job Characteristics Model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1975) job feedback, which is one of the five core job dimensions, is defined as the degree to which a job provides information about one's level of performance. The importance

of performance feedback as a motivational force has been shown within the JCM framework in a meta-analysis by Fried and Ferris (1987), in which job feedback was found to be related to job satisfaction (p = .29) and internal work motivation (p = .29).

The effects of feedback on future performance levels are not so consistent in the literature. DeNisi and Kluger (2000) proposed that scholars generally suppose that feedback would lead to enhanced job performance, particularly as compared to the performance of individuals, who were not provided feedback. However, the results of Kluger and DeNisi (1996) indicated that feedback, which is widely used as an organizational intervention strategy, does not always lead to enhanced performance. More specifically, they showed that feedback enhanced performance by about .4 of a standard deviation but in more than one third of studies, feedback diminished the subsequent performance. Even though feedback may have a negative effect on performance in some cases, employees are provided with feedback by organizations in order to guide job behavior (Bell & Artur, 2008). As individuals receive information regarding their levels of job performance through feedback, they can shape their improvement plans and job performance (Tornow, 1993).

Performance assessments involving giving feedback are widely used in organizations. Traditionally, the process is based on assessments or ratings from a supervisor (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995, Waldman & Atwater, 2001). However, the use of non-traditional feedback sources has also increased (Brett & Atwater, 2001, Waldman & Atwater, 2001; Wohlers & London 1989) with the use of MSF systems.

Subordinate evaluations yield some advantages as discussed by Bernardin (1986). First of these is that subordinate assessments of their supervisors are considered a valid feedback source since subordinates have a better opportunity to observe some aspects of supervisory performance as compared to any other source. Secondly, multiple evaluations have higher validity potential than assessment of a single source since for some positions, only one supervisor is available, while there are several subordinates (Bernardin, 1986; Sümer & Bilgiç, 2006). Thirdly, Bernardin hypothesized that as long as the MSF is successfully implemented; including subordinates in the appraisal process is likely to increase their own

commitment, involvement, job satisfaction, and morale, since they would perceive to have a participative role in the organization's decision processes. In spite of the advantages, some supervisors could feel that their control and power is undermined when involving subordinates in performance evaluations (Atwater & Waldman, 1998; Bernardin, 1986; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). Subordinates might provide lenient ratings due to a fear of retaliation by the supervisor (Antonioni, 1994; Atwater, Brett, & Charles, 2007; McEvoy, 1990) and due to a desire to be liked or accepted by them (Bernardin, 1986). These propositions could be supported with the finding that there was a significant association between a desire to ratings to superiors and role appropriateness as well as a fear of retaliation. More specifically, employees as raters, who saw providing upward feedback as appropriate tended to participate in upward feedback process and to have a higher desire to provide ratings to superiors (Kudisch, Fortunato, & Smith, 2006; Westerman & Ross, 1997). Also, employees, who believed that providing low ratings would have negative effects on their own future job behavior tended to have lower degrees of desire to provide ratings to superiors (Kudisch, Fortunato, & Smith, 2006). Further, Antonioni (1994) yielded support for the argument that subordinates might give higher ratings to a supervisor since they fear the supervisor would retaliate against the person who provided the unfavorable ratings. In his study, participants, who were made accountable for their ratings (in the accountability assessment procedure) gave higher performance ratings than those, who provide performance ratings anonymously.

Just like subordinates, peer assessments reflect the average of ratings from multiple peers in contrast to supervisory assessment (Sümer & Bilgiç, 2006). Further, peers have the observational opportunity as well as the necessary knowledge in order to assess each other's job behavior accurately (Brutus, London, & Martineau, 1999). Despite this, there are some reported concerns regarding the use of peer evaluations, based on evaluating those at the same organizational level. First, peer evaluations could hint that organizational power structure is changing (Love, 1981; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). Second, peer assessments might be distorted by the friendship among the peers (London, 2003; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). According to Murphy and Cleveland (1995), it is possible that peers are not motivated to distinguish bad

performance from good performance although there was no empirical evidence of any range restriction on peer evaluations. Consistent with these concerns about upward and lateral assessments, employees have been reported to be reluctant in returning the evaluation of their peers or superiors, which could influence the effectiveness of the system (Kudisch, Fortunato, & Smith, 2006; Westerman & Ross, 1997). Hence, it could be said that employees, who participate in lateral and upward assessments could not provide accurate ratings and these shortcomings of upward and lateral assessments could affect the reactions to ratings coming from subordinates and peers.

Despite concerns related to including non-traditional sources in the appraisal system, many organizations implement the MSF in which multiple sources (etc. subordinates, peers, and subordinates) provide feedback (Atwater & Waldman, 1998; Atwater & Brett, 2006; Nowack & Mashihi, 2012, Tornow, 1993).

1.2.1. Multi-Source Performance Appraisal and the Feedback Process

Multi-source feedback (also multi-rater feedback, 360-degree feedback and full circle feedback) refers to the process by which multiple sources give ratings for one assessment of performance. Subordinates, peers, supervisor, customers, and the self can be used as sources of feedback in this process. Traditional performance assessments are advanced by MSF by collecting information from these various sources (London & Smither, 1995).

1.2.1.1. Benefits of MSF Process

The main goal of MSF is to enhance self-awareness of individuals, based on the different viewpoints of the various sources (Sümer, 2007; Tornow, 1993, Ostroff, Atwater, & Feinberg, 2004). Feedback from different sources yields different perspectives on various dimensions of one's performance (London & Smither, 1995). As a result, MSF provides ratees with considerably more information to put together (London & Smither, 1995). Thus, they are more likely to be aware of their own strengths and weaknesses (Adams, 1999). Additionally, employees perceive MSF to be fairer over traditional supervisor assessments (Flectcher & Perry, 2001).

Among organizational benefits MSF enhances employee participation in organizational activities and conversation among employees through providing and receiving feedback (Adams, 1999). Cawley, Keeping, and Levy (1998) meta-analytically reviewed literature in order to examine the association between employee participation in performance assessment and reactions. They found that participation performance assessment was positively associated with different types of reactions, namely, satisfaction with the assessment session and the system, perceived utility and fairness of the assessment, and motivation regarding performance improvement. Locke and Latham (1990) proposed that feedback gives a message to employees about the desired organizational behaviors (as cited in Dominick, 1998), which was supported in a study by Dominick, Reilly, and McGourty (1997). In the laboratory study of Dominick et al. (1997), one group of participants received feedback reports indicating average rating from peers and themselves, another group of participants did not receive feedback but were exposed to desired behaviors by rating behavioral observation scale, and the control group of participants did not receive exposure or feedback. Both participant groups that received peer feedback and were exposed to the desired behaviors had higher subsequent performance ratings by experts who were blind to the experimental conditions than participants in the control group. That is, the effect of exposure to desired behaviors on performance was important. Similarly, results of Reilly, Smither, and Vasilopous's study (1996) suggested that feedback could be seen as a tool, which provides information about desired and valued job behavior. These valued and desired behaviors refer to the specific behaviors being evaluated in the appraisal and feedback process. Therefore, MSF process helps employees in terms of understanding the desired job behaviors from different points of view and thus employees could adjust their behavior accordingly. Despite the fact that the MSF system is generally used for supervisors, several firms use it for non-managerial positions (Aamodt, 2013, Adams, 1999). Furthermore, the information collected from MSF systems are used for both administrative and developmental purposes (Borman, 1997; Nowack & Mashihi, 2012).

1.2.1.2. Effectiveness of MSF

Many studies investigated the psychometric properties of ratings from various feedback sources used in MSF processes. Specifically, studies examined rating biases (Antonioni & Park, 2001; Ng et al., 2011) and rating-source agreement (Atkins & Wood, 2002; Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009; Yammarino & Atwater, 1993). Several studies showed that rating scales have measurement equivalence across sources (see Facteau & Craig, 2001; Maurer, Rauji, & Collins, 1998) enabling comparisons of ratings provided by various sources. Findings of a meta-analyses by Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) showed that the association between manager and peer ratings (p = .62) was moderately strong; whereas the associations between manager and self-ratings (p = .35) and between peer and self-ratings (p = .36) were modest. That is, research on rating-source agreement indicated that the agreement between peers and supervisors was more than the agreement between self-ratings and managers or peers. A study with a Turkish sample by Sümer and Bilgiç (2006) showed that the correlations of peer evaluations with supervisor and self-evaluations were .31 and .30, respectively and the correlations of supervisor evaluations with subordinate and self-evaluations were .26 and .17, respectively. Further, the correlations of subordinate evaluations with self and peer evaluations were .17 and .05, respectively. Similar correlations were obtained by the study of Conway and Huffcutt (1997) except for the correlation between peer and subordinates. Studies examining ratings from multiple sources indicated that ratings from four sources (self, supervisor, peer, and subordinate) are needed to have detailed information about an employee's job performance (Wohler & London, 1989). The low correlations reported above, especially between the self, subordinate, and supervisor evaluations, imply that each source is introducing either a different perspective of the ratee's job performance or a different motive in providing evaluations.

Sümer and Bilgiç (2006) indicated that the psychometric properties of peer ratings were not so good. Examination of descriptive statistics of peer ratings showed that correlations among some peers were high and positive, whereas correlations among other peers were negative. According to authors, this indicates that factors

other than an employee's performance per se, perhaps in-group and out-group workplace dynamics, could have contaminated the peer ratings.

Due to discrepancies across feedback sources several researchers raised a number of questions regarding the effectiveness of MSF processes. Firstly, some organizations aggregate ratings coming from different sources. This obscures discrepant viewpoints of performance which jeopardizes feedback effectiveness (Fletcher & Perry, 2001). Therefore, it is important that the feedback from each source is presented to the employee individually when MSF is used. When employees know about the specific sources of feedback, however, employees can react differently to the various sources, in which the position holders differ from each other in terms of status (Collins & Stukas, 2006; Halperin, Snyder, Shenkel, & Houston, 1976). In addition, attitudes toward the performance appraisal and initial reactions to feedback could influence its effectiveness (Bernardin, Dahmus, & Redmon, 1993; Ilgen et al., 1979; Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005). Therefore, it seems especially important to examine the effect of reactions to different rating sources (i.e., peers, subordinates, superiors) in MSF.

Finally, the effectiveness of MSF systems has been shown to depend on the culture. Shipper, Hoffman, and Rotonto (2007) investigated MSF effectiveness across five countries differing in terms of their cultural values. They concluded that organizations characterized by low power distance and individualism could utilize the MSF process better than those characterized by high power distance and collectivisim. However, despite the fact that there are some concerns about the use of peer and subordinate assessments in specific cultures, just a few empirical studies (e.g., Ng et al., 2011) investigated the effectiveness of feedback sources in relation to cultural orientations. Ng et al. (2011) found that there was an interactive effect of feedback source (supervisor, peers, and subordinates) and cultural orientations (power distance and collectivism) on rating biases such as leniency and halo. Thus, it might be very useful for organizations to investigate the effect of cultural value orientations on the reaction-source association.

To sum up, in the present study I examined whether or not the feedback from different sources (i.e. a supervisor representing downward feedback, peers

representing lateral feedback, and subordinates representing upward feedback) were perceived differently in terms of perceived accuracy and usefulness of feedback, and affective reactions. Even though the main goal of MSF is typically to enhance the self-awareness of employees, in the current experimental study, the reactions of observers to ratings provided by a specific source were examined. More specifically, the present study' focus is on the way observers perceive and react to the feedback from different feedback sources. Related to this, some studies investigated observers' perceptions regarding some organizational behaviors such as voice behavior (e.g., Whiting et al., 2012). This is expected to provide additional insights into understanding the potentially distinct reactions to feedback from different sources typically utilized in MSF. I also investigated the moderating effects of observers' power distance and collectivism on the source-reaction association. Some prior studies documented the moderating effect of cultural orientations on rating biases or MSF system effectiveness. In the present study I seeked to identify the moderation effect on the reactions to feedback. Below I present the empirical literature on feedback reactions.

1.3. Reactions to Feedback

Ilgen et al. (1979) proposed a comprehensive model for the receiver's responses to feedback in order to explain feedback reactions. The model suggested that employees' processing of feedback includes four stages. According to the model, the stages were perception of feedback, acceptance of feedback, desire to respond to feedback, and an intended response to feedback. In the model, the acceptance of feedback, which refers to the degree to which an employee believes feedback to be an accurate representation of his or her performance, is a critical variable (Ilgen et al., 1979). The importance of feedback acceptance stems from its effect on desire to respond to the feedback, intended respond to feedback, and finally actual response to feedback. In other words, the acceptance of feedback mediates the influence of the feedback message on the employees' response to feedback. That is, providing feedback could only improve performance if people accept the feedback.

Kinicki et al.'s (2004) longitudinal study using Ilgen et al.'s stages of feedback processing, examined whether there were mediating roles of stages of feedback processing that are sequentially linked to each other, on responses to feedback. Their results showed that cognitive stages (perceived accuracy, desire to respond, and intentions to respond) served as mediators between the feedback and the responses to feedback. Taken together, the cognitive reactions to the feedback could be seen as antecedents of performance improvement.

When these are taken as a whole, employee reactions and attitudes toward performance appraisal and feedback are antecedents of their effectiveness. Studies showed that reactions to feedback could be categorized. For example, Shrauger (1975) suggested that feedback receivers showed both affective reactions (e.g., satisfaction, mood) and cognitive reactions (e.g., acceptance of feedback). Similarly, in a study by Adams (1999), employee reactions were conceptualized in three categories namely, affective reactions (i.e. satisfaction with the process), cognitive reactions (i.e. acceptance of feedback), and behavioral reactions (i.e. intentions to enhance one's work).

Due to its theoretical importance, considerable research attention has been directed towards reactions to feedback (e.g., Anseel & Lievens, 2006; Brett & Atwater, 2001; Facteau et al., 1998; Ryan, Brutus, Greguras, & Hakel, 2000). The general findings of Anseel and Lievens (2006) were that individuals appear to be displeased following negative feedback and therefore have a tendency to ignore negative feedback. Therefore, continuing research on reactions to feedback is needed (Anseel, & Lievens, 2006; Ryan et al., 2000).

In the present study reactions to ratings from different sources were examined. Specifically, I focused on both cognitive and affective reactions. Cognitive reactions to feedback are conceptualized as perceived accuracy and usefulness, which in the framework of Ilgen et al. (1979) refer to acceptance of feedback and desire to respond, respectively (Brett & Atwater, 2001). Affective reactions include elements such as being angry, pleased, and disappointed.

1.3.1. Factors Associated with Reactions to Feedback

The persuasion literature, which is expected to be related to reactions to feedback, shows five characteristics related to source, channel, message, receiver and target, which have strong effect on persuasion (McGuire, 1985). In the present study, three of these five characteristics, namely source, message, and receiver, were examined in relation to feedback reactions. In the study, the status of the source (a supervisor representing downward feedback, peers representing lateral feedback, and subordinates representing upward feedback) is identified as the source variable, the sign of feedback (i.e., positive versus negative feedback) is identified as the message characteristics, and the individual-level cultural orientations (i.e., power distance and collectivism) are identified as the receiver/perceiver variables. In this experimental study, cultural orientations of observers instead of receivers were used as the perceiver variables.

1.3.1.1. Source Characteristics

Performance assessment and feedback could be seen as a communication process in which the source of feedback is an important element due to the effect of response to feedback (Collins & Stakus, 2006; Fedor et al., 2001; Ilgen et al., 1979; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995; Sümer, 2007). In the process, the feedback providers (source of feedback) send the message to feedback receivers (Ilgen et al., 1979). Ilgen et al. (1979) suggested that there was an effect of feedback source on performance improvement since in many cases it has an important effect on the extent to which receivers react to their feedback favorably. Previous studies showed that some characteristics of source are critical for reactions to feedback.

Sources differ from each other in terms of credibility. Credibility includes two elements. First, receivers see the source as credible if they perceive the source as having the expertise needed to assess their job performance accurately. Secondly, for credibility, the source should be seen trustworthy (Ilgen et al., 1979). As the degree of perceived credibility increases, ceteris paribus, the more likely it is that feedback received is considered an accurate presentation of performance (Ilgen, et al., 1979; Kinicki et al., 2004). In addition, in the social psychology literature, research on

persuasion indicated that there was the influence of source credibility on persuasion. Specifically, people accept a message coming from highly credible sources more than a message from sources with low credibility (e.g., Horai, Naccari, & Fatoullah, 1974; Ross, 1973).

There are numerous studies on the effect of feedback source in relation to reactions to performance feedback. For example, Halperin et al. (1976) provided participants with personality feedback that supposedly came from one of three sources who differed from each other in terms of their expertise (i.e., a PhD clinical psychologist who was the editor of a journal and mental health service's director, a graduate student with one-year experience, or an undergraduate with a mental health technician degree at a junior college). They found that personality feedback coming from the low-status source was accepted less than the feedback from either the middle-or high-status sources. Similarly, Collins and Stukas (2006) examined the effect of feedback source (high/low status therapist via description of professional and educational successes and clinical experience) on acceptance of interpersonal feedback within a sample of 373 Australian students. They found that the high-status therapist was seen as a more competent therapist and feedback coming from the high-status therapist was accepted more than that obtained from the low-status therapist. Stone et al. (1984) found that as the degree of perceived expertise increased, the feedback was perceived as more accurate.

Gosselin, Werner, and Halle (1997) examined ratee preferences on performance assessment within a sample of 265 employees. They found that employees saw superiors as the most trusted source for performance assessment and they want to be assessed by them. The most preferred and trusted source was self-assessment, followed by peers, upper management, subordinates, and human resource professionals, respectively.

Feedback sources also differ from each other in terms of their power (Ilgen et al, 1979). Ilgen et al. (1979) suggested that the perceived power of source could affect responses to feedback. A study by Fedor et al. (2001) examined how source power and receiver's self-esteem influence the response to negative feedback within a sample of 116 participants from two organizations. Their results showed that

supervisors' expert power and referent power were positively associated with receivers' efforts to enhance their performance after negative feedback. The result is supported by the studies examining source credibility. Furthermore, Copeland (1994) found that the behaviors of individuals were compatible with a bogus expectation from the partners they interacted with when the partners were presented to have higher social power than themselves.

Status of employees in the organizational hierarchy might affect reactions to feedback. Brett and West (2001) discussed that employees might give more importance to feedback from one of three sources and their expectations about what type of performance ratings they will receive might depend on the source of feedback. They also discussed that employees might value the ratings from a superior more than other sources since a supervisor is resourceful and has formal power over the receiver. They proposed that employees might consider peer assessments less accurate and worthless. The authors argued that some employees might also anticipate receiving more favorable ratings from their peers as compared to other rating sources due to having non-work and informal contacts with them. Similarly, Greller and Herold (1975) examined five feedback sources (the organization, the supervisor, peers, the task, and the self) in terms of how informative they were regarding specifying the requirements of the job (referent) and the degree of meeting job requirements (feedback). Their results showed that individuals viewed supervisors as a more important source than peers in terms of being a referent and proving feedback.

Research that examined peer assessments indicated some practitioners are reluctant to use it (Mcevoy & Buller, 1987). Involving peer assessments in MSF might be constrained by such a resistance to it. Most studies examining peer evaluations showed relatively more negative reactions to it (Cederblom & Lounsbury, 1980; Love 1981; Sümer & Bilgiç, 2006). Cederblom and Lounsbury (1980) found that a sample of faculty members reacted unfavorably to peer assessments in terms of preferences for continuation of peer assessment and the ranking of peer assessment relative to other assessments such as students, department chairperson, and personnel committee. Majority of faculty members stated that peer

assessments did not represent their performance accurately and were not useful. Majority also stated that friendship ruined peer ratings. They also showed that perceived friendship bias (degree to which individuals think friendship and popularity ruin peer assessment's accuracy) was negatively associated with user acceptance of feedback, whereas perceived peer feedback value (degree to which individuals see peer ratings as useful feedback about their strengths and weaknesses) was positively associated with it. These two variables made a significant and unique contribution to user acceptance. Further, they indicated that perceived validity (degree to which individuals believe that peer assessments represent their own performance, accurately) and perceived effects on morale of peer assessments (degree to which individuals believe that peer assessments have influence on morale of faculty members) and satisfaction with previous peer assessments were positively associated with acceptance of users although they were not uniquely associated with it. Similarly, Love (1981) found that user reactions to three peer assessment methods (peer nominations, peer rankings, and peer ratings) were negative in a study of 145 police officers. The police officers did not perceive peer evaluations as fair or accurate, nor did they like it. They also considered that peer assessments should not be used for administrative purposes. In a study of 218 industrial employees (Mcevoy & Buller, 1987) it was found that employees appeared cautious in their acceptance of peer assessment. They also indicated that users of peer assessments were in favor of the use of peer assessments for developmental purposes rather than their evaluative use.

Related to these, Sümer and Bilgiç (2006) showed that peer was one of the most lenient source and users were more cautious regarding the inclusion of peer assessments in the Turkish context. According to the authors, despite the fact that participants did not show negative reactions for the use of peer assessments, they thought that adding peer assessment to the MSF system could have negative effects on relationships in the organizational environment. Their results also showed that reactions to subordinate evaluations were more favorable than those to peer evaluations, especially if the ratings were provided anonymously.

