ELİS GÜNGÖR

U 201

DECEMBER 2015

REACTIONS TO FEEDBACK: EFFECTS OF FEEDBACK SIGN, SELF-ESTEEM, AND TASK CENTRALITY

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES OF MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

ELİS GÜNGÖR

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Approval of the Graduate School	of Social Sciences	
]	Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık Director
I certify that this thesis satisfies a Master of Science.	ll the requirements	as a thesis for the degree of
		Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz Head of Department
This is to certify that we have rea adequate, in scope and quality, as		- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
		Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç Advisor
Examining Committee Member	rs	
Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer	(METU, PSY)_	
Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç	(METU, PSY)_	
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Selin Metin Carr	ngöz (HU, MAN) _	

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name: Elis Güngör

Signature :

ABSTRACT

REACTIONS TO FFEEDBACK: EFFECTS OF FEEDBACK SIGN, SELF-ESTEEM, AND TASK CENTRALITY

Güngör, Elis

M.S., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç

September 2015, 98 pages

The main purpose of this study is to examine the effects of feedback sign, self-esteem, and task centrality on affective and accuracy reactions to feedback. The study used a 2 (feedback sign) x 2 (self-esteem) x 2 (task centrality) experimental design. 106 research assistants (Mean age = 27.47, SD = 2.65), who were randomly assigned to either positive or negative feedback condition, read four different vignettes that include performance feedback for a specific task (two central tasks, two peripheral tasks), and they were asked to react to feedback in the stories. Finally, they completed a domain-specific self-esteem scale.

Results revealed that individuals showed more positive affective and accuracy reactions to positive feedback than negative feedback. In addition to this, individuals with high self-esteem accepted positive feedback more than low self-esteem individuals, while low self-esteem individuals accepted negative feedback more than high self-esteem ones. The study also showed that task centrality affected the acceptance of feedback. Individuals tended to accept feedback for central tasks more than peripheral tasks both for positive feedback and negative feedback. Lastly, high self-esteem individuals mostly accepted positive feedback for central tasks. The

major findings, and limitations of the study were discussed, and future suggestions were presented.

Keywords: Feedback Sign, Self-Esteem, Task Centrality, Affective Reactions, Acceptance of the Feedback

PERFORMANS GERİBİLDİRİMİNE YÖNELİK TEPKİLER: GERİBİLDİRİM YÖNÜNÜN, BENLİK SAYGISININ VE GÖREV MERKEZİLİĞİNİN ETKİLERİ

Güngör, Elis

Yüksek Lisans Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç

Eylül, 2015, 98 Sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, geribildirim yönünün, benlik saygısının ve görev merkeziliğinin geribildirime yönelik duygusal tepkiler ve doğruluk tepkileri üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir. Çalışmada 2 (geribildirim yönü) x 2 (benlik saygısı) x 2 (görevin merkeziliği) deneysel tasarım kullanılmıştır. Ya olumlu ya da olumsuz geribildirim durumu için seçkisiz olarak atanan 106 (Yaş ort. =27.47, SS =2.65) araştırma görevlisi belirli bir görev (iki merkezi görev, iki çevresel görev) için performans geribildirimi içeren dört farklı hikâye okumuş ve bu bireylerin hikâyelerdeki geribildirime tepki göstermeleri istenmiştir. Son olarak bu bireyler alana özgü benlik saygısı ölçeği doldurmuşlardır.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, bireylerin olumlu geribildirime olumsuz geribildirimden daha olumlu duygusal tepkiler ve doğruluk tepkileri gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Buna ek olarak, yüksek benlik saygısı olan bireyler olumlu geribildirimi benlik saygısı düşük olan bireylerden daha çok kabul ederken, benlik saygısı düşük olan bireyler olumsuz geribildirimi benlik saygısı yüksek olanlardan daha çok kabul etmiştir. Bu çalışma ayrıca görevin merkeziliğinin geribildirimin kabulünü etkilediğini göstermiştir. Bireyler hem olumlu geribildirim hem de olumsuz geribildirim için çevresel görevlerden daha çok merkezi görevler için geribildirimi

kabul etmeye meyilli olmuşlardır. Son olarak yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumlu geribildirimi en çok merkezi görevler için kabul etmiştir. Çalışmanın ana bulguları ve sınırlılıkları tartışılmış ve geleceğe dönük bazı öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Geribildirim Yönü, Benlik Saygısı, Görev Merkeziliği, Geribildirimden Memnuniyet, Geribildirimin Kabul Edilebilirliği

To my lovely parents Tezgül & Basri & my brother Can

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç for her constructive feedback, support, and encouragement during my thesis process. Without her guidance and support I would not complete this thesis. Secondly, I would like to express my gratitude to thesis jury members Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer, and Doç. Dr. Selin Metin Camgöz for their valuable suggestions and constructive criticism.

I would like to thank my lovely parents Tezgül and Basri Güngör, and my brother Can Güngör who believed in me and encouraged me to succeed in this life. Without their love and encouragement it would be hard to complete this thesis.

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to Dr. Kürşad Demirutku who gave me both academic and emotional support whenever I need. He encouraged me with his academic motivation, and when I faced a challange he was the first to help me. I really learned a lot from him.

I owe special thanks to my best friends, Nurşah Tığrak who gave me emotional support all the time from miles away, Büşra Tüzemen who always found a way to cheer me up when I feel down, and Anıl Karabulut who went from door to door with me during data collection process.

I am also thankful to my work friends Dr.Dilek Demirtepe Saygılı, Azime Pekşen Yakar, and Naile Sarmaşık for sharing their experiences and giving me emotional support. I am grateful to my classmates Gülay Yazıcı, and Sinem Yeldan for their friendhsip, academic and emotional support.

Lastly would like to thank The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK) for providing the financial support throughout both my undergraduate and graduate education.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	X
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
CHAPTER	
1.INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Overview	1
1.2. Significance of Feedback	2
1.3. Feedback Effectiveness	4
1.4. Feedback Sign	9
1.5. Self-Related Theories	12
1.7. Individual Factors Affecting Acceptance	16
1.8. Self Esteem	18
1.9. Task Centrality	21
2.METHOD	25
2.1. Overview	25
2.2. Pre Study: Choosing two central and two peripheral tasks to be used in the Main Study	25
2.2.1. Participants	. 25
2.2.2. Procedure	. 26
2.2.3 Results	26

2.3. Main Study	32
2.3.1. Participants	32
2.3.2. Materials	32
2.3.3. Design	35
2.3.4. Procedure	35
3.RESULTS	37
3.1. Overview	37
3.2. Data Screening and Cleaning	37
3.2. Manipulation Check Analyses	37
3.2.1. Perceived Reality and Identification with Vignettes	37
3.2.2. Feedback Sign	38
3.2.3. Task Centrality	38
3.2.4. Feedback Related Questions	38
3.3. Factor Analyses	39
3.4. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations between Variables	41
3.5. Main Analysis for Hypothesis Testing	47
3.6. Secondary Analyses	51
4.DISCUSSION	54
4.1. Overview	54
4.2. Major Findings	54
4.3. Limitations and Future Suggestions	57
4.4. Contributions and Implications of the Study	60
4.5. Conclusions	61
REFERENCES	62
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR PRE STUDY	71
APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM FOR PRE STUDY	72
APPENDIX C. PRE STUDY OUESTIONNAIRE	73

FEEDBACK GROUPS	
APPENDIX E: REACTION TO FEEDBACK SCALE	80
APPENDIX F: DOMAIN SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM SCALE	82
APPENDIX G: INFORMED CONSENT FOR MAIN STUDY	83
APPENDIX H: DEBRIEFING FORM	84
APPENDIX I: EXTENDED TURKISH SUMMARY	85
APPENDIX J: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU	98

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 2.1. Means, SDs and Correlations for Frequency and Relevance Scores for Each Task	28
Table 3.1. Factor loadings and communalities based on a principle components analysis with oblimin rotation for 12 items from the reaction to feedback scale (N = 106)	40
Table 3.2. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables	42
Table 3.3. The means and standard deviation of accuracy and affective reactions for each experimental condition	43
Table 3.4. Correlations between Study variables and Reliability Estimates for Scores.	46

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Ilgen et al. (1979)'s Feedback Model	5
Figure 3.1. The Interaction between Feedback Sign and Self-Esteem in Predicting Feedback Acceptance	.48
Figure 3.2. Main Effect of Task Centrality on Feedback Acceptance	.49
Figure 3.3. Interaction effect of Feedback Sign, Self-Esteem, and Task Centrality on Feedback Acceptance	
Figure 3.4. Main Effect of Task Centrality on Affecive Reactions to Feedback	.51

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

Individuals receive evaluations almost every day in different contexts including school, home, work, and even in their interpersonal relations (Jussim, Yen, & Aiello, 1995). After these evaluations, they receive feedback which is essential for improvement of individuals (London, 2003). Ilgen, Fisher, and Taylor (1979) defined feedback as a "special case of communication in which the recipient of the feedback receives the message from the source of the feedback" (p. 350). Therefore, one expects that the feedback message includes information about the recipient. The recipient perceives the message given, and then s/he responds to it. Thus, it is plausible to think that the nature of the feedback, different characteristics of both the source and the receiver affect the feedback process. Phoel (2006) stated that feedback is important for shaping behaviors and accelerating the learning process which will eventually lead to better performance.

Considering the feedback as vital for improvement, this study tries to explore the factors that affect reactions to feedback. Three factors that are expected to play major role on reactions to feedback are described in this study, namely feedback sign, self-esteem and task centrality. The focus of the study is on acceptance of the feedback rather than affective reactions, because previous findings have shown that understanding acceptance of the feedback is much more complicated. The main contribution of the study concerns increasing the acceptance of negative feedback in organizational settings, and originality of the study lies in introducing the task centrality concept to the feedback literature. Previous studies have examined feedback sign, and self-esteem, but the explorations of task characteristics is insufficient.

With this aim, in the following sections, firstly relevant feedback literature is presented by explaining the fundamental studies with more details. After that, the variables in the study are described. Lastly, the hypotheses of the study are presented.

1.2. Significance of Feedback

The importance of feedback dates back to the foundations of learning theory. For example, as a part of learning process, Thorndike (1911) attempted to explain feedback by one of his behavioral laws, law of effect. The law of effect asserts that "responses that produce a satisfying effect in a particular situation become more likely to occur again in that situation, and responses that produce a discomforting effect become less likely to occur again in that situation" (Gray, 2011, pp. 109). Here, it is possible to consider response with a satisfying effect as a positive feedback and response with a discomforting effect as a negative feedback. Although the law of effect theory was a milestone in feedback research, Kluger and DeNisi (1996) considered the theory as so broad to understand the complexities of feedback interventions, because it is important to note that feedback is not a simple stimulus as mentioned above. Even in the same conditions, when individuals receive the same feedback, they can give very different responses. Since it is not a simple stimulus, we cannot think reactions to feedback in a simple stimulus-response relationship.