Consistent with the above results, feedback from different sources could affect perceived accuracy and usefulness of feedback, and affective reactions. A study by Brett and West (2001) investigated the effect of ratings from MSF and self-other rating discrepancies on reactions to feedback (positive versus negative), perceived accuracy and usefulness of feedback, and receptivity of receivers to improvement within a sample of 125 students. Although the main aim of their study was not to examine the effects of source, their results showed that the favorable ratings from superiors and direct reports (i.e., subordinates) were perceived as more accurate. Yet, the authors did not find similar results for peer ratings. Their results indicated that favorable ratings were not positively associated with positive reactions, regardless of the source (superiors, peers, and direct reports) whereas unfavorable ratings from a superior and peers were negatively associated with negative reactions. Participants, in contrast, did not react unfavorably to lower ratings from subordinates. The authors suggested the need to conduct more research examining the value of feedback from different sources.

Facteau et al. (1998) found that the ability of raters in providing ratings and organizational support had an influence on perceived usefulness when the feedback came from subordinates whereas they did not have any effect on usefulness when the feedback came from peers. In other words, when employees believed that subordinates had the ability to assess their performance, they reacted more favorably to feedback from subordinates. But, this effect was not observed for peer assessments. These results suggested that employees react differently to peer and subordinate assessments.

Bernardin et al. (1993) investigated the attitudes about subordinate assessments. They compared three groups of employees. In the first group, employees were provided with feedback from both their supervisor and subordinates, whereas in the second group, employees were provided with feedback only from their supervisor. In the third group, employees were provided with feedback from subordinates, only. Results showed that employees' attitudes toward subordinate assessments were favorable independent of the three groups. It could be said that they generally saw the subordinate assessment as useful and accurate. McEvoy

(1990) examined the user acceptance of subordinate assessment. He showed that users showed high degrees of acceptance when subordinates assessment used for developmental purposes rather than administrative uses.

In contrast, Waldman and Atwater (2001) investigated some variables such as perceived usefulness of upward feedback process and incorporating information from subordinates into formal assessment system. Their results showed that contrary to expectations, supervisors who received more favorable ratings from subordinates did not show any tendency to incorporate subordinate ratings into the formal assessment system. They also showed that there was no significant association between subordinate ratings and perceived usefulness of upward feedback.

Taken together, some features of sources (e.g., power, status, and credibility) affect perceived feedback. In the present study, source features, such as expertise, were not manipulated, but the status of source in the organizational hierarchy (e.g., superior, peers, and subordinates) was manipulated. However, I expected that the status of source would be somewhat related to perceived expertise. Status was expected to influence perceived accuracy, perceived usefulness of feedback, and affective reactions.

The reviewed literature suggested that there were different reactions to feedback from different feedback sources and thus there was the need to conduct more research examining the value of feedback from different sources. The reviewed literature also suggested the existence of relatively less favorable attitudes toward feedback coming from one's peers. In the present study it is expected that observers are more likely to perceive the feedback coming from supervisors (i.e., high-status individual's assessment) as more accurate and useful than feedback coming from peers or subordinates due to their perceived expertise. Further, it is expected that observers would be more likely to react to feedback from a supervisor more positively than feedback from other sources (peers and subordinates).

1.3.1.2. Sign of Feedback

Feedback sign is the most critical message characteristic that affects reactions to feedback (llgen et al., 1979) and therefore has received considerable research

attention (e.g. Anseel & Lievens, 2006; Brett & Atwater; Facteau et al., 1998; Stone et al., 1984). For example, Facteau et al. (1998) investigated some variables associated with reactions to MSF (for the feedback from peers and subordinates) within a sample of 220 managers. Their results showed that peer and subordinate ratings were significantly and positively associated with feedback acceptance. Similarly, Adams (1999) showed that manager ratings, direct report ratings, and peer ratings were significantly and positively associated with acceptance of feedback. That is, as ratings got more favorable, acceptance increased as well. Accordingly, many studies showed that feedback receivers tended to react to positive feedback more favorably than to negative feedback (Anseel & Lievens, 2006; Halperin et al., 1976). Positive feedback was also associated with favorable affective reactions (e.g., satisfaction and desirability) (Dipboye & de Pontbriand, 1981; Morran & Stockton, 1980). Taken together, positive feedback is more likely to receive more favorable reactions than negative feedback.

Despite this conclusion, that is, positive feedback is generally related to more favorable reactions such as acceptance and affective reactions than negative feedback, Brett and Atwater (2001) showed that more favorable ratings from peers were not viewed as more accurate, whereas more favorable ratings from superiors and subordinates were viewed as more accurate. In contrast, their results indicated that unfavorable ratings from superiors and peers were significantly associated with negative reactions, while unfavorable subordinate ratings were not related to negative reactions. Furthermore, Waldman and Atwater (2001) found that supervisors, who received favorable ratings from their subordinates in terms of leadership competency, did not show any tendency to incorporate subordinate ratings to their formal assessment system. They showed that there was no significant association between subordinate ratings and perceived usefulness of upward feedback. The results contradict the general findings concerning formal performance appraisal systems since in the formal performance appraisal, as favorability of ratings increases, reactions to feedback are likely to be more favorable.

People sometimes receive negative and/or self-inconsistent feedback. When receiving so, they evaluate the credibility of feedback. Credibility is appraised from

several aspects, one of which is the characteristics of feedback source (Ilgen, et al, 1979; Sargeant, Mann, Sinclair, Vleuten & Metsemakers, 2007). This argument is consistent with the results of Halperin et al.'s study (1976). Specifically, they found that there was a greater discrepancy in the feedback acceptance for the positive and negative worded feedback from the low-status source in comparison to the moderate- or high-status sources. That is, status of source had a more important role in accepting negative feedback than positive feedback. Similarly, Steelman and Rutkowski (2004) found that participants were more willing to use negative feedback coming from a credible feedback source. Collins and Stukas (2006) found that although self-consistent feedback were more likely to be accepted rather than self-inconsistent, self-inconsistent feedback from a high-status therapist was more likely to be accepted rather than that obtained from a low-status therapist.

Taken altogether, there is empirical evidence suggesting that positive feedback coming from any source is more likely to be related to favorable reactions than negative feedback. However, there are some contrary findings as well especially when feedback is coming from subordinates and peers. Furthermore, reactions to unfavorable feedback are expected to be moderated by the source of feedback because the credibility of appraisal is assessed by the source of feedback. Thus, both favorable and unfavorable ratings from superiors might be viewed as more accurate and useful, and be related to more positive affective reactions than feedback from other sources (subordinates and peers) by observers.

1.3.1.3. Cultural-Orientations as Potential Moderators of the Feedback Source-Reaction Associations

Bailey, Chen, and Dou (1997) proposed that "culture affects individual desire for, behavior toward and perception of performance feedback" (p. 619). For instance, in two nations with high power distance and collectivism subordinates were found to give higher performance ratings than other sources (Veralla & Premeaux, 2008). How feedback receivers respond given feedback might also depend on culture (Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009). Nevertheless, as identified by Pornpitakpan (2004) in his review on five decades of research yielding evidence for

the effects of source credibility on persuasion, research on the effects of cultural differences on the importance of source credibility has been lacking, and future research needs to focus on the interaction between cultural differences and sources credibility on persuasion. Yoshimura (2010) also emphasized the need for looking into the effects of such interactions on reactions to feedback. Thus, in the current study, I examined the moderating effect of culture on the source-reaction and source-sign associations which is believed to be a potential contribution to the feedback literature.

Culture has been defined as "shared beliefs about desirable end states or modes of conduct in a given culture" (Colquit, LePine, & Wesson, 2009, p. 295) and as "collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 9). In the present study, I examined culture at the individual level instead of a national level or society level culture, as higher levels do not take account of the within-culture variance.

Hofstede (2001) suggested a framework, widely used in the psychological literature, for understanding the cultural differences across nations. The data which support this framework are based on an international employee attitude survey from more than 116,000 individuals from 72 countries. The framework includes five dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity, and long-term orientation, which was added later on to the framework. This framework is adopted to study individual-level cultural orientations in the present study. Specifically, I focused on two cultural values: power distance and collectivism, as Shipper et al. (2007) concluded that the effectiveness of MSF were greatest in cultures characterized by values of low power distance and individualism.

Hofstede (2001) proposed that power distance and individualism/collectivism cultural values are concepts that separate individuals across national cultures by ignoring within-culture variation. However, some research suggested that there were within-society heterogeneity on these cultural values (Au, 1999; Green, Deschamps & Paez, 2005; Kirkman, Lowe & Gibson, 2006). Several researchers have studied cultural orientations at the individual-level (e.g., Keleş & Aycan, 2011; Maznevski, Gomez, DiStefano, Noorderhaven, & Wu, 2002; Ng et al., 2011, Triandis, Leung,

Villareal, & Clack, 1985; Yoshimura, 2010). It is worthwhile investigating power distance and collectivism cultural values as individual differences constructs which are expected to affect participants' reactions to feedback in the MSF context because there were within-society variations on these values.

1.3.1.3.1. Individualism-Collectivism

Individualism-collectivism is related to the level of integration of people into a group (Hofstede, 2001). It represents the degree to which the individuals' identity is formed primarily by their individualistic choices or by the groups they belong to (Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). In an individualistic culture, individuals have independent self-concept (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) and their behaviors are compatible with their own benefits, beliefs, and values (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). People in individualistic societies place task and organizational goals ahead of harmonious interpersonal interactions (Hosftede, 2001). Also, according to Flectcher and Perry, in such cultures, freedom of individual choice and personal initiative are stressed and contact between superior and subordinate is viewed as a professional relation. On the other hand, in a collectivistic culture, individuals have an interdependent self-concept (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) and their behaviors are in accord with social norms and the benefits of the group (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). In addition, such cultures stress harmonious relationships among group members (Millman, Taylor, & Czaplewski, 2002; Ng et al., 2011).

Collectivists are more interested in how their interactions are influenced by their behaviors. Thus they may view negative feedback as a threat to group harmony and perceptions of loyalty (Millman et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2011). Therefore, collectivists are more likely to avoid providing negative feedback. Further, they could react more unfavorably to negative feedback since they could perceive negative feedback as a potential threat to group harmony and they believe that employees, who receive negative feedback, could lose face (Atwater et al., 2009; Ho, 1976; Millman et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2011). The argument is supported by the results of Earley's (1986) study. Employees in the USA, who have lower scores on collectivism, responded favorably to both positive and negative feedback, whereas,

employees in England, who are relatively higher on collectivism, responded favorably to positive feedback rather than negative feedback. Seddon (1987) pointed out that individuals in Malaysia, a collectivistic context, have a tendency to avoid unfavorable feedback (as cited in Flectcher & Perry, 2001)

To sum up, individualism/collectivism affects the performance appraisal process. Specifically, it influences the reactions to the types of feedback. Thus, the dimension is expected to moderate the sign-reaction associations since collectivist employees could be unwilling to provide negative performance assessments due to the possibility of losing face and the potential threat to group harmony and perception of loyalty (Atwater et al., 2009; Ho, 1976; Millman et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2011) and thus negative assessments could be evaluated negatively in such cultures. Individualism/collectivism might also affect reactions to the source providing the performance feedback (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). Individuals in collectivist societies have a tendency for being authoritarian and reacting more favorably to authoritarian leadership than individuals in individualist cultures (Earley & Gibson, 1998; Kennis, 1977). Hence it seems reasonable to expect individuals with a collectivistic orientation to be more likely to anticipate and prefer performance feedback from their superiors (Flectcher & Perry, 2001).

1.3.1.3.2. Power Distance

Power distance is associated with human inequality. In other words, it corresponds to the extent to which subordinates and superiors are unequal in terms of power. More specifically, it represents how the subordinate perceives the power between a superior and a subordinate (Hofstede, 2001). According to Ng et al. (2011), this concept refers to the degree to which people acknowledge hierarchy and unequally distributed power. In societies with high power distance, respect for people with authority and power is more than in societies with low power distance (Hofstede, 2001; Millman et al., 2002). In addition, individuals with high power distance easily acknowledge stratification and unequally distributed power (Millman et al., 2002) and abide by the organizational hierarchy and centralized decision structure (Hofstede, 2001). Therefore, they are more aware of status distinctions and

how these distinctions are represented by their behaviors (Ng et al., 2011). Employees are scared of stating opinions that contradict those of their supervisors (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). They are not open to the information coming from non-superiors (Hofstede, 2001). Societies characterized by high power distance stress the use of top-down management strategies. That is, participation of subordinates in the decision making process is low and subordinates are generally ignored (Millman et al., 2002; Mittal & Saran, 2010). Furthermore, supervisors are apt to use autocratic or paternalistic management strategies and subordinates with high power distance prefer to be dictated what they need to do in work (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). Thus, these management styles result in satisfaction and effectiveness (Hofstede, 2001).

In contrast, individuals with low power distance have a tendency to give importance to equal participation in the decision process by ignoring distinctions stemming from position or status (Millman et al., 2002). Furthermore, employees from low power distance societies have a tendency for emphasizing similarity between supervisors and themselves (Millman et al., 2002). Also, in societies with low power distance employees are open for information even when it comes from non-superiors in such cultures (Hofstede, 2001). The dependence of employers on their superiors is relatively weak and they are easier to disagree with their supervisors. In addition, supervisors tend to use participative and consultative management styles (Flectcher & Perry, 2001) and these management styles result in satisfaction and effectiveness (Hofstede, 2001).

Power distance cultural values are generally seen in vertical associations such as supervisor-subordinate relationships in the work context (Varela & Premeaux, 2008). Power distance might affect the source providing the performance feedback in the organization. In high power distance cultures, employees could be anticipated to be assessed by an employee with relatively more power (e.g., the supervisor) (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). Furthermore, the fact that a supervisor is being assessed by a subordinate might be less acceptable due to the perception that the supervisor and subordinate are unequal (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). This is supported by the results of Shipper et al. (2007) which showed that MSF process is more effective in low power distance and individualistic societies.

Milliman et al. (1998) suggested that subordinates from low power distance cultures might have a tendency to openly convey their opinions during the performance appraisal process. They also proposed that subordinates from low power distance cultures would be more likely to have the responsibility to enhance their performance after performance evaluation (as cited in Yoshimura, 2010). Davis (1998) suggested that power distance might influence raters' choice. That is, in high power distance cultures, it might not be suitable to use subordinates as raters. However, there are no studies testing these claims (as cited in Yoshimura, 2010). Yoshimura (2010) suggested that power distance value orientations might affect reactions of leaders to feedback. Specifically, she proposed that employees within high power distance cultures might show high degrees of acceptance when feedback comes from a superior, whereas they might indicate low degrees of acceptance when feedback comes from subordinates.

Some studies have also simultaneously examined both the power distance and individualism/collectivism. Shipper et al. (2007) examined the effect of MSF processes in terms of learning outputs on the basis of Kirkpatrick's (1979) criteria by looking at the differences in criteria across pre and post feedback. They tested for differences in reactions evaluated by shift in employees' attitudes (commitment, morale, and tension), cognition (self-awareness), behavior (skill use), and outcomes (rated effectiveness) in MSF across cultures including five countries, namely Ireland, Israel, Malaysia, the Philippines, and the USA. These countries differed in terms of individualism/collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity. In terms of individualism/collectivism and power distance, the authors identified Malaysia as the most traditional country and Ireland as the most liberal country within the five countries they included. They found that individuals from Malaysia showed decline in commitment and morale as well as increase in tension (decreased reactions), whereas those from Ireland reported increase in commitment and morale in addition to decrease in tension (increased reaction) after providing MSF. Their results showed that participants in Malaysia reported decrease in all types of reactions (reactions, skill use, self-awareness, and effectiveness ratings by subordinates). However, participants in Ireland indicated increase in all types of

reactions. Hence, power distance and individualism appear to play a role in differences between Malaysia and Ireland since they were characterized by opposite ends on these cultural orientations within their sample. Thus, they showed that organizations characterized by low power distance and individualism could utilize the MSF process better than those characterized by high power distance and collectivism.

In contrast, Nash (2005) examined the differences in the affective responses of employees (respondents' initial levels of commitment to MSF, morale/self-confidence when asked to participate, and anxiety/tension about participating in the MSF) from cultures with different levels of power distance (low, moderately low, moderately high, and high) to participate in MSF. Their results showed that employees from cultures with different levels of power distance did not significantly differ from each other in terms of affective responses.

Varela and Premeaux (2008) examined the influence of cultural orientations on MSF. These authors indicated that assessments in MSF are ruined by cultural values. Specifically, they showed that in two Latin American countries (i.e., Venezuela and Colombia), characterized by high power distance and collectivism, peers had lowest mean deviation calculated by using mean of source feedback across sources, participants stressed people-oriented behaviors by giving highest ratings in self- evaluations and subordinates were the source that yielded the highest assessments among sources of feedback (supervisors, peers, self, and subordinates).

Social psychology research found moderator effects of national level culture on source expertise-persuasion association. Pornpitakpan and Francis (2001) examined whether cultural-level power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism/collectivism influenced the importance of source expertise and strength of argument in persuasion. The results showed that the effect of source expertise on persuasion was higher in Thailand, which scores higher on collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance, than in Canada which scores lower on these dimensions.

Entrekin and Chung (2001) investigated reactions of Hong Kong Chinese supervisors in Chinese firms, and Hong Kong Chinese supervisors as well as

American supervisors in American firms to supervisory, peer, and subordinate assessments. They showed that Hong Kong Chinese supervisors in the Chinese firms, on the one hand, who are typically higher on power distance and lower on individualism and uncertainty avoidance, had more concerns about the use of peer and subordinate assessments than American supervisors in the US firms. They saw peer assessments as relatively more accurate and fair and approved of their use compared to subordinate assessments. On the other hand, both American managers and Hong Kong Chinese supervisors in the US firms saw subordinate assessments as relatively more accurate and fair and approved of their use as compared to peer assessments. Thus, high power distance and collectivism could be related to more favorable reactions to downward feedback (i.e. from superiors) rather than upward (i.e. from subordinates) and lateral feedback (i.e. from peers).

In addition to research examining the effects of national level cultural values, there were several studies examining the effects of cultural values at the individual-level on feedback processes. For instance, Ng et al. (2011) examined whether there was a moderating effect of power distance and individualism-collectivism orientations of raters on source-rating biases (leniency and halo) associations. They found that subordinates displayed the most rating biases (leniency and halo). Peers were more lenient than supervisors, while there was no significant difference between peers and supervisors in terms of halo. Individual level power distance moderated the associations between rater source and rating biases. Specifically, there was significantly greater influence of raters' power distance on rating biases for subordinate ratings rather than for peer and supervisor ratings. There was also significantly greater influence of raters' collectivism on rating biases for subordinate ratings rather than for supervisor ratings. Further, there was significantly greater influence of raters' collectivism on leniency for peer ratings rather than supervisor ratings. More specifically, the authors stated that ratings from non-traditional feedback sources are more open to rating biases such as halo and leniency and MSF could be less effective in societies with high power distance and collectivism.

A study by Bond, Wan, Leung, and Giacolone (1985) proposed that power distance and individualism/collectivism might affect reactions to negative feedback

from high-status feedback source. Specifically, they examined responses of Hon Kong Chinese characterized by high power distance and collectivism and Americans characterized by moderately low power distance and individualism to insults on the basis of status of insulter and group membership of insulter. They found that the effect of status of insulter within group on responses to insult were greater in cultures with high power distance and collectivism. They reacted more favorably to insult from a high-status individual within the group. These findings suggest that individuals with collectivist and high power distance are anticipated to react less unfavorably or/and accept more the negative feedback coming from superior. Although they examined only reactions to insults, it seems plausible to expect similar effects for positive feedback.

Taken together, individual level cultural orientations, namely power distance and collectivism are expected to affect whether feedback from different sources is perceived as accurate and useful and related to affective reactions. More specifically, I expect that as the levels of collectivism and power distance increase, reactions to feedback become favorable when it comes from a supervisor than from peers and subordinates since individuals with a collectivistic and a high power distance orientation might be more likely to anticipate and prefer performance feedback from their superiors (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). Also, collectivism value orientation could potentially have an influence on the sign-reaction association because employees could be unwilling to provide negative performance assessment due to a fear of losing face in collectivist cultures (Ho, 1976; Milliman et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2011) and thus negative assessment could be assessed negatively in such cultures. That is, as levels of collectivism decrease, negative feedback would result in favorable reactions, whereas the effect of collectivism on reactions is not expected for positive feedback.

1.3.1.3.3. Vertical and Horizontal Individualism-Collectivism

Triandis (1996) has discussed that the individualism-collectivism dimension was too broad and thus proposed a new dimension (equality versus hierarchy) to individualism and collectivism (Triandis, 1995). The equality- versus- hierarchy

dimension was actually introduced by Hofstede (2001) as a different dimension named power distance. The dimension provides to identify societies based upon the relative emphasis on horizontal and vertical relations (Komarraju, Dollinger, & Lowell, 2007). Horizontal dimension give emphasis to equality by stressing similarity between people, while vertical dimension includes hierarchy (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Traindis (1995) developed a four-way typology by combing the horizontal/ vertical dimension with individualism and collectivism.

Horizontal individualists have an autonomous self and desire to be unique. They also give emphasis to be distinct from other people. However, they do not desire to be noticed or acquire high status. Vertical individualists have autonomous self, but accept inequalities. They desire to be noticed and have high status by competing with others. The cultural orientation includes competition. On the other hand, horizontal collectivists tend to have an interdependent self-concept and it is similar to the self of others. More specifically, the cultural pattern emphasizes the sense of equality. Vertical collectivists also tend to have an interdependent self-concept. However, members of the in-group are not the same, suggesting that some members have higher social status. That is, the cultural dimension accepts hierarchy. Serving and sacrificing are substantial for the cultural pattern (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, and Gelfand, 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998; Komarraju, Dollinger, & Lowell, 2007).

Schimmack, Oishi, and Diener (2005) considered individualism a valid concept that reflects cultural differences. According to them, horizontal individualism gives importance to freedom, independence, and uniqueness and the dimension corresponds to conventional individualism. Vertical individualism emphasizes status and hierarchy and it corresponds to power distance. Vertical collectivism stresses conventional values, whereas, horizontal collectivism is more ambiguous.

Oishi, Schimmack, Diener, and Suh (1998) tested the relationship between values and vertical and horizontal individualism/collectivism. Their results showed that horizontal individualism was positively associated with self-direction and achievement, whereas, vertical individualism was positively related to achievement

and power. Their finding also indicated that horizontal collectivism was positively related to benevolence, whereas, vertical collectivism was positively associated with conformity and tradition. Further, vertical individualism was negatively related to benevolence, universalism and self-direction, horizontal collectivism was negatively associated with power and achievement, vertical collectivism was negatively related to self-direction; horizontal individualism was negatively associated with benevolence.

Triandis (1996) stated this cultural typology could be studied at the individual-level as well as at the societal-level. Hence, in the present study as well as the power distance-collectivism conceptualization proposed by Hofstede (2001), these four themes' relation to feedback reactions were also investigated in an exploratory manner.

1.4. Present Study and Research Hypotheses

The current study's focus was on examining the effects of source on reactions to feedback as individuals can react differently to feedback from various sources, in which the position holders differ from each other in terms of status (Collins & Stukas, 2006; Halperin et al., 1976). Also, attitudes toward the performance appraisal system could influence the effectiveness of the system and reactions to feedback could be seen as antecedents of performance improvement (Bernardin et al., 1993; Ilgen et al., 1979; Kinicki et al., 2004). Therefore, it is important to examine the effect of source (peers, subordinates, superiors) in MSF on reactions to feedback. There are numerous studies examining the sign of feedback on reactions to feedback since it is the most critical characteristic affecting reactions to feedback (Ilgen et al., 1979). The studies generally supported the finding that positive feedback is more likely to be taken favorably than negative feedback. However, this finding was not uniformly supported; in some cases, especially when feedback is coming from subordinates and peers (Brett & Atwater, 2001; Waldman & Atwater, 2001). Based on these arguments, the following hypothesis was tested in the present study.

H1: Compared to both positive and negative feedback coming from peers and subordinates, both positive and negative feedback coming from a supervisor

are more likely to be perceived as accurate and useful and be related to more positive affective reactions by observers.

The study also aims at investigating effects of observers' power distance and collectivism on the source-reaction and sign-reaction associations. Feedback from subordinates to supervisor could well be perceived as a social threat to hierarchy and it could lead to negative reactions to the feedback in societies characterized by high power distance (Fletcher & Perry; 2001; Shipper et al, 2007). Employees in high power distance cultures might be anticipated to be assessed by an employee with relatively more power than the ratee (Flecther & Perry, 2001). Consistent with power distance, in collectivist cultures there is a tendency for being hierarchical and authoritarian and reacting more favorably to authoritarian leadership (Earley & Gibson, 1998; Kennis, 1977). Hence, individuals with a collectivistic orientation might be more likely to anticipate and prefer performance feedback from their superiors (Flectcher & Perry, 2001). Similarly, Sümer (2007) suggested that involving subordinates in performance assessment could be problematic in the Turkish context characterized by high power distance and collectivism.

General view in the literature is that MSF process fits a low power distance and an individualistic cultural orientation (Flectcher & Perry, 2001; Shipper et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2011; Varela & Premeaux, 2008). Similarly, results of Entrekin and Chung (2001) showed that the traditional Chinese culture characterized by high power distance and collectivism might be more compatible with downward appraisals than with lateral and upward assessments. Taken together, I expected that the reaction discrepancy between supervisor and peers as well as between supervisor and subordinates would differ according to the level of power distance and collectivism. More specifically, as observers' levels of power distance and collectivism increase, reactions to feedback would become more favorable when it is coming from a supervisor than from peers or subordinates since the premise of MSF fits low power distance and individualism orientations. Furthermore, collectivism value orientation could influence sign-reaction associations. Employees could be unwilling to provide negative performance assessments due to the possibility of losing face in collectivist cultures (Ho, 1976; Millman et al., 2002; Ng et al., 2011).

Thus unfavorable assessments could be evaluated negatively in such cultures. I expected that the levels of collectivism would affect reaction discrepancy between positive and negative feedback. More specifically, as levels of collectivism decrease, negative feedback would result in more favorable reactions, whereas the effect of collectivism on reactions is not expected for positive feedback. Based on these arguments, the following hypotheses were tested in the present study.

H2: As power distance increases, reactions to feedback become more favorable when it is coming from a supervisor than from peers or subordinates.

H3: As collectivism increases, reactions to feedback become more favorable when it is coming from a supervisor than from peers or subordinates.

H4:.As collectivism decreases, negative feedback would result in more favorable reactions.

Thus, I expected that both cultural values, namely power distance and collectivism affect the source-reaction associations. I also expected that collectivism influences the sign-reaction associations. Thereby, the present study seeks to fill a gap in the literature related to the effects of cultural orientations on feedback reactions in relation to sign and source. Finally, the present study explores the moderator effect of vertical and horizontal collectivism-individualism with an aim of identifying whether or not the expected trends for the cultural orientations would generalize to the typological dimensions.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1. Participants

Study participants were 197 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in different departments of the Middle East Technical University (*N* = 159, 80.7%) and Hacettepe University (*N* = 38, 19.3%). A large portion of the participants (*N* = 95) were recruited from introductory level psychology courses. Undergraduate participants were given experimental credit for their participation. In the entire sample, 129 participants were women (65.5%) and 68 were men (34.5%). The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 31 (*M* = 21.68, *SD* = 2.22). Of the participants, 127 (64.5%) were from the faculty of arts, 30 (15.2%) were from the faculty of engineering, 17 (8.6%) were from the faculty of economics and administrative sciences, 15 (7.6%) were from the faculty of sciences, seven (3.6%) were from the faculty of education, and one participant (.5%) was from the faculty of architecture. Among these participants, 117 (59.4%) reported having some amount of job experience. Time of job experience ranged from one to 72 months (*M* = 10.34 months, *SD* = 15.62 months).

2.2. Measures

In the study, the measures of reactions to feedback, power distance, collectivism, and vertical and horizontal collectivism/individualism were administered. In addition, participant's age, gender, job experience, and department were asked.

2.2.1. Reactions to Feedback

Reactions to feedback were operationalized as perceived accuracy, perceived usefulness, and perceived affectivity. A total of 17 items, each rated on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from "1 = Strongly disagree" to "6 = Strongly agree" was used in the present study. The scale with all items is shown in Appendix A.

Perceived accuracy of feedback was assessed with a four-item scale. Two items of the scale were adapted from the six-item feedback acceptance scale of Facteau et al. (1998). One item was adapted from the three-item feedback acceptance scale of Bell and Artur (2008). Finally, one item was adapted from the perceived accuracy dimension of Ivancevich's (1982) Appraisal Interview Assessment scale.

Perceived usefulness of feedback was assessed with seven items. Two items of the scale were adapted from the four-item feedback usefulness scale of Facteau et al. (1998). One item was adapted from the three-item feedback usefulness scale of Waldman and Atwater (2001). One item was adapted from Bilgiç's (2008) study. The remaining three items were developed for the study. An example item is "I found the given feedback to be informative towards improving performance."

Affective reactions to feedback were assessed with a six item scale. One item was adapted from Bilgiç's (2008) study. The remaining five items were developed for the study based on conceptualization of Brett and Atwater's (2001) positive and negative reaction scale. An example item is "I think that the feedback provided could cause the person to get angry" (reverse-coded).

2.2.2. Power Distance and Collectivism:

Power distance was assessed using a seven-item scale, while a twelve-item scale was used to assess collectivism. These scales were developed and validated cross-culturally by Aycan et al. (2000). Example items of power distance include, "There needs to be a hierarchy of authority in our society" and "People having authority should be respected because of their position." An example item of the collectivism scale is "One has to be loyal to his/her community if one seeks their support and protection." The participants rated the items by using a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from "1= Strongly disagree" to "6 = Strongly agree." Keleş and Aycan (2011) stated that Cronbach's alpha reliability scores of the scales were .70 for power distance and .72 for collectivism.

2.2.3. Horizontal and Vertical Individualism-Collectivism Scale:

The vertical and horizontal individualism-collectivism dimensions were assessed by using the Turkish version of the scale originally developped by Singelis

et al. (1995). Triandis and his colleagues added some items to the original scale resulting in a 37-item scale (as cited in Wasti and Eser-Erdil, 2007), and this final version of the scale was adopted to Turkish by Wasti and Eser-Erdil (2007). The scale comprises of four sub-scales of vertical collectivism with 9 items (e.g., "I would do what would please my family, even if I detested that activity"), horizontal collectivism with 10 items (e.g., "If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud"), vertical individualism with 8 items (e.g., "Competition is the law of the nature"), and horizontal individulism with 10 items (e.g., "One should live one's life independently of others").

Wasti and Eser-Erdil (2007) examined the scale in two samples. Their results showed that a four-factor solution fit the data better than a two factor solution. However, they removed vertical individualism and hence created a three factor-structure. The authors stated that Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of the subscales in the two samples were .71 and .69 for horizontal individualism, .72 and .69 for vertical collectivism, and .73 (in both samples) for horizontal collectivism. In the present study, the participants rated the items by using a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from "1= Strongly disagree" to "6= Strongly agree."

In the current study, all four sub-scales were used and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of the sub-scales were .84 for vertical collectivism, .79 for horizontal collectivism, .86 for vertical individualism, and .81 for horizontal individualism.

2.3. Design

The current study was conducted in a laboratory setting. In a 3 (feedback source) x 2 (the sign of feedback) experimental design, I investigated the influence of (a) the status of feedback source (a supervisor representing downward feedback, a coworker representing lateral/peer feedback, and subordinates representing upward feedback) and (b) the sign of feedback (positive vs. negative) on three types of reactions to feedback: perceived accuracy of feedback, perceived usefulness of feedback, and affective reactions to feedback. The study also examined the moderating effect of power distance and collectivism-assessed at the individual

level- on reactions to the feedback sources and sign. Participants were randomly assigned to one of six experimental conditions in which the sign of feedback and the source of feedback were manipulated. The number and percentage of participants within each experimental condition are displayed in Table 2.1.

Table 2. 1. The frequency and percentage of participants within each experimental condition

			Frequency	Percentage
Source of Feedback	**Subordinates**		64	32.5
	Peers		67	34.0
	Supervisor		66	33.5
Sign	**Positive Feedback(PF)**		100	50.8
	Negative Feedback(NF)		97	49.2
Source*sign	**Subordinates**	**PF.**	33	16.8
		NF.	31	15.7
	Peers	**PF.**	33	16.8
		NF.	34	17.2
	Supervisor	**PF.**	34	17.2
		NF.	32	16.2

2.4. Procedure

On entering laboratory, participants were presented with a cover story which stated that the aim of the study was to examine the effectiveness of performance feedback prepared for the target person in the video. Participants were told that the person in the video was an employee in an organization giving a presentation as part of an assessment center task (See Appendix B for the cover story). First, participants watched the video depicting the presentation performance and then were told that performance feedback was provided to the presenter by employees in the organization he works. Participants were provided with the performance ratings, either in the form of favorable (i.e. positive) or unfavorable (i.e. negative) feedback, as coming from one of the three sources (superior, subordinates, and peers). Finally,

participants were asked to evaluate the performance ratings in terms of perceived accuracy, usefulness, and positive affectivity. Following this, measures of power distance, collectivism, and vertical and horizontal individualism/collectivism were administered. Upon the completion of administration, participants were thanked and then debriefed.

2.5. Task

The effects of feedback sign and feedback source on reactions to feedback were examined with the use of feedback provided for the presentation performance of an employee shown to the participants in a video. In the video, the target employee makes a presentation about the social psychological phenomena of "groupthink" [see Janis (1982) and Turner & Pratkanis (1998) for specific information on the phenomenon of groupthink]. Participants were asked to carefully watch the video and then evaluate the ratings from one of three sources allegedly provided as part of an assessment center performance. The video shown to the participants was constant for each condition of the study. However, favorability of ratings and source of feedback were manipulated.

2.5.1. Selecting the Actor

In choosing the actor to play the role of an employee giving a presentation, I paid attention to having someone who would fit the stereotypical representation of mid-level managers in Turkey. In a study conducted in Turkey, managerial attributes were found to share more common variance with characteristics attributed to men but less so with women (see Sümer 2006 for a dicsussion of manegerial stereotypes in Turkey). Thus, I first decided on having a male actor to avoid any confounding effects that may arise from rating a female managerial applicant. The actor eventually chosen was a 29 years old man who is 180 cm. tall.

2.5.2. Selecting the Video

For the main study, it was necessary to have a presentation that portrays average performance so that the favorable and unfavorable ratings shown to participants as being provided by one of the three sources would appear reasonable

and not far from the actual performance. Prior to the main study, twelve videos were recorded depicting average, good, and poor presentation performance. In these presentations, the formatting of the presentation slides, the fluency of the presenter, and his efficacy in answering questions from the audience were systematically varied as to intentionally reflect good, average, and poor performance. The researcher and her advisors watched all 12 shots, categorized them into poor, average, and good performance categories, and selected four representative ones (two average, one poor, and one good performance video) to be further rated by a group of graduate students. The aim was to identify the shot with ratings that would most represent an average presentation performance, that is one with ratings that cluster around the mid-point of the 5-point rating scale. A total of 21 graduate students rated the performance depicted in four videotapes.

A five-item questionnaire, the Presentation Performance Evaluation Form, adapted from Sümer's (2012) unpublished study was used to assess the effectiveness of the presentation (See Appendix C). Raters watched the eight-minute presentation performance and then assessed its effectiveness using the evaluation form rated on a 5-point scale (1= Weak performance; 5 = Very successful performance).

Participants' mean effectiveness ratings for the four videos were calculated (see Table 2.2). Video 1 depicting good performance (M = 3.56, SD = .48) had higher effectiveness ratings than video 2 depicting poor performance (M = 2.53, SD = .41). The two videos (video 3 and video 4) depicting average presentation performance yielded effectiveness ratings around the mid-point of the 5-point scale. Video 3 (M = 2.96, SD = .09) had ratings clustered closer around the mid-point than video 4 (M = 2.64, SD = .91) as indicated by the means and standard deviations. When all of these results are taken as a whole, a decision to use video 3 was made as it represented mediocre presentation performance.

Table 2. 2. Means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values of effectiveness of presentation performance in the videos.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. dev.	Min.	Max.
1.Video 1 (Good)	6	3.56	.48	2.80	4.00
2.Video 2 (Bad)	5	2.53	.41	2.00	3.20
3.Video 3 (Mediocre)	5	2.96	.09	2.80	3.00
4. Video 4 (Mediocre)	5	2.64	.91	1.40	3.80

2. 6. Manipulations

Each experimental manipulation based on feedback source and sign is described in detail.

2.6.1. Feedback Sign Manipulation:

I randomly assigned participants to evaluate either favorable ratings (i.e. positive feedback) or unfavorable ratings (i.e. negative feedback) from one of the three feedback sources. I constructed favorable and unfavorable ratings for six specified dimensions relevant to a presentation performance of an employee. The performance dimensions were effective usage of body language (beden dilinin etkili kullanımı), oral expression skills (sözel ifade becerisi), organization (organizasyon), competence on the presentation topic (konuya hakimiyet), the effectiveness of the material used (kullanılan materyalin etkililiği), and general presentation effectiveness (sunumun genel etkililiği). Participants were first given a graphic rating scale (See Appendix D), with three or four items used to rate each performance dimension, which was stated to be used in evaluating the performance of the presenter. The purpose of providing the graphic rating scale to the participants was to make sure that they better understand the grounds of performance ratings and also to enhance the persuasiveness of the study. They were told that the feedback source had used this graphic rating scale in assessing the performance of the presenter. Ratings (either favorable or unfavorable) were shown to participants in the form of a bar chart in

which the means of ratings on the six dimensions were depicted as coming from one of three sources. The favorable and unfavorable ratings were created to be symmetrical to each other. For example, for the dimension of oral expression skills, the graph depicted a mean of 3.6 in the favorable feedback condition and a mean of 2.4 in the unfavorable feedback condition. The feedback charts used, coming from subordinates as an example, are presented in Appendices E and F for the unfavorable and favorable feedback conditions, respectively.

In order to check for the feedback sign manipulation, after compeleting all the steps and scales involved in the study, participants were asked to indicate the degree of perceived favorability of the feedback ratings provided, with the following promt: "Using the six-point scale, indicate the extent to which you found the feedback given to the presenter favorable."

2.6.2. Feedback Source (status) Manipulation:

The study participants were informed about the source of feedback with two forms they received in the study: 1) the initial form conveying the cover story (see Appendix B), 2) the feedback rating bar charts which mentions the source in the title of the chart (see Appendices E and F). After the manipulations, when participants evaluated their reactions, the source providing the ratings was used as the stem of the scale items (e.g., "When I evaluated the feedback coming from the presenter's subordinates, I found the feedback to accurately reflect performance") (See Appendix A). In order to check for the status manipulation, participants were asked to write which source provided the feedback at the end of the study.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

In this chapter, first, data screening and cleaning processes are described. Second, the manipulation check analyses are presented. Third, analyses on the factorial structure of the cultural orientation scales and the reactions to feedback scale are presented. Forth, descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations among study variables are examined. The final section includes hypothesis testing and exploratory analyses.

3.1. Data Screening and Cleaning

The procedures described by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) were followed while screening the data. The data were examined for missing values. Two participants who did not respond to most of the items of the collectivism scale were excluded from all the analyses. After the exclusion, in the entire data set, out of 14381 data points, there were 34 (0.24%) missing values which were randomly scattered throughout the data set. When the missing values are less than 5% of all participants on any variable, almost any procedure to handle missing values provide similar results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Based on the argument, the mean replacement technique was used to handle missing values. For the reaction scales, missing values were replaced with the respective experimental condition mean, whereas for the independent variables of cultural orientations, the respective variable's mean based on all participants was used.

3.2. Manipulation Check

The manipulation checks were conducted to ascertain that the instructions were understood by participants.

3.2.1. Feedback Sign

The manipulation check analyses were based on the remaining 191 participants because six participants did not respond to manipulation check question.

In order to check for the feedback sign manipulation, a one-way ANOVA was performed on the perceived favorability of ratings provided by participants. With feedback provided (positive/negative) used as the between-subjects factor, the results showed that there was a significant main effect of feedback on perceived favorability of ratings, $F(1, 189) = 916.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .83$. Specifically, positive feedback ($M = 4.81$, $SD = .55$) had higher perceived favorability ratings than negative feedback ($M = 2.50$, $SD = .50$). These findings showed that the manipulation for the sign of feedback operated as intended.

3.2.2. Feedback Source

In order to check for the status manipulation, participants were asked to write which source provided the feedback at the end of the study. Of the participants, 16 reported that there was no information about the issue and so they were excluded from the study. All the remaining participants ($N = 197$) correctly stated which source had provided the feedback. Thus, the manipulation was also successful.

Participants were also asked to indicate the degree of perceived expertise of the feedback provider. A one-way ANOVA with feedback source as the between-subjects factor was performed on the perceived expertise of raters. Results showed that there was a significant main effect of feedback source on perceived expertise, $F(2, 194) = 12.30$, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .11$. Post Hoc analysis with Tukey's HSD showed that of the feedback sources, supervisor ($M = 3.98$, $SD = 1.12$) had higher expertise ratings than peers ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 1.24$) and subordinates ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.12$). Peers and subordinates did not significantly differ from each other in term of expertise ratings.

3.2.3. Perceived Presentation Performance

After completing all scales, all participants were asked to rate the overall effectiveness of the presentation in the video used, with the item "Using the five-point rating scale, indicate your perceived effectiveness of the presenter's overall performance". The examination of mean effectiveness indicated that participants perceived the presentation as somewhat worse than expected ($M = 2.59$, $SD = .95$).

3.3. Factor Analyses

The reactions to feedback scale, the vertical/horizontal individualism scale, and the power distance and collectivism scale were factor analyzed prior to forming composite variables from the scale items.