The meta-analysis by Kluger and DeNisi (1996) proposed feedback intervention theory to understand the complexities of the feedback process that cannot be explained by learning theory. They suggested that the effect of feedback on performance show variability and it does not uniformly improve performance. Although it is assumed that feedback consistenly improve performance, they suggested that feedback interventions may have a detrimental effect on subsequent behavior (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Therfore, they especially attempted to understand these inconsistent findings related to feedback. Their meta-analysis explored possible moderators that can affect the relationship between feedback and performance. They developed feedback intervention theory. According to this theory, individuals' behaviors are regulated by comparison of the feedback with goals which are hierarchically organized. Discrepancy between feedback and standards can lead to behavior change. Another important factor in this theory is the location of attention which can be on the self, on the task or on the details of the task. When the attention is on the task, individuals show tendency to increase their effort after the feedback. However, if the increased effort does not reduce feedback-standart discrepancy, than attention can divert to the self or task learning level. Attention that is on the self seems to be more powerful. This is why the present study puts emphasis on the self concept.

One aim of the meta-analysis of Kluger and DeNisi (1996) was to explore possible task related moderators. However, they were not able to show clear effect of the task. Therefore, they proposed that task characteristics are poorly understood, because there is not valid task taxonomy. Thus, one aim of the present study is to categorize tasks in order to understand their effects in the feedback process. Since feedback is effective in performance improvement, it needs to be studied in the organizational setting, and this is what the present study attempts to do.

Feedback is especially investigated in the organizational context because feedback has a vital role in employee development process (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). It is central for organizational interventions like assessments of individuals in the workplace, and performance appraisal systems (Bell & Arthur, 2008). DeNisi and Kluger (2000) suggested that all employees are interested in receiving performance feedback, because they would like to know how well they are performing. In this way, they can understand both their strengths and weaknesses, and it becomes easier to deal with problematic situations and improve their performance. On the other hand, if employees do not accept the feedback provided, as suggested by Silverman, Pogson, and Cober (2005), they can be less productive and this can be harmful for the organization.

Furthermore, the study of feedback is important due to its effects both on performance (Atwater, Waldman, Atwater, & Cartier, 2000; Steelman, & Rutkowski, 2004; Walker, & Smither, 1999), and job and organizational attitudes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction and justice perceptions (Kluger, & DeNisi, 1996; Lam, Yik, & Schaubroeck, 2002). Poorly developed feedback systems can decrease rather than increase performance, so it is vital to study the effectiveness of the feedback systems in order to develop better models (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000). As suggested by Smither, London, and Reilly (2003), in order to understand the effectiveness of feedback systems, there is need for studying the conditions under which feedback works more efficiently. Therefore, the next subsection examines the effectiveness of the feedback.

1.3. Feedback Effectiveness

Feedback literature firstly mentioned the feedback as knowledge of results, and research attempted to figure out whether knowledge of results increase or decrease performance. Although many studies suggested that it improves performance, there are also studies which suggest that feedback does not necessarily improve performance (e.g. Balcazar, Hopkins, & Suarez, 1985). One of the first studies which substantially affected feedback literature is Ammon's review (1956). He suggested that the knowledge of results basically increase learning and motivation of employees.

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) transfers the information related to Thorndike's (1911) law of effect theory. According to the theory, both the positive and the negative feedback are expected to increase performance, because positive feedback is like reinforcement, while negative feedback is like punishment, one reinforces the correct behavior and the other one extinguishes the incorrect one which should result in performance improvement. However, learning theory is not enough to explain complexities of the feedback process.

In order to understand the feedback process, Ilgen et al. (1979) proposed a multidimensional model. Before their review, many studies underlined the importance of feedback for performance improvement (e.g. Annett, 1969; Sassenrath, 1975), but no one has attempted to explain the underlying psychological mechanisms of the feedback process. Their literature review was the first one explaining all components of the feedback process, so they made a substantial contribution to the feedback literature. The model suggested that there are mainly three aspects of the feedback process: how the recipient perceives the feedback, whether the perceived feedback is accepted by the recipient, and if the recipient is willing to respond to the received feedback. (See Figure 1 for the model)

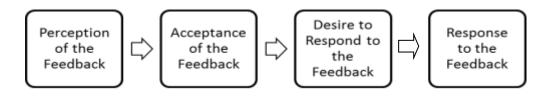


Figure 1.1. Ilgen et al. (1979)'s Feedback Model

The components of the feedback include feedback source, feedback message, and feedback recipient. The source and the message can be considered as contextual variables in feedback processes, and these variables are critical for reactions to feedback. Steelman and Rutkowski (2004) suggested that individuals respond more positively to supervisors who pay attention to contextual variables while giving negative feedback. The source refers to a person (or a machine in case of special technologies) that delivers the feedback information to the recipient (Alvero, Bucklin, & Austin, 2001). It is well documented that there is an association between characteristics of feedback source and reactions toward the feedback (Van de Ridder, Berk, Stokking, & Ten Cate, 2014). One of the characteristics of the source is credibility. Source's credibility is a concept that is worth mentioning considering reactions to feedback (Allbright & Levy, 1995). Giffin (1967) pointed out that source's credibility basically has two main components: source's expertise and source's trustworthiness. Source expertise refers to knowledge about job requirements and recipient's job performance as well as the ability to make judgments about her/his performance, while trustworthiness refers to the extent that the recipient of the feedback believes in the source that provides the information. Studies found a positive relationship between source credibility and employees' desire to respond to feedback (Kinicki, Prussia, Wu, & McKee-Ryan, 2004; Van de Ridder et al., 2014), and it has been shown that when feedback comes from a highly credible source, individuals are more likely to accept it (Brett & Atwater, 2001). Feedback source should be the person who knows the employee well, and supports

him/her to make him/her feel comfortable to be able to give an effective feedback (Wimer, 2002).