3.3.1. Reactions to Feedback Scale

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) with oblique rotation was conducted on the 17-item reaction scale using data from 197 participants. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.93) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (χ^2 (136) = 2900.46, p< .001) indicated that the data could be factor analyzed. The results revealed an initial three-factor solution with eigenvalues over one, as expected. These factors explained 69.79 % of the total variance. Scree plot also indicated the existence of three factors. Examination of the pattern matrix showed that Factor 1, Factor 2, and Factor 3 corresponded to perceived usefulness of feedback, affective reactions to feedback, and perceived accuracy of feedback, respectively. Item 4 ("I was satisfied with the feedback provided"), which theoretically corresponds to affective reactions, loaded under the accuracy of feedback factor. The same item was also found to decrease the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the affective reactions scale from .87 to .76; thus, the item was excluded from the scale. After deleting the item, another PAF with direct oblimin was conducted on 16 items. The three factors explained 68.61 % of the total variance. All reaction items loaded under their respective factors as expected (see Table 3.1). Although Item 2 ("I think that the given feedback provides valuable information for the person.") and item 6 ("I found the given feedback was motivating.") had cross factor loadings, they had higher loadings on their respective factors. Hence, the two items were not excluded from the scale and used as the indicators of their respective factors. Therefore, perceived usefulness of feedback with seven items explained 45.29% of the total variance. Positive affective reactions to feedback with five items accounted for 18.35% of the total variance. Perceived accuracy of feedback with four items explained 4.96% of the total variance.

Cronbach's alpha coefficents for usefulness of feedback, affective reactions to feedback, and perceived accuracy of feedback were .94 .87, and .92, respectively.

Table 3. 1. Results of PAF on the Reactions to Feedback Scale.

Item #	Perceived Usefulness	Affective Reactions	Perceived Accuracy
12. I found the given feedback encouraging to improve performance.	**.84**		
15. I think that the given feedback is useful for the person.	**.80**		
10. I think that the given feedback could be a mediator to develop his self efficiacy.	**.79**		
17. I found the given feedback informative to improve performance.	**.78**		
5. I think that the given feedback helps the person improve the effectiveness of his performance.	**.75**		
9. I think that the given feedback is sufficient for the person to improve his performance.	**.53**		
2. I think that the given feedback provides valuable information for the person.	**.47**		.40
16. I think that the given feedback could cause the person to be disappointed. (R)		**.84**	
11. I think that the given feedback could cause the person to get angry. (R)		**.83**	
7. I think that the given feedback could cause the person to be pleased.		**.77**	
13. I think that the given feedback could cause the person to feel as if being criticized (R)		**.77**	
6. I found the given feedback was motivating.	.38	**.54**	
1. I think that the given feedback to accurately reflect performance			**.97**
3. I think that the given feedback fits with the performance of the person.			**.92**
14. I think that the evaluators have observed performance of the manager candidate accurately.			**.79**
8. I think that the given feedback contains error (R)			**.66**
Eigenvalues:	**7.50**	**3.30**	**1.06**
Explained Variance %:	**45.29**	**18.35**	**4.96**
Cronbach's Alpha:	**.94**	**.87**	**.92**

* Factor loadings written in bold refer to factors under which items loaded.

3.3.2. Vertical and Horizontal Individualism-Collectivism Scale

A PAF with varimax rotation was conducted on 37 items of the vertical and horizontal individualism-collectivism scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.82) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (χ^2 (666) = 3247.563, p< .001) indicated that one could factor analyze the data. The results revealed an initial nine-factor solution with eigenvalues over one and these factors explained 52.74 % of the total variance. Since a four-factor solution was expected theoretically, a parallel analysis was run. The results of the parallel analysis, with Monte Carlo simulations that create about 100 random data sets similar to the original data set, revealed five real data roots exceeding randomly generated data roots, indicating a five-factor solution for the scale (the first six eigenvalues from the real data matrix were 6.44, 5.63, 3.42, 2, 1.62, and 1.23; and from the random data matrix were 1.93, 1.82, 1.73, 1.66, 1.59, and 1.52). Based on all these analyses, the current data was forced into the theoretically-expected four-factor structure because the difference between the eigenvalue from the real data matrix and that from the random data matrix for the fifth factor was small.

The four factors explained 41.20% of the total variance. Examination of the solution indicated that Factor 1, Factor 2, Factor 3, and Factor 4 corresponded to vertical individualism, horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, and vertical collectivism, respectively. Examination of the factors under which items loaded revealed that Item 35 ("When I succeed, it is usually because of my abilities"), which is theoretically an indicator of horizontal individualism, loaded on vertical individualism. Thus, this item was excluded from the scale. Furthermore, Item 14 ("It is important for me to respect the decision of my group"), Item 22 ("I respect the request of majority of my group"), and Item 36 ("I hate to disagree with others in my group") cross-loaded both onto horizontal collectivism and vertical collectivism. Although these three items were expected to have higher factor loadings on vertical collectivism, they had higher factor loadings on horizontal collectivism. Hence, these three items were also omitted from the scale. After deleting the items, another PAF with varimax rotation was conducted. Thus, vertical individualism with eight items accounted for 11.74% of the total variance. Horizontal collectivism with 10 items

explained 9.46% of the total variance. Horizontal individualism with nine items explained 11.57% of the total variance. Vertical collectivism with six items accounted for 9.40% of the total variance. These four factors explained 42.17% of the variance. The factor loadings of the items are displayed in Appendix G. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism, horizontal individualism, and vertical collectivism were .86, .79, .82, and .82, respectively.

3.3.3. Power Distance and Collectivism Scales

A PAF with oblique rotation was conducted on the 19 items of power distance and collectivism scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.84) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (χ^2 (171) = 1221.30, $p <$ .001) indicated that the data could be factor analyzed. The results revealed an initial five-factor solution with eigenvalues over one and these factors explained 47% of the total variance. Since a two- factor solution was expected theoretically, the current data was forced to yield a two-factor structure.

The two factors explained 35.60% of the total variance. Examination of the solution indicated that Factor 1 and Factor 2 corresponded to collectivism and power distance, respectively. All items loaded under their respective factors, as expected. Collectivism with twelve items explained 25.80% of the total variance. Power distance with seven items accounted for 9.80% of the total variance. The factor loadings of the items are presented in Appendix H. Cronbach's alpha coefficents for collectivism and power distance were .84 and .81, respectively.

3.4. Descriptive Statistics and Bivariate Correlations

Means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values of the study variables are presented in Table 3.2. The correlation matrix of the study variables is presented in Table 3.3. As can be seen from the correlations, age was positively associated with job experience (r = .46) and negatively related to power distance (r = -.16) and vertical individualism (r = -.14).

Among the feedback reaction subscales, perceived accuracy of feedback was positively and strongly related to perceived usefulness (r = .73), whereas it was

negatively associated with affective reactions (r = -.28). Among the individual differences variables, power distance was positively related to collectivism (r = .40), horizontal collectivism (r = .20), vertical individualism (r = .41), and vertical collectivism (r = .46). Collectivism was also correlated with vertical individualism (r = .20), vertical collectivism (r = .64), and horizontal collectivism (r = .71).

When dealing with the associations among the sub-scales of horizontal and vertical collectivism/individualism, horizontal collectivism was positively correlated with vertical collectivism (r =. 47), whereas it was negatively associated with horizontal individualism (r = -.18). The correlation analysis also indicated that horizontal individualism was positively correlated with vertical individualism (r = .27). Moreover, vertical collectivism was positively associated with vertical individualism (r = .24).

When examining relationships between reactions to feedback and cultural orientations, collectivism was associated with affective feedback reactions (r = .23). Also, horizontal individualism was negatively related to affective reactions (r = -.18), whereas, vertical collectivism was positively associated with affective reactions (r = .16).

Table 3. 2. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Variable	Mean	Std. dev.	Min.	Max.
1. Age	21.68	2.22	18.00	33.00
2. Job experience	10.34	15.62	1.00	72.00
3. Accuracy of feedback	3.70	1.20	1.00	6.00
4. Usefulness of feedback	3.79	1.05	1.00	6.00
5. Affective reactions	3.62	1.10	1.20	6.00
6. Power distance	2.39	.82	1.00	4.86
7. Collectivism	3.98	.68	2.00	5.83
8. Horizontal individualism	4.88	.61	3.11	6.00
9. Horizontal collectivism	4.55	.54	2.80	5.70
10. Vertical individualism	3.35	.95	1.13	6.00
11. Vertical collectivism	3.60	.91	1.00	5.67

Note. All variables, except for age and tenure; were rated on a 6- point scale.

Table 3. 3. The mean and standard deviation values of participants on reactions within each experimental condition

			Dependent Variables					
			Perceived Accuracy		**Perceived Usefulness**		**Affective Reactions**	
			Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*
Feedback Source								
	Subordinates (SB)		3.72	1.18	3.80	1.03	3.51	.95
	Peers (P)		3.51	1.25	3.74	1.16	3.69	1.22
	Supervisor (SV)		3.86	1.15	3.82	.96	3.64	1.13
Feedback Sign								
	Positive Feedback(PF)		3.14	1.10	3.48	1.18	4.41	.68
	Negative Feedback(NF)		4.27	1.02	4.11	.78	2.80	.82
Source*Sign								
	SB	**PF**	3.07	1.03	3.31	1.05	4.12	.62
		NF	4.42	.92	4.34	.69	2.87	.81
	P	**PF**	3.09	1.21	3.57	1.40	4.66	.63
		NF	3.93	1.17	3.91	.87	2.75	.85
	SV	**PF**	3.27	1.07	3.58	1.08	4.46	.67
		NF	4.49	.86	4.09	.74	2.77	.82

Note. All variables were rated on a 6- point scale.

Table 3. 4. Bivariate Correlations between Study Variables and Cronbach's Alphas of Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Gender	_											
2. Age	.27**	_										
3. Job Experience	.14	.46**	_									
4. Accuracy	.03	-.02	-.11	(.92)								
5. Usefulness	.05	.00	-.13	.73**	(.94)							
6. Affective Reac.	.08	-.02	-.01	-.28**	-.12	(.87)						
7. Power Distance	.03	-.16*	-.18	-.01	.10	.12	(.81)					
8. Collectivism	.02	-.02	.12	-.04	.06	.23**	.40**	(.84)				
9. HC	-.11	.04	-.04	.01	.09	.13	.20**	.71**	(.79)			
10. HI	-.09	-.02	.01	.08	.10	-.18*	-.12	-.11	-.18*	(.82)		
11. VC	.01	-.12	-.20*	-.08	-.05	.16*	.46**	.64**	.47**	-.14	(.82)	
12. VI	-.02	-.14*	-.09	.06	.06	.02	.41**	.20**	-.02	.27**	.24**	(.86)

Note. Job Experience: The total amount of time in months that the participants have ever worked; HC: Horizontal Collectivism; HI: Horizontal Individualism; VC: Vertical Collectivism; VI: Vertical Individualism.
*p< .05; **p< .01.

3.5. Hypothesis Testing

I formulated the first hypothesis to test the assertion that compared to feedback (both positive and negative) coming from peers and subordinates, feedback (both positive and negative) coming from a supervisor is more likely to be perceived as accurate and useful and be related to more affective reactions by observers.

To test the hypothesis, a 2 X 3 (sign of feedback X source of feedback) MANOVA was conducted (factorial between subjects design) on three dependent variables, namely, perceived accuracy of feedback, perceived usefulness of feedback, and affective reactions to feedback. Pillai's Trace was used as the criterion because the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices assumption was not met, Box's M = 73.19, F (30, 81789.091) = 2.34, $p < .001$. For univariate analysis, the homogeneity of variance assumption was tested by using Levene's tests. Levene's tests were significant for perceived accuracy, thus the assumption was not met for this dependent variable. So, results pertaining to perceived accuracy should be interpreted with some caution.

The results showed that the main effect of feedback source on the combined DVs was non-significant, $F(6, 380) = 1.45$, ns, Pillai's Trace = .04, $\eta^2 = .02$. Univariate analysis revealed that there was no significant effect of source on perceived accuracy of feedback, $F(2,191) = 2.13$, $p = .12$, $\eta^2 = .02$. However, post hoc analysis with LSD indicated that observers had a tendency to perceive feedback coming from a supervisor ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.15$) as more accurate than feedback coming from peers ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.25$, $p = .058$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported for perceived accuracy because there was no significant difference between subordinates and supervisor. Univariate analysis revealed that there was no significant effect of source on usefulness of feedback, $F(2,191) = .16$, *ns*, $\eta^2 = .00$, and on affective reactions, $F(2,191) = 1.33$, *ns*, $\eta^2 = .01$.

The results also indicated that there was a significant main effect of feedback sign on the linear combination of DVs, $F(3, 189) = 105.60$, $p < .001$ Pillai's Trace = .63, $\eta^2 = .63$. Univariate analysis revealed that there was significant effect of feedback sign on perceived accuracy of feedback, $F(1,191) = 57.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 =$

.23, on perceived usefulness of feedback, $F(1, 191) = 19.30$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$, and on affective reactions to feedback, $F(1, 191) = 236.41$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .55$. Observers, who were shown negative feedback from one of the three sources ($M = 4.27$, $SD = 1.02$) perceived the feedback as more accurate than those, who were shown positive feedback ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.10$). Also, observers, who were shown negative feedback from one of the sources ($M = 4.11$, $SD = .78$) perceived the feedback as more useful than those, who were shown positive feedback ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 1.18$). Finally, positive feedback from one of three sources ($M = 4.41$, $SD = .67$) resulted in more positive reactions of observers than negative feedback ($M = 2.80$, $SD = .82$).

The interaction effect of feedback sign and source on the linear combination of DVs was not significant, $F(6, 380) = 1.79$, $p = .10$, Pillai's Trace = .06, $\eta^2 = .03$. Univariate results for the interaction effect were also not significant for perceived accuracy, $F(2, 191) = 1.06$, $p = .35$, $\eta^2 = .01$. Nevertheless, when feedback was negative, univariate results revealed that there was a significant effect of source on perceived accuracy, $F(2, 94) = 3.14$, $p = .048$, $\eta^2 = .06$. Post Hoc analysis with LSD indicated that for negative feedback, observers had a tendency to perceive feedback coming from a supervisor ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .86$) and from subordinates ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .92$) as more accurate than feedback coming from peers ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 1.17$), again yielding some support for the hypothesis in the negative feedback condition for perceived accuracy. Perceived accuracy was not found to be significantly different across sources when the performance feedback was positive.

For perceived usefulness, univariate interaction effect of source and sign was not significant, $F(2, 191) = 2.07$, *ns*, $\eta^2 = .02$. For affective reactions, however, there was a significant interaction effect of sign and source, $F(2, 191) = 3.45$, $p = .034$, $\eta^2 = .04$. Post Hoc analyses with Tukey's HSD showed that when feedback was positive, affective reactions to feedback coming from peers ($M = 4.66$, $SD = .63$) were higher than affective reactions to feedback from subordinates ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .62$). Affective reactions were not found to be significantly different across sources when the performance feedback was negative.

Taken together, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported for the perceived accuracy dimension of reactions as observers perceived the feedback from a

supervisor as more accurate than that from peers. Hypothesis 1 was not supported for the dimensions of perceived usefulness and positive affective reactions, even though affective reactions depended on the feedback sign.

3.5.1. Testing the Effects of Cultural Orientations and Feedback Source on Reactions

A series of regression analyses were conducted to test two-way interactions between cultural orientations and feedback source. Before conducting the regression analyses, feedback source was dummy coded and also was treated as two contrast variables. Dummy coding and contrast coding would serve testing the predetermined comparisons in the present study. In dummy coding, the supervisor feedback condition was used as the reference group with which peer and subordinate groups were compared. Because source of feedback has three categories, I created two dummy variables, one to compare peers with the supervisor (coded as peers = 1, supervisor = 0, subordinates = 0) and one to compare the subordinate condition with the supervisor condition (coded as subordinates = 1, supervisor = 0, peers = 0). These two variables represented the overall effect of feedback source. Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) stated that in contrast coding,

> *the sum of the weights across all groups for each coded variable must equal zero, the sum of the products of each pair of coded variable must equal zero, and the difference between the value for positive weights and the value for negative weights for coded variable should equal zero* (p. 333).

Following this rule, I created two contrast variables, one comparing the feedback from the supervisor compared with the mean for feedback from the combination of the other two sources (coded as supervisor = -.67, subordinates = .33, peers =.33) and one comparing the feedback from peers with the feedback from subordinates (coded as supervisor = 0, subordinates = -.5, peers =.5). The effect of these two contrast variables, which represent the overall effect of feedback source, were examined in order to explore the comparison between peers and subordinates.

As part of conducting moderated regression analyses, continuous variables (power distance and collectivism) were centered. Following this, these centered

continuous variables and coded variables were multiplied in order to create the interaction terms. When testing interaction effects, statistical power is more likely to be small (Morris, Sherman, & Mansfield, 1986). In other words, in cases with a moderation effect in the population, current data could erroneously suggest no such effect due to statistical artifacts (Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005). Thus, in the present study, a *p* value of .10 is used in detecting moderation effects.

3.5.1.1. Power distance and Feedback Source on Reactions

Three moderated regression analyses were performed to test the moderating effect of power distance on the feedback source-feedback reactions relationships (one for each of the feedback reaction variables). Centered power distance and dummy coded source variables were entered in the first step. The interaction terms for power distance and peer-versus-supervisor and for power distance and subordinates-versus-supervisor were entered in the second step. In all three regression analyses, model 1 explained from 1% to 2% of variance in reactions and model 2, with the interaction terms, did not make any significant contribution to explaining the variance in reactions (See Table 3.5). Again in none of the three regression analyses, was the difference between the power distance-reactions slopes for the supervisor and peers conditions or between the supervisor and subordinates conditions significant (See Table 3.5). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Although not hypothesized, the peer and subordinate conditions were also compared to explore for any effect on reactions with the use of the contrast coding scheme. Again, a series of moderated regressions were conducted on reactions in order to compare the feedback from peers with the feedback from subordinates while testing the interaction effect of source and power distance. Centered power distance and the two contrast coded variables were entered in the first step. The product terms of these contrast-coded variables with power distance were entered in the second step. The interactions terms were not significant. In all three regressions, the power distance-reactions slopes did not differ between the supervisor and the-mean-of-other two source conditions and between the peer and subordinate conditions (See Table 3.5).

Table 3. 5. Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Moderating Effects of Power Distance on the Source-Feedback Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
Analyses with Dummy Coded FS	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ
Step 1			.02			.01			.02
PD	-.02	-.01		.12	.10		.17	.12	
SV vs P	-.35	-.14		-.07	-.03		.06	.02	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.06		-.02	-.01		-.13	-.05	
Step 2			.01			.00			.00
PD*SV vs P	.29	.12		.06	.03		.07	.03	
PD*SV vs SB	.31	.11		.04	.02		-.10	-.04	
Analyses with Contrast Coded FS									
Step 1			.02			.01			.02
PD	-.02	-.01		.12	.09		.17	.12	
SV vs O	-.24	-.10		-.04	-.02		-.04	.01	
P vs SB	-.21	-.07		-.06	-.02		.18	.07	
Step 2			.01			.00			.00
PD*SV vs O	.30	.10		.05	.02		-.01	-.00	
PD*P vs SB	-.02	.07		.01	.00		.16	.05	

Note. PD = Power Distance; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers; O = Others, FS = Feedback Source.

3.5.1.2. Collectivism and Feedback Source on Reactions

Third hypothesis was formed to test the assertion that as collectivism increases, reactions to feedback become more favorable when it is coming from a supervisor than from peers and subordinates. Three moderated regression analyses were performed to test the moderating role of collectivism in the "source-feedback reactions" relationships, one for each of the three reaction measures. In testing this hypothesis, the dummy-coded variables were used as source predictors, as described in the above section. Centered collectivism and two dummy-coded variables were entered in the first step. The product terms of these dummy-coded variables with collectivism were entered in the second step. In the regression analyses for perceived accuracy and perceived usefulness, model 1 explained from 0% to 2% of variance in the DVs and model 2, with the product terms, did not make any significant contribution to the equation (See Table 3.6). Again, for perceived accuracy and

perceived usefulness, the collectivism-reaction slopes did not differ between the supervisor and peer conditions or between the supervisor and subordinate conditions. The third regression analysis conducted on affective reactions indicated that model 1 explained 6% of the variance in affective reactions. Model 2, with the product terms, did not make any significant contribution to the equation. There was no difference between collectivism-reaction slopes for feedback from supervisor and subordinates (β = .06, B = .23, t = .76, ns). However, as can be seen in Table 3.6, collectivism-reaction slopes were significantly different between the supervisor and peer conditions (β = .16, B = .43, t = 1.7, p =.09).

Again, a series of regression analyses were performed for exploratory purposes to contrast the feedback conditions of peers and subordinates while testing the interaction effect of collectivism and feedback source. In all three regressions, the collectivism-reactions slope differences were non-significant for the supervisor and the remaining conditions and between the peer and subordinate conditions (See Table 3.6).

Table 3. 6. Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Moderating Effects of Collectivism on the Source-Feedback Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
Analyses with Dummy Coded FS	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ
Step 1			.02			.00			.06**
Collectivism	-.08	-.05		.08	.06		.38**	.24**	
SV vs P	-.35	-.14		-.08	-.04		.06	.03	
SV vs SB	-.13	-.05		-.03	-.01		-.16	-.07	
Step 2			.00			.00			.01
C*SV vs P	.02	.01		-.25	-.10		.43+	.16+	
C*SV vs SB	-.22	-.06		-.14	-.04		.23	.07	
Analyses with Contrast Coded FS									
Step 1			.02			.00			.06**
Collectivism	-.08	-.05		.08	.06		.38**	.24**	
SV vs O	-.24	-.10		-.05	-.02		-.05	-.02	
P vs SB	-.22	-.08		-.05	-.02		.22	.08	
Step 2			.00			.00			.01
C*SV vs O	-.10	-.03		-.20	-.06		.33	.10	
C*P vs SB	.25	.05		-.11	-.03		.21	.05	

Note. C = Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others, FS = Feedback Source.
+p<.10; **p<.01.