Another component of feedback process is the feedback message itself. In order to be useful, feedback message should be meaningful to the recipient. The condition for the meaningfulness is the fact that the message needs to increase recipient's knowledge about her/his performance and decrease the uncertainty about it (Shannon & Weaver, 1949). In order for feedback to be useful and increase information about performance, the received information should be more than the information that the recipient already has. The structural characteristics of the feedback are: timing, sign, and frequency. Timing refers to the interval between the performance and the feedback, and it has been shown that if the delay is short, the feedback works more efficiently (Ilgen et al., 1979). For the effect of sign, it can be inferred from the previous studies that positive feedback is perceived more accurately than negative feedback (Feather, 1968; Ilgen & Hamstra, 1972; Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Also, frequent feedback is perceived as more accurate (Anderson, Kulhavy, & Andre, 1971; Ivancevich, Donelly, & Lyon, 1970).

The feedback message is received by the recipient, and the recipient processes the information given by using her/his prior knowledge about her/his performance. It is very critical that the recipient processes that information, because if s/he does not process, the feedback actually has no meaning. This is related to the perception of feedback which refers to how accurately the recipient perceives the feedback given. Feedback can be given by different sources including supervisors, coworkers, the task itself, and the self, namely the multiple sources. Bono and Colbert (2005) searched for the effects of responses to multiple sources, and found that individuals might evaluate their performance different than other sources. When self-other agreement is high, individuals are more satisfied with the feedback, and are more committed to the goals.

The last component of perception is the recipient of the feedback, the individual who receives the message and is expected to interpret in order to use it. Several recipient related factors affect the interpretation of the message by the recipient. Previous literature suggested that personality variables affect perceptions (e.g. Ilgen & Davis, 2000; Shrauger, & Rosenberg, 1970). Baron and Ganz (1972)

investigated the effect of locus of control and feedback on performance, and found that when there was extrinsic reward, externals performed better than internals, and when there was intrinsic reward, internals outperformed externals. Another characteristic of the recipient which is important for the perception of feedback is self-esteem, Shrauger and Rosenberg (1970) evaluated the effect of self-esteem on reactions to feedback. They asked high and low self-esteem individuals to rate the competence of the person that gives feedback. High self-esteem individual's ratings change according to the favorability of the feedback, while low self-esteem individuals' ratings did not depend on the favorability. They also showed that individuals with high self-esteem do not perceive the negative feedback as clearly as they perceive the positive one. A different personality characteristic that was investigated in the feedback literature was social anxiety. Smith and Sarason (1975) showed that individuals who have high or moderate level of social anxiety perceived negative feedback as more negative than it actually is compared to individuals who have lower social anxiety. After the perception phase, the concern is whether the recipient will accept the feedback. Acceptance is one type of reaction that is given to the received feedback.

Before exploring the feedback acceptance, it is helpful to differentiate reaction types. Shrauger (1975) pointed out that individuals show both affective and cognitive reactions to the feedback, and Adams (1999) added a third category, behavioral reactions which refer to intentions to enhance the work. The main aim of the present research is to evaluate accuracy and affective reactions to the feedback and factors that affect it. From the literature, acceptance of the feedback was found to be closely related to different reactions types (e.g. Bell & Arthur, 2008; Brett & Atwater, 2001). Affective reactions are the emotional reactions individuals show to feedback (Ilies, Pater, & Judge, 2007). Understanding affective reactions seems to be more straightforward than accuracy reactions, because individuals tend to like positive feedback more than negative (Brown, 2007). However, for acceptance, the situation is a bit more complicated. This study explores both the affective reactions and acceptance.

Ilgen et al. (1979) defined feedback acceptance as "the extent that the recipient believes that the feedback is the accurate representation of her/his

performance" (p. 356). Several factors affect the acceptance of the feedback including characteristics of the source, the message, and the recipient. The characteristics of the message can be the most effective factor that determines acceptance. One important factor is the sign of the feedback affects the acceptance (Jacobs, Jacobs, Feldman, & Cavior, 1973). Sign is created by comparing feedback to an objective or a standard. Typically a positive feedback induces positive emotions while a negative feedback induces negative ones (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Therefore, almost with no exception positive feedback is more willingly accepted than negative feedback (Brett & Atwater, 2001; Jacobs et al., 1973; Nease, Mudgett, & Quiñones, 1999). Additionally Halperin, Snyder, Shenkel, and Houston (1976) showed that positive feedback is accepted from any source, but negative feedback can be accepted if it comes from a higher status source which refers to an interaction between sign and source of the feedback.

There are also studies which showed that negative feedback was accepted more than positive feedback (e.g. Kennedy & Willcutt, 1964). Kennedy and Willcutt (1964) evaluated the effects of blame and praise on adolescents, and they found that praise can impair the performance of underachievers since it is contradictory with their self-views. This result can be explained by Korman's (1970) consistency theory of self-esteem. Korman (1970) stated that if other factors are equal, individuals will engage in behavioral roles that increase their sense of cognitive balance or consistency. Because of the importance of the self on the acceptance of the feedback, self-related theories that affect the feedback process will be explained later with more details.