In order to display the interaction among collectivism and feedback source, regression equations for each cell (three cells) were constructed. ± 1 standard deviation of collectivism served as high and low collectivism points in calculating and plotting the effects (See Figure 1).

To conduct simple slope analyses, a series of moderated regression analyses in which each group recoded as the reference group (coded as 0 for each dummy variables) was conducted because the weight for collectivism is the simple slope of the reference group (Aiken & West, 1991). When the feedback came from peers, collectivism predicted affective reactions (β = .38, B =.62, t = 3.25, p = .001). In contrast to feedback from peers, when the feedback came from a supervisor, collectivism did not predict affective reactions (β = .11, B = .18, t = 1.09, p = .279). That is, the simple slope of collectivism on affective reactions was significant for the peer, but not the supervisor condition.

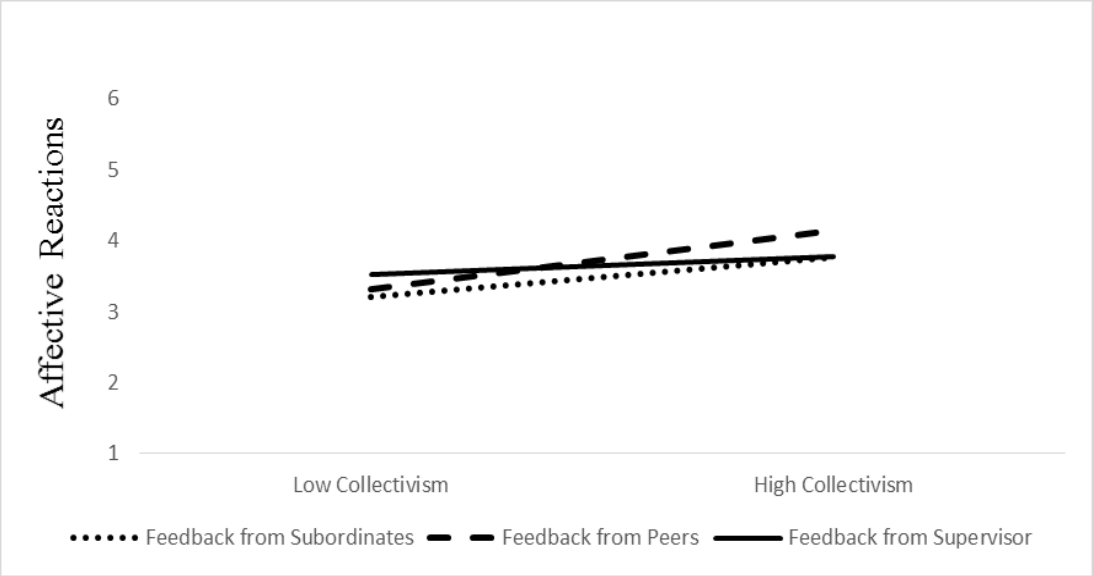

Figure 3. 1. The Interaction between Feedback Source and Collectivism in Predicting Affective Reactions.

Taken together, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. It was expected that collectivism would have a significant effect on affective reactions when feedback came from a supervisor. Nevertheless, collectivism had a significant effect on positive affective reactions in the peer condition only.

3.5.2. Individualism-Collectivism and Feedback Sign on Reactions

The forth hypothesis was formed to test the assertion that as collectivism levels decrease negative feedback would result in more favorable reactions. A series of moderated regression analyses were performed to test the moderating role of collectivism in the "sign-feedback reactions" relationships, one for each of three reaction measures. Before conducting the regressions, feedback sign was coded as a dummy variable in which negative feedback was coded as zero and positive feedback was coded as one. Again, centered collectivism was used.

Centered collectivism and feedback sign were entered in the first step and their product term was entered in the second step. In all three regression analyses, model 1 explained from 10% to 55% of variance in reactions and model 2, with the product term, did not make any significant contribution in explaining the variance in reactions (See Table 3.7). Again in none of the three regressions, were the collectivism-reactions slopes significantly different between the positive and negative feedback conditions (See Table 3.7). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported for the three types of reactions. Results are displayed in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7. Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Moderating Effects of Collectivism on the Sign-Feedback Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	R^2 Δ	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ	*B*	*β*	R^2 Δ
Step 1			.22***			.10***			.55***
Collectivism	.10	.06		.19	.12		.13	.08	
Feedback sign	-.1.16***	-.48***		-.68***	-.32***		1.58**	.72**	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
C* Sign	-.09	-.03		.13	.06		.12	.05	

Note. C = Collectivism.
***p<.001.

3.6. Exploration of Three-Way Interactions among the Feedback Sign, Feedback Source and Cultural Orientations

Although not hypothesized, I explored the effect of three-way interaction among the sign of feedback, feedback source and cultural orientation variables on

reactions with a series of regression analyses. In the first step, the respective centered cultural orientation variable, dummy-coded sign and source variables were entered. In the second step, two-way interactions and in the final step, two three-way interaction terms were entered. Results are first provided for interactions with power distance then for interactions with collectivism.

3.6.1. Exploration of Three-Way Interactions with Power Distance

The moderated regression analyses were conducted separately for each type of reaction to feedback. According to results of all three regressions, the variance in reactions explained by the variables in model 1 was significant ranging from 11% to 55%, but the contribution of the two-way and three-way interaction terms were not significant (See Appendix I). Again in all three regressions, the weights for the three-way interaction terms of sign, power distance and feedback source (either supervisor-versus-subordinate or supervisor-versus-peers) were not significant.

In order to compare power distance-sign interaction effect across peer and subordinate feedback conditions, again, a series of regression analyses were conducted this time with the contrast-coded source variables. According to the results, three-way interactions were not significant for any of the reaction types. That is, the power distance-sign interaction terms did not significantly differ when feedback coming from the supervisor was compared to the mean of other sources or when feedback coming from peers was compared to that coming from subordinates (See Appendix I).

3.6.2. Exploration of Three-Way Interactions with Collectivism

The same three-way interactions, this time with the collectivism cultural orientation, were examined separately for each type of reaction to feedback. According to results for perceived accuracy and usefulness, the variances in reactions explained by the variables in model 1 were significant, ranging from 10% to 24%, but the contribution of the two-way and three-way interaction terms were not significant in the subsequent steps (See Appendix J). The three-way interaction terms were not significant for these two DVs, suggesting that collectivism-reaction slopes did not differ according to feedback sign and feedback source. The regression

analysis on affective reactions to feedback showed that model 1 accounted for 56% of the variance in affective reactions. But, model 2 and model 3 overall did not add significant incremental variance in explaining affective reactions. Nevertheless, the three-way interaction of collectivism, sign, and the dummy-coded source comparing the feedback from supervisor with the feedback from subordinates was significant (β = -.15, B = -.86, t = -2. 01, p = .046) as can be seen in Appendix J, meaning that collectivism-affective reaction slopes differed according to feedback sign between supervisor and subordinate conditions. On the other hand, the three-way interaction term including the dummy-coded source comparing the feedback from supervisor with the feedback from peers was not significant (β = -.01, B = -.05, t = -.14, ns).

In order to compare collectivism-sign interaction effect across peer and subordinate feedback conditions, again, a series of regression analyses were conducted this time with the contrast-coded source variable. According to results, three-way interactions were not significant for perceived accuracy and usefulness (See Appendix J). Nonetheless, regression analysis on affective reactions indicated that the three-way interaction of collectivism, sign, and the source comparing feedback from peers with feedback from subordinates was significant (β = .12, B = .81, t = 1.78, p = .08) as can be seen in Appendix J. On the other hand, the three-way interaction including the feedback source comparison between the supervisor condition with the other conditions, was not significant (β = -.10, B = -.45, t = - 1.39, ns).

In order to display the interaction among collectivism, feedback sign, and feedback source, and to test for simple slopes, regression equations for each cell (six cells) were constructed. It should be noted that the within cell sample sizes were quite small, ranging from 31 to 34, decreasing power to detect significant effects. Power for detecting small effects was calculated to be around .40 with these sample sizes. Thus, I report the statistical regression results and point out to the trends without inferring conclusions based on significance results.

First, ± 1 standard deviation of collectivism served as high and low collectivism points in calculating and plotting the effects (See Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3). To test the collectivism-affective reactions slope within each group, a series of

moderated regression analyses in which each group was reference group was conducted. For negative feedback, the subordinate condition yielded a small positive association between collectivism and affective reactions (β = .23, B =.37, t = 1.74, p = .083) whereas the peer and supervisor conditions yielded nil associations (β = .00, B =.00, t = .029, p = .977; β = -.05, B = -.03, t = -.311, p = .756, respectively). For positive feedback, the supervisor (β = .17, B =.27, t = 1.66, p = .10) and peer conditions (β = .17, B = .28, t = 1.33, p = .19) yielded small positive associations between collectivism and affective reactions, whereas the subordinate (β = -.10, B = -.16, t = -.56, p = .574) conditions did not.

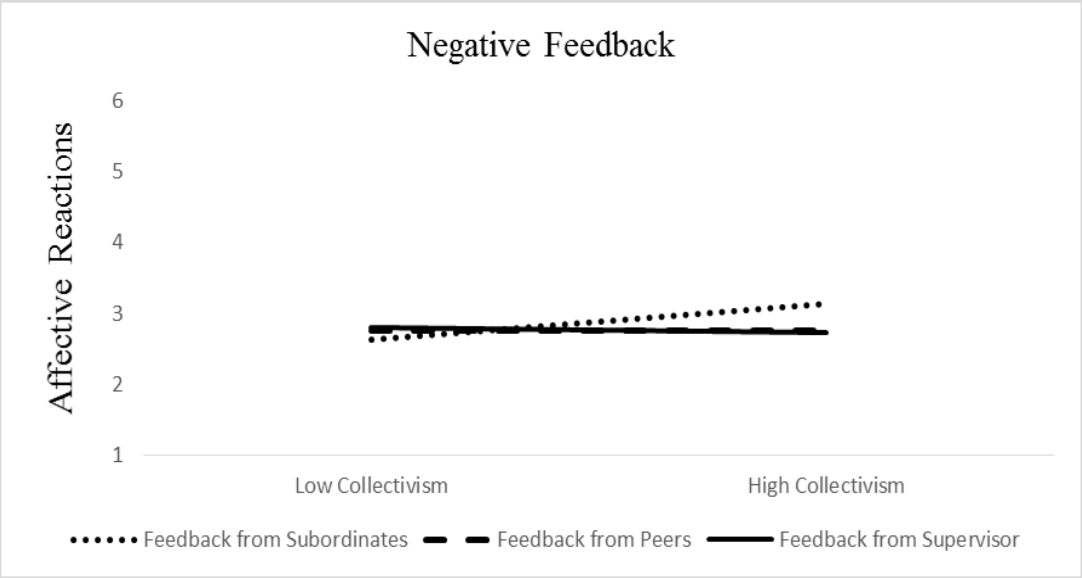

Figure 3. 2. The interaction among Feedback source and Collectivism in predicting Affective Reactions for Negative Feedback

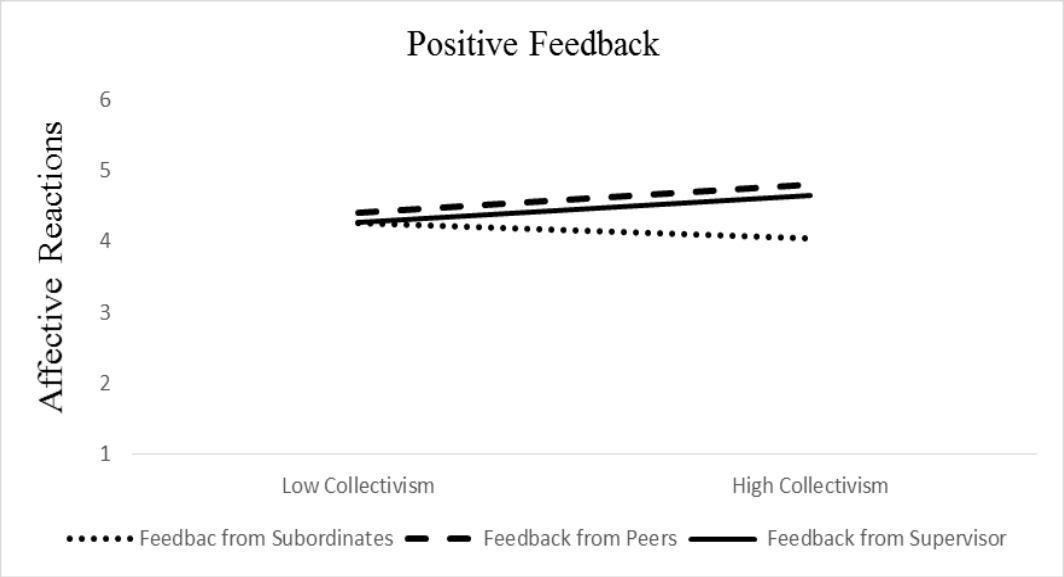

Figure 3. 3. The interaction among Feedback source and Collectivism in predicting Affective Reactions for Positive Feedback

Taken together, these results suggested that there was interaction among feedback sign, feedback source comparing supervisor with subordinates, and collectivism on affective reactions. The results suggested that increases in levels of collectivism resulted in more positive affective reactions for subordinate feedback rather than supervisor feedback when the feedback was negative, but vice-versa when the feedback was positive. Further, there was interaction among feedback sign, feedback source comparing peers with subordinates, and collectivism on affective reactions. The results suggested that increases in levels of collectivism resulted in more positive affective reactions for subordinate feedback rather than peer feedback when the feedback was negative, but vice-versa when the feedback was positive.

3.7. Exploration of Three-Way Interactions among the Feedback sign, Feedback Source and Horizontal/Vertical Individualism/Collectivism

In order to test the three-way interaction among the sign of feedback, feedback source and cultural orientations, a series of regression analysis were conducted. In the first step, the cultural orientation variable (either horizontal collectivism, vertical collectivism, horizontal individualism, or vertical individualism), dummy-coded feedback sign, and two dummy-coded feedback

source variables were entered. In the second step, two-way interaction terms of these variables were entered. In the final step, three-way interaction terms of these variables were entered.

A number of analyses were conducted to see relationship pattern among horizontal and vertical individualism/ collectivism, feedback sign, and feedback source. Because Type 1 error increases, as the number of analyses performed increases, Bonferonni correction, which divides the alpha (.05) into the number of analyses, is needed. Nonetheless, the sample of the study (N = 197), especially the within cell sample sizes ranging from 31 to 34, were quite small. The small sample decreases power to detect significant effects. Further, Bonferonni correction also decreases the power. Hence, I did not adjust the alpha according to Bonferonni correction and I point out to the trends without inferring conclusions based on significance results.

The regression results for perceived accuracy showed that there was a three-way interaction trend among horizontal collectivism, feedback sign, and the dummy-coded feedback source comparing the feedback from supervisor with the feedback from peers (β = .28, B = -1.34, t =. -.2.00, p = .047) as can be seen in Appendix K. In order to compare the difference in horizontal collectivism-sign interaction slopes across feedback from peers and subordinates, again, a series of regression analysis were conducted with contrast-coded feedback source variables. The results pointed out to a three-way interaction trend of sign, horizontal collectivism, and peer versus subordinate source comparison on perceived accuracy (β = -.24, B = -2.12, t = -2.66, p = .009) as can be seen in Appendix K.

Results of the three-way interaction effect on perceived accuracy are shown in Figure 3.4 and 3.5. For negative feedback, horizontal collectivism-perceived accuracy slope had a moderate effect size in the peer condition (β = .39, B =.86, t = 2.03, p =.044). However, there was no effect of horizontal collectivism on perceived accuracy in the subordinate and supervisor conditions (β = -.05, B = -.10, t = -.26, p = .797; β = -.02, B = -.04, t = -.15, p = .878, respectively). For positive feedback, there was a moderate effect of horizontal collectivism on perceived accuracy in the subordinate condition (β = .39, B = .87, t = 1.89, p =.06). In contrast, there was no

effect of horizontal collectivism on perceived accuracy in the supervisor and peer conditions (β = .06, B =.14, t =.47, p =.641, β = -.13, B = -.29, t = -.96, p = .341).

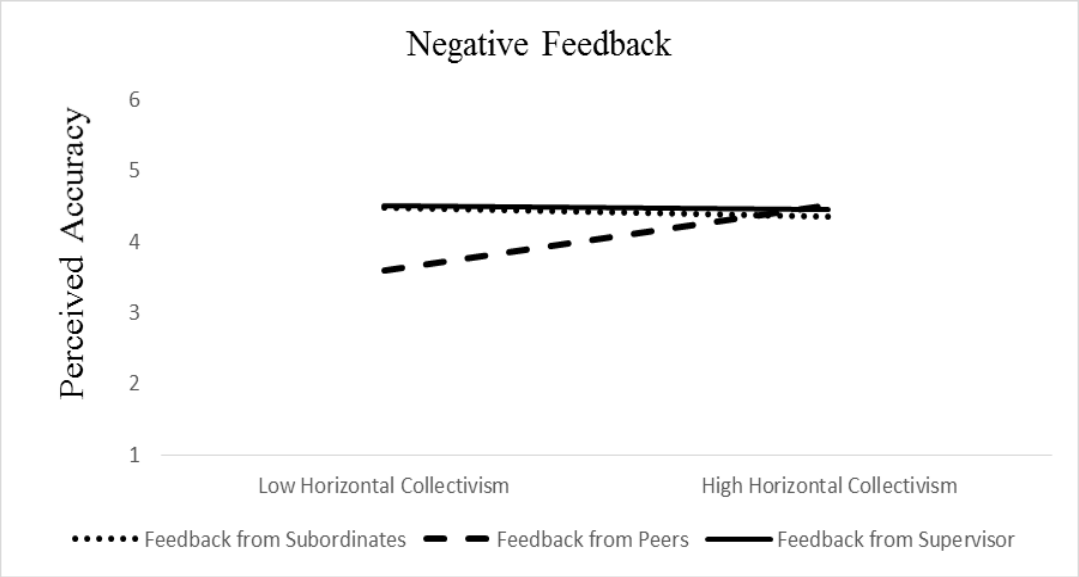

Figure 3. 4. The interaction among Feedback Source and Horizontal Collectivism in Predicting Perceived Accuracy for Negative Feedback

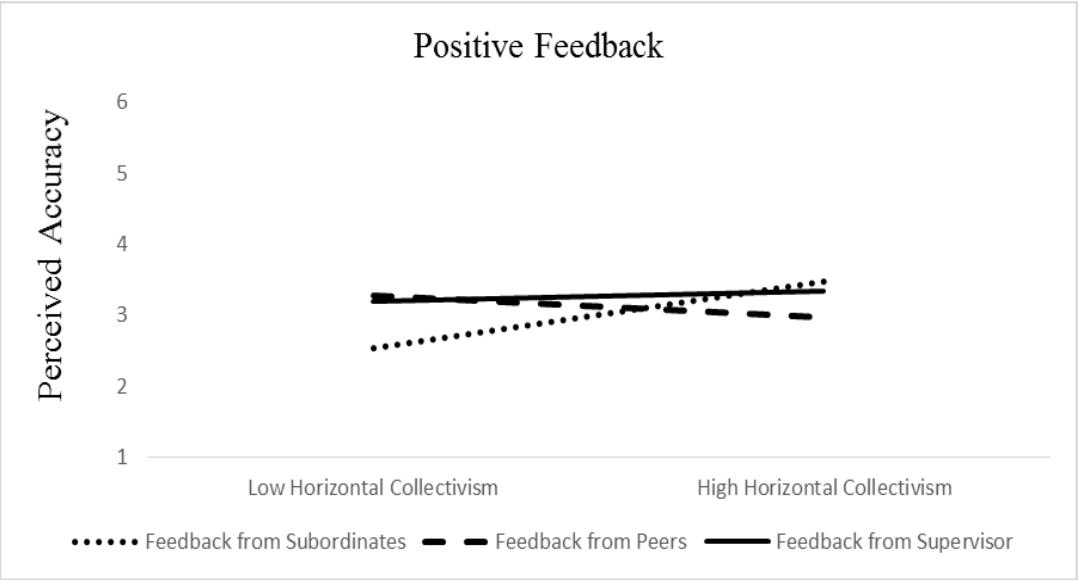

Figure 3. 5. The interaction among Feedback Source and Horizontal Collectivism in Predicting Perceived Accuracy for Positive Feedback.

For negative feedback, horizontal collectivism predicted perceived accuracy in the peer condition, but not in the subordinate and supervisor conditions. On the other hand, for positive feedback, horizontal collectivism predicted perceived accuracy in the subordinate condition, but not in the supervisor and peer conditions. In sum, participants were influenced more by horizontal collectivism in evaluating negative feedback when it came from peers, but they were influenced more by horizontal collectivism in evaluating positive feedback, when feedback was provided by subordinates.

The three-way interaction effects including either of horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism, and vertical individualism, on the three types of reactions to feedback were found to be non-significant. Tabulated results are presented in Appendix L, Appendix M, and Appendix N. Nevertheless, there were two-way interactions between source and cultural orientations.

The two-way interaction effects including either of horizontal individualism, vertical collectivism, and horizontal collectivism, on the three types of reactions to feedback were found to be non-significant. Tabulated results are presented in Appendix O, Appendix P, and Appendix R.

According to results of all regression analyses including the vertical individualism orientation, for perceived accuracy, there was a trend for interaction (according to $p = .10$) between vertical individualism and the subordinate and supervisor comparison ($\beta = .16$, $B = .42$, $t = 1.71$, $p = .09$) (See Appendix S). Regression analyses conducted with contrast-coded feedback source for perceived usefulness indicated an interaction trend between vertical individualism and the peer and subordinate comparison ($\beta = -.14$, $B = -.39$, $t = -1.93$, $p = .06$).

Results of the two-way interaction effect on perceived accuracy are shown in Figure 3.6. Simple slope regression analysis showed that subordinate condition yielded a small positive association between vertical individualism and perceived accuracy ($\beta = .23$, $B = .30$, $t = 1.60$, $p = .11$), whereas supervisor and peer conditions did not ($\beta = -.10$, $B = -.12$, $t = -.77$, $p = .44$, $\beta = .06$, $B = .07$, $t = .52$, $p = .601$). Even though the moderated regression analysis indicated an interaction effect for vertical individualism and the supervisor-subordinate comparison, effect of vertical

individualism on perceived accuracy was small. Although the vertical individualism-accuracy associations are in opposing directions for the subordinate and supervisor conditions, the effect sizes of slopes are too small to detect a significant effect with sample sizes around 65.

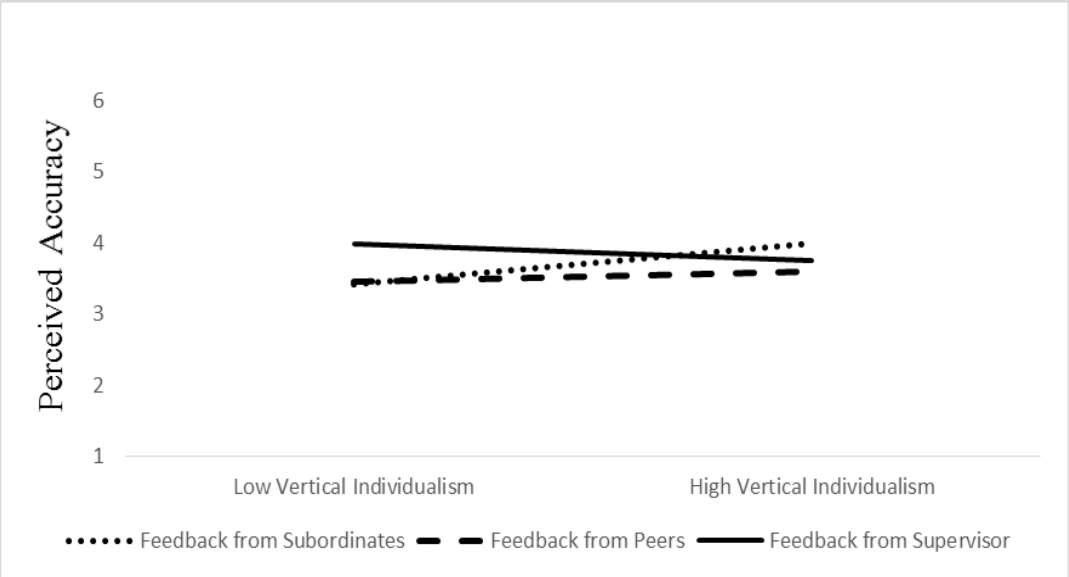

Figure 3. 6. The Interaction between Feedback Source (supervisor versus peers; supervisor versus subordinates) and Vertical Individualism in predicting Perceived Accuracy.

Results of the three-way interaction effect on perceived usefulness are shown in Figure 3.7. The results of simple slope regression analysis showed that vertical individualism had effect on perceived usefulness in the subordinates condition (β = .29, B = .32, t = 1.963, p = .051). Vertical individualism, in contrast, did not have effect on perceived usefulness in the peer and supervisor conditions (β = -.06, B = -.07, t = -.59, p = .557, β = .06, B =.06, t = .44, p = .657).

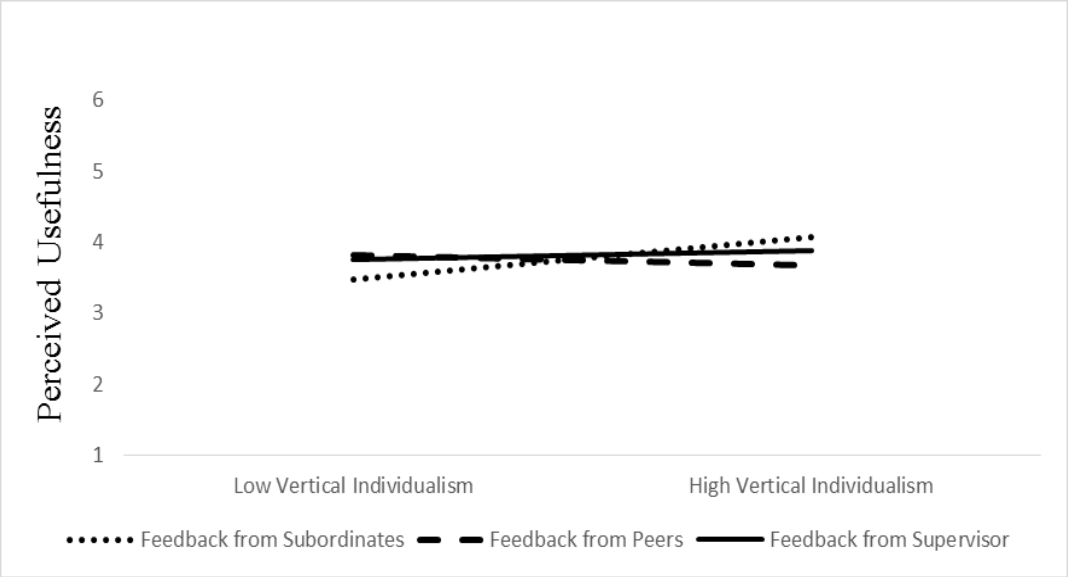

Figure 3. 7. The Interaction between Feedback Source and Vertical Individualism in Predicting Perceived Usefulness.

Taken together, the trends indicate that as levels of vertical individualism increased, participants found the feedback as more accurate and useful when it came from subordinates as compared to other sources.

According to results of all regression analyses for the interaction between cultural orientation and feedback sign on reactions, in none of the regression analyses including either of the four cultural orientation variables, was the difference between cultural orientation-reaction slopes for negative and positive feedback significant (See Appendix T).

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

4.1. Overview

The aim of the study was to examine the effect of feedback source on reactions to feedback operationalized as perceived accuracy, usefulness, and affective reactions by hypothesizing that compared to feedback coming from peers and subordinates, feedback coming from a supervisor is more likely to be perceived as accurate and useful and be related to more positive affective reaction, regardless of the sign of feedback. The second aim of the study was to investigate the effect of observers' power distance and collectivism on source-reactions and sign-reaction associations. In this chapter, first the results about the hypotheses testing are discussed followed by the results about exploratory analyses. Following this, limitations and suggestions for future research, contributions and implications, and conclusions are presented.

4.2. Major Findings

Concerning Hypothesis 1, the study results showed that observers perceived the feedback coming from a supervisor as more accurate than feedback coming from peers (p = .058). Nevertheless, even though not hypothesized, source was found to have an effect on reactions depending on the feedback sign. When feedback was negative, there was a significant main effect of source on perceived accuracy. Observers perceived the feedback coming from a supervisor and from subordinates as being more accurate as compared to feedback coming from peers. Effects of source on positive affective reactions also depended on feedback sign. This time, when feedback was positive, affective reactions to feedback coming from peers were more favorable than affective reactions to feedback from subordinates. In other words, negative feedback was more likely to be perceived as accurate when it came from a supervisor and subordinates whereas positive feedback seemed more pleasing when it came from peers.

The finding that feedback was perceived to be more accurate when it was provided by a supervisor as compared to peers is consistent with the literature related to feedback source. Research showed that as the degree of perceived credibility increases, as function of expertise and trustworthiness, feedback is more likely to be perceived as an accurate representation of performance (Ilgen et al., 1979; Kinicki et al., 2004). Research on persuasion also showed that source credibility influenced persuasion (e.g., Horai et al., 1974; Ross, 1973). Similarly, power and status have been shown to be positively related to favorable reactions such as feedback acceptance and efforts to improve performance (Collins & Stukas, 2006; Fedor et al., 2001). The results of Greller and Herold (1975) showed that participants considered the supervisor more important source in terms of providing feedback than peers. In the literature, most studies examining user acceptance of peer evaluations indicated negative reactions to it (Cederblom & Lounsbury, 1980; Love 1981). Consistent with these findings, in the study, participants perceived a supervisor to be more of an expert and to have provided more accurate feedback than peers.

The study also showed that although a supervisor was perceived as having more expertise than subordinates, participant reactions did not differ between the supervisor and subordinate conditions in terms of all types of reactions. Further, both subordinate assessments and supervisor assessments were perceived as more accurate than peer assessments for negative feedback. When feedback was negative, accuracy perceptions of subordinate evaluations were just as favorable as those for supervisory feedback, suggesting that subordinate assessment was perceived as relevant. Although perceived credibility (Ilgen et al., 1979; Kinicki et al., 2004) might explain why feedback coming from a supervisor was perceived to be more accurate, credibility in itself seems to fall short in explaining why subordinate feedback was also perceived to be more accurate than peer feedback. However, this finding is consistent with results of Bernadin and Dahmus (1993) indicating employees have favorable attitudes toward subordinate assessments. Similarly, Sümer and Bilgiç (2006) showed that participants reacted more favorably to subordinate assessments than peer assessements. Further, according to Facteau et al. (1998) when leaders believed that subordinates had the ability to assess leaders, subordinate assessment

was more useful. This effect was not found for peer assessments. That is, in this study, it could be said that participants perceived subordinates had the necessary ability to evaluate a supervisor especially when feedback was negative because observers perceived subordinate assessments as more accurate than peer assessments in the negative feedback condition. Another plausible explanation concerning why accuracy is more related with supervisor and subordinate (negative) feedback could be the fact that both of these sources have a close yet professionally defined work relationship with the ratee. This relationship is defined by the organizational hierarchy but not personal preferences which may play a greater role in the coworker relationships. Negative feedback, actually any feedback for that matter, coming from peers may be assumed to be influenced by a host of social-relational factors, and hence be perceived as less accurate compared to negative feedback coming from supervisors and subordinates. Thus, for negative feedback, participants were in favor of subordinate assessments rather than peer assessments. Further, the effect of source on the accuracy dimension of reactions was stronger for negative feedback. This is congruent with the findings indicating that the status of rater had more important effect on acceptance of feedback for negative or self-inconsistent feedback (Collins & Stakus, 2006; Halperin et al., 1976).

Taken as a whole, results of the present study are also consistent with the results of Entrekin and Chung (2001) and Sümer and Bilgiç (2006). Sümer and Bilgiç (2006) showed that users were more careful regarding the use of peer assessments in the Turkish context. According to the authors, despite the fact that participants did not have strong negative reactions for the use of peer assessments, they thought that incorporating peer assessment to the MSF system could have negative effects on relationships in the organizational environment. Their results also showed that reactions to subordinate evaluations were more favorable than those to peer evaluations. Consistent with these results, reactions of both American and Hong Kong Chinese supervisors in US firms were more favorable toward subordinate assessments rather than peer assessments (Entrekin & Chung, 2001). Hence, it seems to be plausible to suggest that participants could see the feedback from subordinates

as very relevant for evaluations and reactions toward the assessment were more positive as compared to peer evaluations in terms of perceived accuracy.

The finding that affective reactions were more positive when peers gave positive feedback as compared to subordinates is also consistent with the expectation of Brett and West (2001). More specifically, they suggested that some employees anticipate receiving favorable ratings from peers as compared to other rating sources due to having non-work and informal contact with their peers. Similarly, Mcevoy and Buller (1987) found that participants reacted more favorably to peer assessment when peers were perceived as more lenient. Although in the present study affective reactions were not found to be significantly different across sources when the performance feedback was negative, there was a tendency for affective reactions. Specifically, observers assessed that positive affective reactions to negative feedback from peers (M = 2.75) were lower than the affective reactions to feedback from subordinates (M = 2.87). In fact, the highest positive affective reactions were observed for the positive feedback from peer condition, the lowest positive affective reactions were observed for negative feedback from peer condition. Taken together, it could be said that peer ratings respond to social needs such as approval and acceptance.

Despite the fact that there was no hypothesis about the main effect of the feedback sign on reactions, the results indicated a main effect of feedback sign on reactions. More specifically, observers, who were provided negative performance ratings from one of three sources, perceived the feedback as more accurate and useful than those, who were provided with positive performance ratings. This finding contradicts previous research. Many studies found that feedback receivers have tendency to accept positive feedback than negative feedback (Anseel & Lievens, 2006; Halperin et al., 1976). In studies examining feedback sign on acceptance, the feedback participants were receiving was targeted to their own performance, not to the performance of a third party. However, in the present study, performance feedback that was evaluated by participants was targeted to the performance of a third party, an employee that the participant was not acquainted. Hence, this contradiction could be associated with actor-observer differences (See Jones

& Nisbett, 1971; Miller & Norman, 1975). When people assess their own performance, that is when they are the actor, they tend to attribute their performance deficiency to particular external causes rather than bad or mediocre performance and thus they are more likely to accept positive feedback than negative feedback. However, when people observe others' performance, they tend to attribute performance deficiencies to negative personality characteristics and they are more likely to accept negative feedback than positive feedback. Nevertheless, since current study results concerning source effects are parallel to results of studies which performance feedback was targeted to the self, another plausible explanation to the contradictory finding regarding feedback sign could be proposed. It could be that participants perceived the negative feedback as more accurate because they considered the presentation as worse than expected (M = 2.59, SD = .95) in the study. Despite these explanations, related to the unexpected findings, the results of Şahan (2013) indicated that participants benefited from negative feedback more than positive feedback in terms of performance improvement. Therefore, it could be said that negative feedback has more of an informative value than positive feedback and that's why reactions to negative feedback could be more favorable in terms of accuracy and usefulness. The other finding is that positive feedback from one of three sources was related to more positive affective reactions than negative feedback. This is consistent with the results of previous studies indicating that positive feedback is associated with positive affective reactions such as satisfaction and desirability (Dipboye & de Pontbriand, 1981; Morran & Stockton, 1980). Taking all these results together, it could be said that subordinate and supervisor feedback have informative value as opposed to the social function of positive feedback from peers.

The investigation of cultural orientations in relation to feedback source did not yield empirical support for the two-way interaction hypotheses. Despite the fact that I expected an interaction effect of power distance and feedback source on reactions to feedback, results failed to support this expectation. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. However the level of power distance was quite low and there was a range restriction in the sample (M = 2.39, SD = .82), which could partially explain non-significant interaction effects.

Effects of collectivism on reactions did depend on the feedback source, however in an unexpected direction. I had hypothesized that, as collectivism increases supervisory feedback would be welcome more than non-traditional sources but results of the present study showed that peer feedback resulted in more positive affective reactions as collectivism increased. This effect was not observed for supervisory feedback hence Hypothesis 3 was not supported. The finding might be misleading because the relationship between collectivism and feedback source differ depending on the sign of feedback, as will be discussed. Similarly, although I expected a two-way interaction effect of collectivism and feedback sign on reactions, the results showed that there was no interaction effect. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. The non-significant interaction between feedback sign and collectivism could be explained such that even though collectivists may be unwilling to provide and receive negative feedback, if they receive negative ratings, they may not react unfavorably for the sake of harmony.

Exploration of three-way interactions pointed out certain trends. There was a three-way interaction of collectivism, sign, and the feedback source comparing the feedback from supervisor with the feedback from subordinates. There was also a three-way interaction of collectivism, sign, and the feedback source comparing the feedback from peers with the feedback from subordinates. More specifically, as participants' collectivism levels increased, affective reactions to negative feedback also increased in the subordinate condition. On the other hand, for positive feedback, supervisor and peer conditions yielded a small positive association between collectivism and affective reactions, whereas subordinate conditions did not. These findings suggest that when the participants' levels of collectivism increased, affective reactions to feedback from a supervisor and peers also increased, but only for positive feedback. This finding is consistent with Hypothesis 3 that asserted that observers with high collectivism provide more favorable reactions for supervisor feedback. Collectivist cultures have a tendency for being hierarchical and reacting more favorably to authoritarian leadership styles than individualist cultures (Earley & Gibson, 1998; Kennis, 1977). Further, the finding could support the argument that for relationship-oriented individuals, positive feedback from peers may be especially

valuable and socially functional. In sum, collectivist observers provided more favorable evaluations for affective reactions to positive feedback coming from a supervisor and peers whereas they provided more favorable evaluations for affective reactions to negative feedback coming from subordinates. This suggested that highly collectivist participants could be more ready for negative feedback from subordinates, but they expect receiving positive feedback from supervisors and peers. This is consistent with results of Brett and Atwater (2001), which is that participants did not give more negative reactions to lower ratings from subordinates. It should also be remembered that independent of collectivism, positive feedback from peers also resulted in more positive affective reactions than that from subordinates. This was supported by Mcevoy and Buller (1987) who showed that when peers were more lenient, participants showed more favorable reactions.

Taking all these findings into consideration, generally, participants react less favorably to peer assessments rather than supervisory and subordinate assessments. This finding is generally consistent with results of previous studies. Our sample participants have high collectivism (M = 3.98, SD = .68), suggesting that the results are consistent with our sample characteristics. Highly collectivist societies do not take to peer assessments due to perceived threats to group harmony and the quality of co-worker relationships (Entrekin & Chung, 2001; Huo & Von Glinow, 1995; Sümer & Bilgiç, 2006). Therefore, among the non-traditional feedback sources, subordinate assessments could be viewed as more favorable in terms of perceived accuracy, especially in the Turkish context. In contrast, results of the present study indicated that as observers' levels of collectivim increased, reactions to feedback were more favorable in terms of affective reactions. In this vein, while observers perceived negative feedback as more accurate and useful, they assessed positive feedback as resulting in more positive affective recations. All these results suggested that positive affective reactions to feedback and other reactions (perceived usefulness and accuracy) work differently in a negative way, which is contrary to previous research. More speficially, they are negatively associated with each other and are affected by source and sign, differently.

4.3. Limitations and Future Suggestions

The current study is believed to make some important contributions to the literature by examining the moderating role of cultural orientations on feedback source-reaction and feedback sign-reaction as well as the effect of feedback source and sign on reactions. Nevertheless, the present study has also some limitations. The major limitation is that participants assessed the feedback provided for an employee instead of feedback provided for their own performance (See Jones & Nisbett, 1971; Miller & Norman, 1975). This limitation has a potential to influence the study results, especially the effect of feedback sign on reactions. Further, as participants watched the performance, they probably generated an expectation about the nature of the performance feedback before evaluating the feedback. Specifically, while people perform a task, they do not have the opportunity to observe themselves, objectively. However, in the study, all participants watched the presentation performance and then assessed the feedback provided. Taken together, future studies should design experiments in which each participant receives personal feedback and then the reactions to personal feedback should be investigated by examining the effect of feedback source.

Second, student participants were used in the study and thus they might not be familiar with work contexts and performance feedback. Future studies could be conducted in field settings. Further, the sample characteristics could also have distorted the results, especially those related to power distance. College students are likely to have more liberal and egalitarian attitudes and also to have relatively low levels of power distance as compared to the general population. Turkey is a country characterized by high power distance (Hosftede, 2001). Hence, this study needs to be replicated using more representative Turkish samples.

According to results of Krahe, Becker, and Zöllter (2008), personality measures are sensitive to response distortion triggered by contextual cues. Their findings indicated that when participants are exposed to contextual cues increasing the accessibility of cognition associated with extraversion by showing written or video-typed personality description of an extravert, they reported themselves as more extraverted than those in the control condition. Personality test scores could change

as a function of contextual cues. The same effect may have operated for the cultural orientation measures in the present study. That is, the cultural orientation test could have failed to capture stable individual differences in terms of power distance within egalitarian university samples.

Explicit measures were used to measures cultural orientations as well as reactions to feedback, which may have triggered a need to provide socially desirable responses. According to James and Mazerolle (2002), tendency of faking and/or socially desirable responding to items of the scale is a crucial problem. Failure to control for the tendency of socially desirable responding might be considered a potential methodological problem for the current study as it is with all studies that use self-reported personality measures. Future studies could combine implicit measures such as the Implicit Association Test (See Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998) with explicit measures in assessing cultural orientations and reactions to feedback in tackling this methodological problem and capturing stable individual differences in terms of cultural orientations.

4.4. Contributions and Implication of the Study

The present study contributed to the literature by empirically showing the effect of feedback source on reactions. Generally, results supported that participants were more favorable towards supervisory and subordinate assessments. This finding suggested that incorporating peer assessments into the MSF processes could be problematic in the Turkish context. Subordinate evaluations, instead of peer assessments, could be used. Further, the study also contributed to literature by showing interactive effects of feedback source, cultural orientations, and feedback sign. In other words, collectivism affects reactions depending on feedback source and sign. More specifically, collectivist observers provided more favorable evaluations for affective reactions to positive feedback in the supervisor and peer conditions, whereas they provided more favorable evaluations for affective reactions to negative feedback in the subordinate condition. Thus, it could be said that collectivist participants were more ready for negative feedback from subordinates. Finally, the results of the study showed that positive affective reactions to feedback and other

reactions (perceived usefulness and accuracy) work differently in a negative way, which is contrary to previous research. More speficially, they are negatively associated and are affected by source and sign, differently.