In addition to the feedback sign, recipient's characteristics also play role in acceptance of the feedback. For example, Waldman and Bowen (1998) suggested that feedback acceptance includes being open to the feedback, and having positive intentions to use it. Feather (1968) demonstrated that individuals with internal locus of control accept feedback more than individuals with external locus of control. Other than locus of control, age was found to be related to acceptance. Meyer and Walker (1961) reported that younger individuals tend to accept feedback more easily than older ones. Ilgen et al. (1979) attributed this finding to level of experience. They suggested that older individuals have more experience, so they use their past

performances as a source of feedback, and in turn they do not seem to accept feedback from other individuals. Other recipient's caharacteristics is examined in more detail in a separate subsection in this study

Acceptance of the feedback leads to desire to respond to the feedback. The desire to respond is mostly related to intrinsic motivation of the recipient (Ilgen et al., 1979). The intrinsic motivation refers to seeking competence on a task (White, 1959). If the feedback has high informational value, and if it is paired with goal setting individuals will be more willing to respond to the feedback (Steers & Porter, 1974). Kinicki, Prussia, Wu, and McKee-Ryan (2004) explained the relationship between perceived accuracy and desire to respond to the feedback by using Korman's self-consistency theory. They expected individuals to show more desire to the feedback that are consistent with self-views. They also suggested that consequences of the feedback are important in terms of desire to respond to the feedback. Maurer and Palmer (1999) showed that managers' desire to respond to the feedback increased when the feedback was related to improvement.

At the end of the feedback process, there is intended response and the actual response which was affected by the intentions. External constraints such as limited capacity of the individual or the stuff and individual characteristics of the individual such as internal motivation, locus of control, self-esteem act as moderators in this relationship.

If the aim of the feedback is to increase performance, motivation, and attitudes in an organization, it is highly important that the feedback is accepted and comprehended well by the employee (Taylor, Fisher, & Ilgen, 1984). As aforementioned, after the feedback is perceived by the recipient, s/he reacts to it. Several factors including message characteristics, individual differences, and task characteristics affect reactions to feedback. Three things; feedback sign, self-esteem and task centrality which seem critical for the acceptance of the feedback will be evaluated in this study.

1.4. Feedback Sign

As mentioned above, the sign of feedback affect individuals' reactions to the feedback. Landy and Farr (1983) believed that sign of the feedback is the most

important factor in terms of acceptance. Naturally, the act on the feedback given comes after acceptance. Feedback sign refers to the extent that the provided feedback is either positive or negative. Positive feedback indicates that the recipient meets the expectations, while negative feedback shows that the recipient is insufficient and s/he needs to improve herself/himself (Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005).

DeNisi and Kluger (2000) emphasized that the sign of the feedback is an important predictor of its effectiveness. It is well documented that negative feedback is perceived as less accurate so less accepted by the individuals (Fedor, Eder, & Buckley, 1989; Ilgen et al., 1979). This might be due to better than average effect which refers to individuals's tendency to see themselves more favorably than they actually are (Alicke, Klotz, Breitenbecher, Yurak, & Vredenburg, 1995). Since individuals see themselves better than they are (Vazire & Carlson, 2011), they probably see the negative feedback less accurate. Bandura and Jourden (1991) revealed that positive feedback increases recipients' self-efficacy, cognitive performance, and work performance more than does negative feedback. Furthermore, Adams (1999) has shown that as the feedback gets more favorable, the affective reactions gets more favorable, and the acceptance of the feedback increases.

Previous research has suggested that in general positive feedback is rated as more accurate than negative feedback. Individuals's tendency to prefer positive feedback can be problematic for acceptance of negative feedback in organizational settings (Bell & Arthur, 2008). Meyer (1975) suggested that individuals tend to evaluate their performance as above average. Therefore, they show negative reactions to negative feedback. In a study Brett and Atwater (2001) found that negative feedback caused individuals to feel angry and discouraged. They also attributed their findings to inflated view of individuals.

Kruger and Dunning (1999) questioned why individuals cannot put up with negative feedback and suggested several reasons. Firstly, they believed that individuals rarely receive negative feedback in their lives, so it is not very usual for them. Secondly, negative feedback about some tasks does not allow individuals to receive information to fix their mistakes, and lastly individuals sometimes cannot understand the reason behind their failure, so they take no advantage from negative feedback. Additionally, negative feedback can threaten employees and this can result

in defiant opposition (Pearce & Porter, 1986). Therefore, it acts as punishment. Furthermore, it is very natural for positive feedback to be received better in work settings because performance appraisal systems are usually a basis for pays and promotions (Brett & Atwater, 2001). However, the aim of the performance appraisal system can also be development (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989). Toegel and Conger (2003) suggested that individuals tend to be more receptive to negative feedback if the purpose of the feedback is developmental.

Mostly, researchers considered positive feedback as more helpful than negative feedback, but in a study, Podsakoff and Farh (1989) found that negative feedback receivers increased their performance more than positive feedback receivers. In the study, they examined the effects of feedback sign and source credibility on performance. They explained their contrary findings with goal setting. They suggested that individuals that received negative feedback set higher goals, so they became more successful in the next trial. Another reason for positive feedback receivers to perform worse than negative feedback receivers is that positive feedback receivers thought that they were sufficient and there was no need for improvement.

A recent study by Şahan (2013) also has revealed that negative feedback is more effective for subsequent performance. He asked participants to complete a computeterized task in two sessions, and observed the performance change. His study has examined the effect of goal seeting as well as the feedback sign, and has shown that for promotion focus condition positive works more efficiently, while for prevention focus condition negative feedback does work better. However, in general performance improvement was higher for negative feedback condition.