4.5. Conclusions

1) Different reactions to identical feedback from different sources: The present study showed that employees could react differently to the identical feedback from different sources because of the status differences along the organizational hierarchy. Generally, independent of the sign of feedback, supervisory feedback was perceived to be more accurate than the feedback from peers.

2) Different patterns of relationship for positive and negative feedback: For negative feedback, the feedback coming from both supervisors and subordinates was perceived as more accurate than the feedback from peers. Further, the results of the present study supported for the notion that participants expected favorable ratings from peers and thus, positive feedback coming from peers was more likely to receive positive affective reactions than that coming from subordinates. Affective reactions to peer assessments were highest although there was no significant difference between peer and supervisor assessments.

3) Taking all findings into consideration, among the non-traditional feedback sources, participants were in favor of subordinate assessments than peer assessments, in the study sample.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

REACTION SCALE

Aşağıdaki bölümde, yönetici adayının videoda gösterilen performansına yönelik aldığı geribildirim ile ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne oranda katıldığınızı aşağıdaki altı aralıklı ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle Katılıyorum**

VİDEODA GÖSTERİLEN PERFORMANSI VE BU PERFORMANSINA YÖNELİK <u>ASTLARDAN</u> GELEN GERİBİLDİRİMİ DEĞERLENDİRDİĞİMDE,

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Pek Katılmıyorum**	**Biraz Katılıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
PA	1. Verilen performans geribildiriminin kişinin performansını doğru şekilde yansıttığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	2. Verilen geribildirimin bu kişiye değerli bir bilgi sağladığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PA	3. Verilen performans geribildiriminin kişinin performansıyla uyuştuğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
AR	4. Verilen geribildirimini tatmin edici buldum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	5. Verilen geribildirimin bu kişinin performansını geliştirmesine yardımcı olacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
AR	6. Verilen performans geribildirimini motive edici buldum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
AR	7. Verilen geribildiriminin bu kişiyi memnun edeceğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	8. Verilen performans geribildiriminin hata içerdiğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Pek Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
PU	9. Verilen geribildirimin bu kişinin performansını geliştirmesi için yeterli olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	10. Verilen geribildirimin kişinin öz yeterliliğini (bir kişinin bir faaliyeti sergileyebilmesine ilişkin kendini değerlendirmesi) geliştirmesi için aracı olabileceğini düşünmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
AR	11. Verilen geribildirimin bu kişide öfke duygusuna yol açabileceğini düşünmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	12. Verilen geribildirimi performansı geliştirmeye yönelik teşvik edici buldum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
AR	13. Verilen geribildirimin eleştirilmiş olma hissine yol açabileceğini düşünmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PA	14. Yönetici adayının performansının değerlendiriciler tarafından doğru bir şekilde gözlendiğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	15. Verilen geribildirimin bu kişi için yararlı olacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
AR	16. Verilen geribildirimin bu kişide hayal kırıklığına yol açabileceğini düşünmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
PU	17. Verilen geribildirimini performansı geliştirmeye yönelik bilgi verici buldum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Note. PA= Perceived Accuracy; PU= Perceived Usefulness; AR= Positive Affective Reactions.

APPENDIX B

ÇALIŞMA HAKKINDA BİLGİ

Değerli Katılımcı,

Öncelikle çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için çok teşekkür ederiz. Çalışmanın amacı, performansa yönelik geribildirimin etkililiğini değerlendirmektir.

Birazdan bir üst düzey yöneticilik pozisyonu için aday olan ve bu amaçla bir ölçme değerlendirme merkezi (Assessment Center) değerlendirmesine tabi tutulan bir çalışanın 5 dakikalık sunum performansı gösterilecektir. Gerçekte bu sunumu yapmış olan adayın sunumu **astları*** tarafından değerlendirilmiş bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenen astların vermiş olduğu geribildirimin etkililiğini değerlendirmenizdir.

Dikkat edilmesi gereken hususlar

- Üst düzey yönetici adayının videodaki sunum performansını **dikkatlice** izlemeniz,
- Astları tarafından verilen geribildirimi **dikkatlice** incelemeniz,
- Bu sunum performansı için astları tarafından verilen geribildirimin etkililiğini **özenli bir şekilde** değerlendirmeniz bu araştırma için çok büyük önem taşımaktadır.

APPENDIX C

PRESENTATION PERFORMANCE EVALUATION FORM

1. Sunumun bilgilendiricilik derecesini aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinden değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Zayıf				Çok başarılı

2. Sunumda kullanılan materyallerin etkililiğini aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinden değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Zayıf				Çok başarılı

3. Sunum yapan kişinin dinleyiciler tarafından yönlendirilen soruları cevaplamadaki etkililiğini aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinden değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Zayıf				Çok başarılı

4. **Sunum yapan kişiyi** genel olarak aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinden değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Zayıf				Çok başarılı

5. **Sunumun** genel etkililiğini aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinden değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Zayıf				Çok başarılı

APPENDIX D

[redacted] PERFORMANS DEĞERLENDİRME FORMU

Değerlendirilen kişi: [redacted] Görevi: Proje Grup Lideri

Değerlendirilme Tarihi: Ocak, 2013 Değerlendiren kişi: [redacted]

Sayın Değerlendirici,

Aşağıda sunulan 5 aşamalı değerlendirmeyi kullanarak lütfen sunumunu izlediğiniz adayın performansını değerlendiriniz.

Her boyutun altındaki her bir davranış için ayrı değerlendirme yapınız. Örneğin eğer performansını gözlediğiniz kişi sunum yaparken çoğunlukla etkili bir şekilde göz teması kurmuşsa, "Sunum yaparken etkili bir şekilde göz teması kurdu." davranışı ile ilgili bu çalışanın alacağı puan 4 olmalıdır.

1	2	3	4	5
Nadiren	**Arasıra**	**Oldukça sık**	**Çoğunlukla**	**Her zaman**

Beden dilinin etkili kullanılması: *Sunum yapan kişinin bedenini, sesini ve yüz ifadelerini etkili kullanması.*

1. Etkili bir şekilde göz teması kurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kendine güvenli gözüktü.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Keyifli bir yüz ifadesine sahipti.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Beden hareketleri uygun ve etkiliydi.	1	2	3	4	5

Sözel ifade becerisi: *Sunum yapan kişinin aktarmak istediklerini anlaşılır şekilde aktarması.*

5. Aktaracaklarını açık bir şekilde aktardı.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Dili uygun şekilde kullandı.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sesini etkili şekilde kullandı.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Vurgu ve tonlamayı uygun şekilde yaptı.	1	2	3	4	5

Organizasyon: *Sunumdaki bilgilerin sistematik, organize ve mantıksal bir sıra içerisinde aktarılması.*

7. Konuları sistematik ve organize bir şekilde ele aldı.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Konuları mantık çerçevesinde sıralı şekilde ele aldı.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Verdiği örnekler konu ile ilişkiliydi.	1	2	3	4	5

Konuya hâkimiyet: *Sunum yapan kişinin konuyu iyi derecede bilmesi.*

9. Konu ile ilgili sorulan soruları uygun ve konuya hâkim şekilde cevapladı.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Dinleyicileri konu ile ilgili yeterli derecede bilgilendirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Genel olarak konuya hakim olduğu hissini katılımcılara verebildi	1	2	3	4	5
12. Açıklamalarını ikna edici kanıtlar ile destekledi	1	2	3	4	5

Kullanılan materyalin etkililiği: *Sunumdaki materyallerin etkili şekilde kullanılması.*

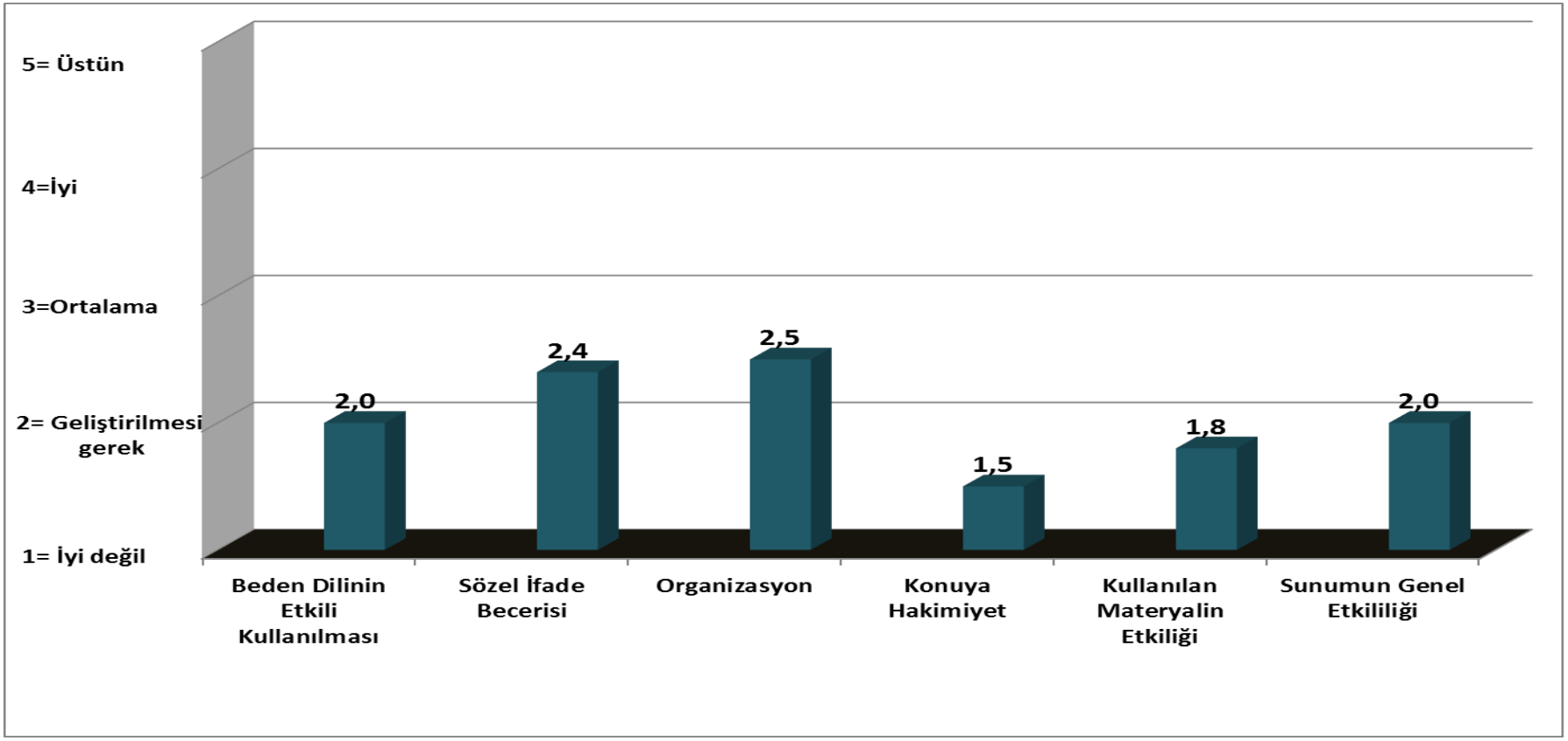
13. Kullandığı slâytların takibi kolaydı.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kullandığı slâytlarda konu ile ilgili önemli noktalar yer aldı.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Kullandığı slâytlarda konu ile ilişkili görseller yer almaktaydı.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Slâytlardaki önemli noktaları takip edebilecek kadar yeterli zamanı sağladı.	1	2	3	4	5

Genel sunum performansının değerlendirmesini aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinde nereye yerleştireceğinizi işaretleyiniz.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
İyi değil	**Gelişime açık alanlar var**	**Ortalama**	**İyi**	**Üstün**

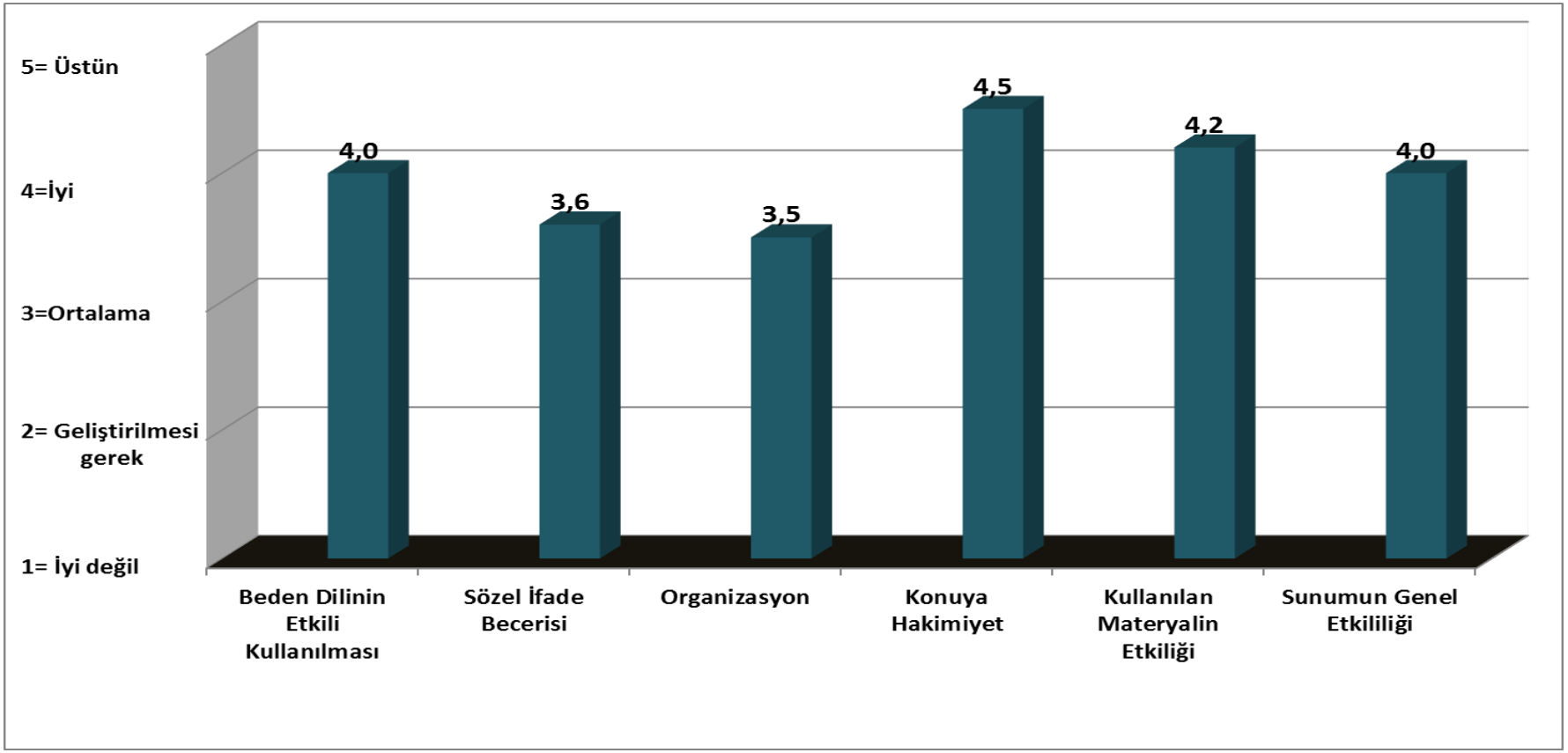
APPENDIX E

ADAYIN ASTLARINDAN ALDIĞI PERFORMANS DEĞERLENDİRMESİNİN BOYUT BAZINDAKİ ORTALAMALARI



APPENDIX F

ADAYIN ASTLARINDAN ALDIĞI PERFORMANS DEĞERLENDİRMESİNİN BOYUT BAZINDAKİ ORTALAMALARI



APPENDIX G

RESULTS of PAF ON VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM SCALE

Item #	Vertical Individualism	Horizontal Individualism	Horizontal Collectivism	Vertical Collectivism
12. Başkası benden daha başarılı olduğu zaman kendimi gergin ve kamçılanmış hissederim.	**.74**			
4. Başkaları benden daha başarılı olduğunda rahatsız olurum.	**.68**			
2. Kazanmak her şeydir.	**.66**			
9. Rekabet doğanın kanunudur.	**.65**			
26. Rekabet olmadan iyi bir toplum düzeni kurulamaz.	**.62**			.32
30. Başkalarıyla rekabet edebileceğim ortamlarda çalışmak hoşuma gider.	**.61**			.32
34. Başarı hayattaki en önemli şeydir.	**.60**			
6. İşimi başkalarından daha iyi yapmak benim için önemlidir.	**.60**			
20. Bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.		**.84**		
18. Başkalarından bağımsız bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.		**.76**		
21. Ben başkalarından ayrı özgün bir bireyim.		**.71**		
11. Özgün bir birey olmak benim için önemlidir.		**.69**		
23. Kendine özgü ve başkalarından farklı olmaktan hoşlanırım.		**.65**		
13. Çoğu zaman kendi bildiğim gibi yaşarım.		**.50**		
27. İnsan hayatını başkalarından bağımsız olarak yaşamalıdır.		**.48**		
31. İnsanlara açık ve dosdoğru konuşmayı tercih ederim.		**.45**		
15. Başkalarına güvenmektense kendime güvenirim.		**.32**		
1. Benim mutluluğum çevremdekilerin mutluluğuna çok bağlıdır.			**.69**	
24. Bir karar vermeden önce yakın arkadaşlara danışıp onların fikirlerini almak önemlidir.			**.58**	
8. İş arkadaşlarımın iyiliği benim için önemlidir.			**.56**	
29. Başkalarıyla işbirliği yaptığım zaman kendimi iyi hissederim.			**.54**	
33. Benim için zevk başkalarıyla vakit geçirmektir.			**.51**	
3. Yakın çevrem için kişisel çıkarlarımdan fedakarlık ederim.			**.48**	
5. Yakın çevremdekilerin birbiriyle uyumunu muhafaza etmek benim için önemlidir.			**.46**	

RESULTS of PAF ON VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM SCALE (CONTINUED)

	Vertical Individualism	Horizontal individualism	Horizontal Collectivism	Vertical collectivism
10. Özgün bir birey olmak benim için önemlidir.			**.39**	
25. Maddi güçlük içinde olan bir akrabama imkânlarım ölçüsünde yardım ederim.			**.39**	
7. Komşularımla ufak tefek şeyleri paylaşmak hoşuma gider.			**.34**	
17. Anne-baba ve çocuklar mümkün olduğu kadar birlikte kalmalıdırlar.				**.71**
19. Kendi isteklerimden fedakarlık yapmak gerekirse de aileme bakmak benim görevimdir.				**.67**
16. Ne kadar fedakarlık gerekirse gereksin aile üyeleri birbirlerine kenetlenmelidir.			.33	**.63**
28. Çok hoşuma giden şeyden ailem onaylamazsa vazgeçerim.				**.61**
32. Çocuklara vazifenin eğlenceden önce geldiği öğretilmedir.				**.46**
37. Ailemi memnun edecek şeyleri nefret etsem de yaparım.				**.45**
Eigenvalues:	**5.54**	**5.31**	**3.32**	**1.95**
Explained Variance %:	**11.74**	**11.57**	**9.46**	**9.40**
Cronbach Alpha:	**.86**	**.82**	**.79**	**.82**

* Factor loadings written in bold refer to factors under which items loaded.

APPENDIX H

RESULTS of PAF ON POWER DISTANCE AND COLLECTIVISM SCALE

Item #	Collectivism	Power Distance
22. Grup çıkarları kişisel çıkarların önünde gelir.	**.73**	
19. Kendi isteklerinden fedakarlık yapmak gerekse bile yakını olan kişilerle ilgilenmek herkesin görevidir.	**.72**	
16. Ne kadar fedakarlık gerektirirse gerektirsin, grup üyeleri (aile üyeleri, iş arkadaşları vs.) birbirlerine bağlı kalmalıdır.	**.70**	
17. Çalışma arkadaşlarının mutluluğu ve iyiliği kişiler için çok önemli olmalıdır.	**.63**	
18. Çevresinin talepleri ne kadar zahmet verse de kişiden bağlı olduğu topluluğa sadık kalması beklenir.	**.62**	
24. Ebeveynler ve çocuklar mümkün olabildiğince birbirlerine bağlı kalmalıdır.	**.52**	
20. Kişi bağlı olduğu gruptan destek ve himaye bekliyorsa ona sadık olmalıdır.	**.51**	
25. İnsanlar mensubu olduğunu hissettiği gruplar tarafından alınan kararlara saygı göstermelidir.	**.50**	
15. İnsanlar, çalışma arkadaşlarının takdir veya başarı kazanmasından gurur duymalıdır.	**.37**	
14. Kişinin yakın çevresinin (aile, akrabalar, dostlar) istekleri külfetli de olsa bunlara uymak gerekir.	**.36**	
23. Kişilerin başkalarıyla iş birliği yapması kendilerini iyi hissettirir.	**.34**	
21. Mutluluk, çevremizdeki insanlarla vakit geçirmektir.	**.32**	
4. Makam sahibi kişilere konumları gereği saygı gösterilmelidir.		**.74**
5. Makam sahibi ve statü sahibi kişiler özel ayrıcalıklara ve imtiyazlara sahip olmalıdırlar.		**.73**
14. Toplumdaki kişiler arasında statü farkı olması kabul edilebilir.		**.62**
3. Aileler çocuklarına büyüklerine karşı itaatkar olmaları gerektiği öğretmelidir.		**.62**
7. Otorite sahibi kişilerin talepleri her zaman yerine getirilmelidir.		**.60**
1. Bir toplumda otorite konusunda hiyerarşi olması gerekir.		**.56**
6. Öğrenciler öğretmenleriyle fikir çatışmasına girmemelidir.		**.44**
Eigenvalues:	**5.50**	**2.45**
Explained Variance %:	**25.80**	**9.80**
Cronbach Alpha:	**.84**	**.81**

* Factor loadings written in bold refer to factors under which items loaded.