The effect of positive feedback is examined less than negative feedback in the literature, because as Brown (2007) suggested with few exceptions everybody likes and accepts positive feedback. Although negative feedback has usually been considered ineffective in the literature, it has been suggested that initial negative feedback may be good for improving performance (Podsakoff & Fahr, 1989), but repeated negative feedback can cause rejection of the feedback, decreasing of effort or withdrawing from the task. For example, in a study Nease, Mudgett, and Quiñones (1999) demonstrated that individuals with high self-efficacy decreased their

acceptance of repeated negative feedback, while low self-esteem individuals' acceptance level stayed steady over time.

Research has shown that negative evaluation can be harmful for performance of some individuals, but it can be motivating for some individuals for better achievement (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Likewise, positive evaluation may enhance performance of some while causing some individuals to become lazier (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Although there are few studies that found that individuals can show positive reactions to negative feedback, most studies have indicated that individuals like, and therefore accept positive feedback more than negative. So it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1a: Individuals show more positive affective reactions to positive feedback than negative feedback.

Hypothesis 1b: Positive feedback is accepted more than negative feedback.

It can be concluded that feedback sign is a crucial variable in the feedback process. Comparing positive and negative feedback in terms of affective reactions and acceptance is straightforward, and the findings will probably only confirm the previous literature. However, to interpret the mixed findings related to feedback sign, it needs to be studied together with other factors that play a role in the feedback process. Feedback sign can be considered as the most critical variable affecting reactions, but other variables, namely individual differences and task characteristics may play role, too. Although previous studies have mostly found that positive feedback is accepted more than negative feedback, certainly there are individual differences between individuals in level of acceptance. As suggested by the feedback intervention theory, feedback directs attention to the self-level (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Therefore, reactions to feedback are directly related to an individual's self-concept (Jussim, et al, 1995). To understand the mechanisms that play role in the reaction phase, theories related to self will be explained in the next section.

1.5. Self-Related Theories

Understanding reactions to feedback requires knowledge about the self-concept (Jussim et al., 1995). Individuals do not usually ignore feedback interventions because they have considerable implications for the self. Receiving

feedback directs attention to the self, because individuals are motivated to decrease self-discrepancy and protect their self (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Self-discrepancy theory suggests that the self consists of three different domains: actual self that relates to who you really are; ideal self, the person that you would like you to be, and ought self, the person that you should be (Higgins, 1987). Feedback you receive will be related to your actual self if accurate, but it can be in a conflict with ideal or ought selves which will cause discomfort.

What individuals believe about their performance and what they hear from others can create such discrepancies in self-concept (Vancouver & Tischner, 2004). Kluger and DeNisi (1999) suggested that self-theories are especially crucial for understanding such situations, because when faced with a discrepancy, receiver directs her/his attention to performance standards and her/his own performance. They proposed that when there is discrepancy in the feedback, the employee tries to decrease the self-related discrepancy by changing the behavior, changing the performance standard, rejecting the feedback or directly escaping situations that cause discrepancy.

A number of studies have attempted to explain reactions to feedback by using theories related to self (e.g. Jussim, et al, 1995; Nease, Mudgett, & Quiñones, 1999). Jussim et al. (1995) suggested that individuals's reactions to the feedback are basically affected by two distinct motives, namely self-enhancement and self-consistency. Self-enhancement asserts that individuals are motivated to see themselves as positively as possible (Epstein, 1973; Shrauger, 1975). If individuals always lived with the principles of self-enhancement theory, they would always react positively to positive feedback, and negatively to negative feedback. This is true if emotional reactions are considered. As previous literature suggests, self-enhancement mostly influences individuals's affective reactions (Shrauger, 1975). These reactions are quick, and they do not require deep processing (Swann, Griffin, Predmore, & Gaines, 1987; Zajonc, 1980), so simply according to self-enhancement if the feedback is positive, individuals feel good, but if it is negative individuals feel bad (Swann, 1987). However, as mentioned before individuals are not just motivated by self-enhancement, but also by self-consistency.

Self-consistency theory suggests that individuals internalize ideas that are consistent with their past experiences and the view of themselves, and they reject inconsistent ideas to maintain their self-conceptions (Lecky, 1945; Swann, 1987). Self-verification theory also suggests that individuals want feedback that confirms them. The only difference between consistency and verification is the reason individuals want to confirm themselves. Consistency theory assumes that individuals want consistency for their own sake, but verification assumes individuals want consistency for control and making predictions (Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992). Therefore, consistency and verification can be used interchangeably. Extant research has shown that individuals tend to be more receptive to the feedback that is consistent with their general self-evaluations, and feedback can cause changes in performance when it is consistent with general level of self-evaluations (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Bell and Arthur (2008) reconciled self-enhancement and selfconsistency theories and said individuals search for both enhancement and verification when possible. These theories help us to understand acceptance or reaction to both negative and positive feedback in relation to the feedback source.

Traditionally, feedback source is considered as the supervisor (Erdemli, Sümer, & Bilgic, 2007), but recently multiple source rating systems which may include the self, coworker, supervisor, and client as the source have become popular (Bailey & Fletcher, 2002). Self-enhancement and self-consistency theories were used to understand the lack of consensus between self and supervisor ratings in this multiple source feedback system, and there is a need for understanding this lack of consensus, because it may have negative effect on reactions to feedback (Korsgaard, 1996). Meyer (1975) suggested that the discrepancy between self and other ratings is related to defensiveness of the recipient. Fahr and Dobbins (1989) showed that there is a tendency for individuals to rate their performance more favorably than it actually is. Despite being inflated, London and Smither (1995) asserted that self-ratings are important for recipient's intentions to improve their performance. They found that individuals with moderate wiev of themselves showed more intentions to improve their performance following both the positive and negative feedback. However, individuals with very high opinions did not show intentions probably due to the fact they thought they are sufficient enough, and individuals with very low opinions did not show intentions to improve since they believe there is a large discrepancy between expected level and their current level, so it is very hard to catch the standards. Above mentioned study showed that individuals tend to agree with the feedback consistent with their own evaluations which supports self-consistency theory. On the other hand, individuals with negative self-appraisals responded more negatively to unfavorable feedback which supports for self-enhancement theory.

Brown (2007) suggested that self-enhancement and self-consistency theories make different predictions about the acceptance of negative feedback. Selfconsistency theory asserts that individuals with positive self-views will be less accepting of negative feedback than individuals with negative self-views, but selfenhancement theory makes the opposite prediction suggesting that individuals with negative self-views will be more accepting of positive feedback more than the ones with positive self-views. According to self-consistency theory, individuals with low self-esteem will not be comfortable with positive feedback since it is not consistent with their self-views. Despite studies that found support for this argument (e.g. Brown & McGill, 1989), it is not supported mostly in the literature (Brown, 2007). Studies have shown that individuals with negative self-views are usually negatively affected by negative feedback and the performance of low self-esteem individuals tends to decline when they receive negative feedback (Brokner, 1988; Shrauger, 1975). It is important to underline that affective reactions will be different than accuracy (acceptance reaction) since accuracy is related to self verification and affective reactions are related to self enhancement.

To solve these complexities, affective and cognitive reactions (accuracy or acceptance) to the feedback should be considered differently. Shrauger (1975) suggested that self-consistency seems to dominate individuals's cognitive reactions. A cognitive reaction consists of two stages: firstly the recipient decides whether the feedback is positive or negative, then s/he compares the feedback with her/his self-conceptions. Therefore, cognitive reactions require more processing of information than affective reactions (Jussim et al., 1995). For cognitive reactions, Jussim et al. (1995) hypothesized that there is an interaction between feedback sign and self-esteem. As suggested by self-consistency theory, positive feedback is more consistent

with self-concept of a high self-esteem individual, while negative feedback is more consistent with self-concept of a low self-esteem individual.

Jussim et al. (1995) suggested that affective reactions are dominated by self-enhancement motive, and feedback acceptance is dominated by self-consistency motive. Bell and Arthur (2008) also suggested that self-verification affects cognitive outcomes while self-enhancement affects affective outcomes. In fact, the term reaction seems to refer to an automatic and unthinking response (Alliger, Tannenbaum, Benett, Traver & Shotland, 1997). However, only affective reactions can be considered as such. Since cognitive outcomes require a deeper processing, individuals think about consequences of the feedback, therefore they want to verify themselves not to feel disappointment in the future. In order to evaluate accuracy of the feedback, individuals should use their cognitive judgments which require more complicated thinking process. Liking the feedback does not guarantee the acceptance of that feedback.

Bell and Artthur (2008) found that if individuals show positive affective reactions to feedback, they will be more likely to accept the feedback, so they concluded that affective reactions predict acceptance of the feedback. However, Jussim et al. (1995) suggested that feedback acceptance is more related to cognitive reactions. These contradictory findings might also be working differently for different individuals, so there is a need for understanding individual differences that affect the acceptance phase.

1.7. Individual Factors Affecting Acceptance

Lam, Yik, and Schraubroeck (2002) proposed that it is vital to examine the effect of individual differences in order to understand reactions to feedback. Bell and Arthur (2008) pointed out that personality variables affect acceptance, because the individual is also a source of her/his feedback and evaluate the feedback from her/his frame of reference. As aforementioned, different personality characteristics such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, goal orientation, and big five personality dimensions have been studied with the purpose of understanding reactions to feedback.

The effect of self-efficacy on acceptance is very similar to effects of selfesteem which will be explained in the next section. High self-efficacy individuals increase their effort more than low self-efficacy ones after they receive negative feedback (Podsakoff & Farh, 1989). Additionally, feedback sign affects individual's future self-efficacy. Individuals's future self-efficacy levels changes according to the feedback they receive, so positive feedback can increase, while negative feedback can decrease future self-efficacy (Nease et al., 1999)

From the individual differences, goal orientation also affects the way individuals perceive feedback. Individuals with mastery goal orientation want to learn new things, while individuals with performance goal orientation do the required tasks in order to avoid criticism (Şahan, 2013). Therefore, they will probably react especially to negative feedback differently. Mastery goal orientated individuals will see the negative feedback as an opportunity to improve performance, while performance goal oriented will feel discouraged, and even they may withdraw from the task (Şahan, 2013).

Recently, big five personality variables were also studied with the intentions of understanding reactions to feedback (Smither, London, & Richmond, 2005). Bell and Arthur (2008) examined the effects of the three dimensions of the Big Five model: extraversion, emotional stability, and agreeableness that are related to social interactions and regulating emotions. Previous studies found no support for the effect of the other two dimensions, namely openness to experience, and conscientiousness (Anderson & Jones, 2000). Bell and Arthur (2008) considered these personality variables as a moderator between affective reactions and acceptance of the feedback. They suggested that extraversion has an effect through affective reactions, and agreeableness strengthens the relationship between affective reactions and acceptance. However, they were unable to find any support concerning emotional stability hypothesis. A recent study by Yüce Selvi (2014) did not examine the reactions to the feedback, but directly performance after feedback. Feedback was consistent with the performance (either positive or negative), and from big five personality dimensions, she found extraversion and openness to experience as factors that improve the performance on a task that requires creativity.

Among the individual differences that affect the acceptance, probably the most effective one is self-esteem. Dutton and Brown (1997) emphasized that self-esteem is linked to many different psychological phenomena such as cognitive dissonance, persuasion, well-being and social comparison processes. In addition to

these, it appears to influence individuals's reactions to success and failure situations (Ilies, Pater, & Judge, 2007). The next section will examine the effects of self-esteem in more details.

1.8. Self Esteem

Self-esteem refers to the way that people feel about themselves (Dutton & Brown, 1996). High self-esteem individuals have more positive view of themselves than low self-esteem, and this might cause them to react differently to feedback (Dutton & Brown, 1996). High self-esteem individuals tend to make more self-serving attributions for performance outcomes than low self-esteem individuals (Blaine & Crocker, 1993). Self-serving bias refers to taking more responsibility for desirable outcomes and externalizing responsibility for undesired ones (Shepperd, Malone & Sweeny, 2008). Low self-esteem individuals will be more likely than high self-esteem individuals to take responsibility for failure. High self-esteem individuals will probably attribute their failure to external reasons such as lack of resources, time constraints or to bad luck because high self-esteem individuals believe that they have higher capacity to succeed a task (Blaine & Crocker, 1993). In addition to this, high self-esteem individuals give more attention to positive feedback, and usually ignore the negative feedback (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Dunning (1995) claims that individuals in fact search positive feedback in order to maintain self-esteem.

According to the feedback intervention theory, goal standards are supposed to be hierarchically arranged (DeNisi & Kluger, 2000). Their highest level is self-level where individuals' goals are related to self-concepts. The next level is task level which is directly related to actual performance. The last level is the task learning level that is related to details of the goals. They assumed that the effectiveness of a feedback system depends on the direction of attention. They suggested that the biggest problem is too much attention to self-level, because self-concepts can create negative affective reactions such as despair, and disappointments. When the focus is on the self, individuals can be alienated to the task, so this can be detrimental for the performance. When the focus is on the self, the individual starts to think of who s/he is rather than her/his performance. These detrimental effects are especially critical for

individuals with low self-esteem, because they especially focus on the self when receive negative feedback (Cropanzona, James, & Citera, 1993).

The role of self-esteem is critical when individuals face with negative outcomes such as a failure in the important achievement domains (Brown, 2007). It has been suggested that if the individual with low self-esteem receives negative feedback, s/he might show more decrements in her/his performance than an individual with high self-esteem. Similarly, if a high self-esteem individual receives positive evaluations, s/he might show greater increments in her/his performance than someone with a low self-esteem (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Studies have shown that how high self-esteem individuals feel about themselves does not so much depend on whether they succeed or fail at something (Brown, 2007).

Shrauger and Lund (1975) examined reactions of high and low self-esteem individuals by using self-enhancement and self-consistency theories. They asked participants of the study to evaluate the credibility of the feedback provider. Low self-esteem participant's ratings did not depend on the favorability of the feedback, but high self-esteem ones rated the source as less credible when the feedback was unfavorable. This was a support for self-consistency theory. They claimed that low self-esteem individuals did not actually prefer unfavorable feedback more than favorable feedback as suggested by the theory. They may only have less preference for favorable feedback compared to high self-esteem individuals. Their findings also suggested that high and low self-esteem individuals show differences in defensiveness after receiving negative feedback. High self-esteem individuals tend to be more defensive when they encounter negative feedback. They can suppress, misrepresent, or discredit negative feedback. High self-esteem individuals even show tendency to forget information related to failure (Shrauger & Lund, 1975). Thanks to these defense mechanisms, high self-esteem individuals are less likely to be negatively affected from failure feedback.

A prior study by Brown (1970) attempted to explain why low self-esteem individuals feel worse than high self-esteem individuals, in other words have more negative affective reactions, after failure and he has come up with two different explanations. Firstly, these two different groups may consider their performance differently. When these two groups receive similar negative feedback, low self-

esteem individuals tend to perceive it more as a failure. Secondly, they make different attributions to failure. Low self-esteem individuals attribute failure to low ability. Therefore, when low self-esteem individuals receive negative feedback they tend to be more self-protective, and try to avoid situations that may cause to negative evaluations (Baumeister, 1989). Low self-esteem individuals perform worse after negative feedback, because they tend to be more preoccupied with themselves than the task after negative feedback, or they might show withdraw effect (Brown, 2007). Due to these negative effects of failure feedback on low self-esteem individuals, managers need to seek different ways to decrease these side effects.

Considering the acceptance of the feedback for high and low self-esteem individuals, Stake (1982) has shown that high self-esteem individuals rated the positive feedback as more accurate than negative feedback, while low self-esteem individuals more readily accepted the negative feedback in order to avoid the possible future disappointments. He concluded that high self-esteem individuals make more self-enhancing ratings in order to maintain their self-esteem, whereas low self-esteem individuals were more cautious about their ratings in order to reduce possibility for disappointment. Jussim, et al. (1995) has shown that low self-esteem individuals accept more responsibility for negative feedback and consider negative feedback as more accurate.

As self-