APPENDIX I

THE THREE-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF POWER DISTANCE, FEEDBACK SIGN, AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Power Distance, Dummy Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			Perceived Usefulness			Affective Reactions		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.11***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.16***	-.48***		-.67***	-.32***		1.62***	.74***	
PD	.09	.06		.18*	.14*		.02	.01	
SV vs P	-.37*	-.15*		-.08	-.04		.08	.04	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.05		-.01	-.01		-.13	-.06	
Step 2			.02			.02			.02
PD* SV vs P	.21	.08		.01	.00		.06	.02	
PD* SV vs SB	.13	.04		-.05	-.02		.11	.04	
PD*sign	.26	.12		.19	.10		.04	.02	
Sign* SV vs P	.33	.10		.19	.07		.20	.07	
Sign* SV vs SB	-.13	-.04		-.44	-.16		-.46+	-.16+	
Step 3			.01			.00			.00
PD*Sign*SV vs P	.38	.11		-.03	-.01		-.23	-.07	
PD*Sign*SVvs SB	-.29	-.07		-.11	-.03		-.26	-.07	

Note. PD = Power Distance; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ***p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Power Distance, Contrast Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			Perceived Usefulness			Affective Reactions		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.11***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.16***	-.48***		-.67***	-.32***		1.62***	.74***	
PD	.09	.06		.18*	.14*		.02	.01	
SV vs others	-.25	-.10		-.05	-.02		-.02	-.10	
P vs SB	-.23	-.08		-.07	-.03		.21	.08	
Step 2			.02			.02			.02
PD*SV vs others	.17	.06		-.02	-.01		.08	.03	
PD*P vs SB	.08	.02		.06	.02		-.06	-.02	
PD*sign	.26	.12		.19	.10		.04	.02	
Sign* SV vs others	.10	.03		-.13	-.04		-.13	-.04	
Sign* P vs SB	.46	.11		.63+	.18+		.67	.18	
Step 3			.01			.00			.00
PD*Sign*SV vs oth.	.05	.01		-.07	-.02		-.24	-.06	
PD*Sign* P vs SB	.67	.13		.08	.02		.04	.01	

Note. PD = Power Distance; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ***p* < .001.

APPENDIX J

THE THREE-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF COLLECTIVISM, FEEDBACK SIGN, AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Collectivism, Dummy Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.10***			.56***
Feedback sign	-1.16***	-.48***		-.68***	-.32***		1.58***	.72***	
Collectivism	.10	.05		.19	.12		.14	.09	
SV vs P	-.37*	-.15*		-.09	-.04		.09	.04	
SV vs SB	-.15	-.06		-.04	-.02		-.14	-.06	
Step 2			.01			.02			.02
C*SV vs P	.22	.08		-.17	-.06		.02	.01	
C*SV vs SB	-.02	-.01		.07	.02		.09	.03	
C*sign	-.01	-.00		.18	.09		.14	.06	
Sign* SV v P	.27	.08		.17	.06		.17	.06	
Sign* SV v SB	-.12	-.04		-.58	-.20		-.49+	-.17+	
Step 3			.00			.00			.01
C*Sign* SV v P	-.44	-.10		.37	.09		-.05	-.01	
C*Sign* SV v SB	-.26	-.04		-.08	-.01		-.86*	-.15*	

Note. C = Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
* *p* <.05; ****p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Collectivism, Contrast Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.10***			.56***
Feedback sign	-1.16***	-.48***		-.68***	-.32***		1.58***	.72***	
Collectivism	.10	.05		.19*	.12*		.14	.09	
SV vs others	-.26	-.10		-.06	-.03		-.03	-.01	
P vs SB	-.22	-.08		-.05	-.02		.23	.08	
Step 2			.01			.02			.02
C*SV vs othes	.10	.03		-.05	-.02		.06	.02	
C* P vs SB	.24	.05		-.24	-.06		-.07	-.02	
C*sign	-.01	-.00		.18	.07		.14	.06	
Sign* SV vs others	.07	.02		-.20	-.06		-.16	-.05	
Sign* P vs SB	.39	.09		.75*	.21*		.66*	.17*	
Step 3			.00			.00			.01
C*Sign* SV vs oth.	-.35	-.07		.14	.03		-.45	-.10	
C*Sign* P vs SB	-.19	-.03		.44	.07		.81+	.12+	

Note. C = Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ****p* < .001.

APPENDIX K

THE THREE-WAY INTERATION RESULTS OF HORIZONTAL COLLECTIVISM, FEEDBACK SIGN, and FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Collectivism, Dummy Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.24***			.10***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.15***	-.48***		-.65***	-.31***		1.61***	.73***	
HC	.14	.06		.24	.12		.11	.05	
SV vs P	-.38*	-.15*		-.10	-.04		.08	.03	
SV vs SB	-.15	-.06		-.04	-.02		-.14	-.06	
Step 2			.01		.02	.02			.02
HC*SV vs P	.06	.02		.01	.00		.09	.03	
HC*SV vs SB	.26	.06		.30	.07		.18	.04	
HC*sign	-.04	-.01		.16	.06		.12	.04	
Sign* SV vs P	.36	.11		.14	.05		.19	.06	
Sign* SV vs SB	-.13	-.04		-.54	-.19		-.46+	-.16+	
Step 3			.03*			.00			.00
HC*Sign* SVvsP	-1.34*	-.28*		.21	.05		-.10	-.02	
HC*Sign*SVvsSB	.79	.11		.70	.11		-.55	-.08	

Note. HC = Horizontal Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ***p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Collectivism, Contrast Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.24***			.10***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.15***	-.48***		-.65***	-.31***		1.61***	.73***	
HC	.14	.06		.24	.12		.11	.05	
SV vs others	-.26	-.10		-.07	-.03		-.03	-.01	
P vs SB	-.23	-.08		-.06	-.02		.22	.08	
Step 2			.01			.02			.02
HC* SVvsO	.16	.04		.16	.04		.14	.03	
HC* PvsSB	-.21	-.04		-.29	-.06		-.09	-.02	
HC*sign	-.04	-.01		.16	.06		.12	.04	
Sign* SVvsO	.11	.03		-.20	-.06		-.13	-.04	
Sign* PvsSB	.49	.12		.67+	.19+		.65*	.17*	
Step 3			.03*			.00			.00
HC*Sign*SVvsO	-.28	-.04		.46	.08		-.33	-.06	
HC*Sign*Pvs SB	-2.12 **	-.27**		-.50	-.07		.45	.06	

Note. HC = Horizontal Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
* *p* <.05; ** *p* <.01; ***p* < .001.

APPENDIX L

THE THREE-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM, FEEDBACK SIGN, AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Individualism, Dummy Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.24***			.10***			.57***
Feedback sign	-1.12***	-.47***		-.61***	-.29***		1.61**	.73**	
HI	.14	.07		.15	.09		-.25**	-.14**	
SV vs P	-.39*	-.15*		-.11	-.05		.10	.04	
SV vs SB	-.15	-.06		-.03	-.02		-.11	-.05	
Step 2			.02			.02			.02+
HI*SV vs P	.12	.04		-.04	-.02		.01	.00	
HI* SV vs SB	-.28	-.08		-.17	-.05		.12	.04	
HI*sign	-.22	-.07		-.05	-.02		-.04	-.01	
Sign* SV vs P	.39	.12		.18	.06		.23	.08	
Sign* SV vs SB	-.15	-.05		-.50	-.18		-.53*	-.18*	
Step 3			.00			.01			.00
HI*Sgn*SVvs P	-63	-.13		-.63	-.15		.06	.01	
HI*Sgn*SVvsSB	-.46	-.08		-.20	-.04		-.05	-.01	

Note. HI = Horizontal Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
* *p* <.05; ** *p* <.01; ***p < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Individualism, Contrast Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.24***			.10***			.57***
Feedback sign	-1.12***	-.47***		-.61***	-.29***		1.61***	.73**	
HI	.14	.07		.15	.09		-.25**	-.14**	
SVvsothers	-.27	-.11		-.07	-.03		-.00	-.00	
PvsSB	-.24	-.08		-.08	-.03		.21	.08	
Step 2			.02			.02			.02
HI*SVvsO	-.08	-.02		-.11	-.03		.06	.02	
HI* PvsSB	.39	.08		-.13	.03		-.11	-.02	
HI*sign	-.22	-.07		-.05	-.02		-.04	-.01	
Sign*SVvsO	.12	.04		-.16	-.05		-.15	.-05	
Sign*PvsSB	.54	.13		.68	.19		.76*	.20*	
Step 3			.00			.01			.00
HI*Sign*SVvsO	-.55	-.08		-.42	-.08		.00	.00	
HI*Sign*PvsSB	-.17	-.02		-.43	-.07		.11	.02	

Note. HI = Horizontal Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
* *p* <.05; ** *p* <.01; ***p < .001.

APPENDIX M

THE THREE-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF VERTICAL COLLECTIVISM, FEEDBACK SIGN, AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Collectivism, Dummy Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.09***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.13***	-.47***		-.62***	-.30***		1.60***	.73***	
VC	.00	.00		-.00	-.00		.06	.06	
SV vs P	-.37*	-.15*		-.09	-.04		.08	.03	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.05		-.02	-.01		-.14	-.06	
Step 2			.01			.02			.02
VC*SV vs P	.06	.02		-.18	-.09		-.01	-.00	
VC*SV vs SB	.06	.03		-.05	-.02		.01	.01	
VC*sign	-.14	-.07		-.06	-.04		-.09	-.05	
Sign* SV vs P	.38	.12		.25	.09		.22	.08	
Sign* SV vs SB	-.13	-.04		-.50	-.18		-.44+	-.15+	
Step 3			.00			.00			.00
VC*Sgn*SVvsP	-.11	-.03		.24	.07		.10	.03	
VC*Sgn*SVvsSB	.14	.04		.15	.05		-.20	-.06	

Note. VC = Vertical Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
* *p* <.05;***p < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Collectivism, Contrast Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.09***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.13***	-.47***		-.62***	-.30***		1.60***	.73***	
VC	.00	.00		.-00	-.00		.06	.05	
SVvsothers	-.26	-.10		-.06	-.02		-.03	-.01	
PvsSB	-.24	-.08		-.08	-.03		.21	.08	
Step 2			.01			.02			.02
VC*SVvsO	.06	.02		-.11	-.05		.00	.00	
VC*PvsSB	-.01	-.00		-.13	-.05		-.02	-.01	
VC*sign	-.14	-.07		-.06	-.04		-.09	-.05	
Sign*SVvsO	.12	.04		-.12	-.04		-.11	-.03	
Sign*PvsSB	.52	.12		.75*	.21*		.66*	.17*	
Step 3			.00			.00			.00
VC*SVvsO	.01	.00		.20	.06		-.05	-.01	
VC*PvsSB	-.25	-.05		.09	.02		.30	.06	

Note. VI = Vertical Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
+p < .10;* *p* <.05; ** *p* <.01; ***p < .001.

APPENDIX N

THE THREE-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF VERTICAL INDIVIDUALSIM, FEEDBACK SIGN, AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Individualism, Dummy Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			Perceived Usefulness			Affective Reactions		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.09**			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.13***	-.48***		-.63***	-.30***		1.62***	.74***	
VI	.08	.07		.08	.07		.00	.00	
SV vs P	-.36*	-.14*		-.08	-.04		.08	.04	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.05		-.02	-.01		-.13	-.06	
Step 2			.01			.03			.03*
VI*SV vs P	.12	.06		-.18	-.11		.16	.09	
VI*SV vs SB	.08	.03		.04	.02		.30*	.13*	
VI*sign	-.10	-.05		-.13	-.08		.11	.07	
Sign* SV vs P	.33	.10		.21	.08		.19	.06	
Sign* SV vs SB	-.09	-.03		-.40	-.14		-.44+	-.15+	
Step 3			.01			.01			.00
VI*Sgn*SVvsP	-.10	-.04		-.42	-.16		-.14	-.05	
VI*Sgn*SVvsSB	-.69	-.20		-.33	-.11		-.11	-.03	

Note. VI = Vertical Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ***p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Individualism, Contrast Coded Feedback Source and Feedback Sign on Reactions.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			Perceived Usefulness			Affective Reactions		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.24***			.09***			.55***
Feedback sign	-1.14***	-.48***		-.63***	-.30***		1.62***	.74***	
VI	.08	.07		.08	.07		.00	.00	
SVvsothers	-.25	-.10		-.05	-.02		-.02	-.01	
CC_PvsSB	-.22	-.08		-.06	-.02		.21	.08	
Step 2			.01			.03			.03*
VI*SVvsothers	.10	.04		-.07	-.03		.23	.09	
VI*PvsSB	.04	.02		-.22	-.08		-.14	-.05	
VI*sign	-.09	-.05		-.13	-.08		.11	.07	
Sign*SVvsO	.12	.03		-.10	-.03		-.13	-.04	
Sign*PvsSB	.42	.10		.61+	.17+		.63*	.16*	
Step 3			.01			.01			.00
VI*Sign*SVvsO	-.40	-.11		-.38	-.12		-.12	-.04	
VI*Sign*PvsSB	.59	.13		-.09	-.02		-.04	-01	

Note. VI = Vertical Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ***p* < .001.

APPENDIX O

THE TWO-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF HORIZONTAL COLLECTIVISM AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Collectivism on Dummy Coded Source-Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.02			.01			.02
HC	.02	.01		.17	.09		.28	.14	
SV vs P	-.35	-.14		-.08	-.04		.04	.02	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.06		-.03	-.01		-.15	-.06	
Step 2			.00			.00			.01
HC* SV vs P	-.12	-.03		-.04	-.01		.50	.14	
HC* SV vs SB	.24	.05		.26	.06		.18	.04	

Note. HC = Horizontal Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Collectivism on Contrast Coded Source-Reactions Relationship

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.02			.01			.02
HC	.02	.01		.17	.09		.28	.14	
SV vs O	-.24	-.10		-.06	-.03		-.06	-.02	
P vs SB	-.21	-.07		-.05	-.02		.19	.07	
Step 2			.00			.00			.01
HC*SVvsO	.06	.02		.11	.03		.34	.08	
HC*PvsSB	-.36	-.06		-.30	-.06		.33	.06	

Note. HC = Horizontal Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.

APPENDIX P

THE TWO-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDCITING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Individualism on Dummy Coded Source-Reactions Relationship

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.02			.01			.04
HI	.18	.09		.18	.10		-.32*	-.18*	
SV vs P	-.37	-.14		-.10	-.04		.08	.03	
SV vs SB	-.16	-.06		-.04	-.02		-.10	-.04	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
HI* SV vs P	.15	.05		-.03	-.01		.02	.01	
HI* SV vs SB	.14	.04		.11	.04		-.25	-.07	

Note. HI = Horizontal Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
* p <.05.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Individualism on Contrast Coded Source-Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.02			.01			.04
HI	.18	.09		.18	.10		-.32*	-.18*	
SV vs othes	-.26	-.10		-.07	-.03		-.01	-.01	
P vs SB	-.21	-.07		-.06	-.02		.18	.07	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
HI*SV vs O	.14	.03		.04	.01		-.11	-.03	
HI* P vs SB	.01	.00		-.14	-.04		.27	.06	

Note. HI = Horizontal Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
* p <.05.

APPENDIX R

THE TWO-WAY INTERACTIONS RESULTS OF VERTICAL COLLECTIVISM AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Collectivism on Dummy Coded Source-Reactions Relationships.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.02			.00			.03
VC	-.09	-.07		-.06	-.05		.20*	.16*	
SV vs P	-.34	-.14		-.08	-.03		.03	.01	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.05		-.02	-.01		-.14	-.06	
Step 2			.00			.00			.01
VC*SV vs P	.02	.01		-.18	-.09		.20	.10	
VC*SV vs SB	.09	.04		-.06	-.03		-.03	-.02	

Note. VC = Vertical Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
;* *p* <.05.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Collectivism on Contrast Coded Source-Reactions Relationship

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.02			.00			.03
VC	-.09	-.07		-.06	-.05		.20*	.16*	
SVvsothers	-.24	-.09		-.05	-.02		-.06	-.02	
PvsSB	-.21	-.07		-.06	-.02		.17	.06	
Step 2			.00			.00			.01
VC*SVvs others	.05	.02		-.12	-.05		.08	.03	
VC* PvsSB	-.07	-.02		-.12	-.04		.24	.08	

Note. VC = Vertical Collectivism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
* *p* <.05.

APPENDIX S

THE TWO-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF VERTICAL INDIVIDUALISM AND FEEDBACK SOURCE IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Individualism on Dummy Coded Source-Reactions Relationships.

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.02			.00			.00
VI	.06	.05		.06	.06		.03	.03	
SV vs P	-.34	-.13		-.07	-.03		.05	.02	
SV vs SB	-.14	-.05		-.02	-.01		-.13	-.06	
Step 2			.02			.02			.00
VI*SV vs P	.19	.10		-.13	-.08		.11	.06	
VI*SV vs SB	$.42^{+}$	$.16^{+}$		.25	.11		-.08	-.04	

Note. VI = Vertical Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers.
$^{+}p < .10$.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Individualism on Contrast Coded Source-Reactions Relationship

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.02			.00			.00
VI	.06	.05		.06	.06		.03	.03	
SVvs O	-.24	-.09		-.04	-.02		-.04	-.17	
PvsSB	-.20	-.07		-.05	-.02		.18	.07	
Step 2			.02			.02			.00
VI*SVvs O	.30	.11		.06	.03		.01	.00	
VI* PvsSB	-.22	-.07		$-.39^{+}$	$-.15^{+}$		.19	.07	

Note. VI = Vertical Individualism; SV = Supervisor, SB = Subordinates, P = Peers, O = Others.
$^{+}p < .10$.

APPENDIX T

THE TWO-WAY INTERACTION RESULTS OF CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS (HORIZONTAL COLLECTIVISM, HORIZONTAL INDIVIDUALISM, VERTICAL lNDIVIDUALISM, AND VERTICAL COLLECTIVISM) and FEEDBACK SIGN IN PREDICTING FEEDBACK REACTIONS

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Collectivism on Sign-Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.23***			.10***			.54***
HC	.14	.06		.24	.12		.10	.05	
NF vs PF	-.1.14***	-.48***		-.65***	-.31***		1.61***	.73***	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
HC*NF vs PF	-.13	-.04		.08	.03		.12	.04	

Note. HC = Horizontal Collectivism; PF = Positive Feedback; NF = Negative Feedback
* *p* <.05; ****p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Horizontal Individualism on Sign-Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.23***			.10***			.56***
HI	.12	.06		.14	.08		-.25**	-.14**	
NF vs PF	-.1.12***	-.47***		-.61***	-.29***		1.60***	.73***	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
HI*NF vs PF	-.22	-.08		-.05	-.02		.00	.00	

Note. HI = Horizontal Individualism; PF = Positive Feedback; NF = Negative Feedback.
** *p* <.01; ****p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Collectivism on Sign-Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2	*B*	*β*	ΔR^2
Step 1			.22***			.09***			.54***
VC	-.00	-.00		-.00	-.00		.06	.05	
NF vs PF	-.1.13***	-.47***		-.62***	-.30***		1.60***	.73***	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
VC*NF vs PF	-.16	-.08		-.05	-.03		-.06	-.04	

Note. VC = Vertical Collectivism; PF = Positive Feedback; NF = Negative Feedback
+*p* < .10;* *p* <.05; ** *p* <.01; ****p* < .001.

Model Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses Examining the Potential Interaction Effect of Vertical Individualism on Sign-Reactions Relationships

	Dependent Variables								
	Perceived Accuracy			**Perceived Usefulness**			**Affective Reactions**		
	B	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2	*B*	*β*	Δ R^2
Step 1			.23***			.09***			.54***
VI	.10	.08		.08	.07		-.00	-.00	
NF vs PF	-.1.13***	-.47***		-.63***	-.30***		1.62***	.74***	
Step 2			.00			.00			.00
VI*NF vs PF	-.13	-.07		-.12	-.08		.11	.07	

Note: VI = Vertical Individualism; PF = Positive Feedback; NF = Negative Feedback
***$p < .001$.

APPENDIX U

THESIS PHOTOCOPYING PERMISSION FORM

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü ☐

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü ☐

Enformatik Enstitüsü ☐

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü ☐

YAZARIN

Soyadı : SOLMAZER

Adı : GAYE

Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce): REACTIONS TO PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK AND SOURCE: THE MODERATING EFFECT OF INDIVIDUALISM/ COLLECTIVISM AND POWER DISTANCE

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora ☐

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. ☐

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: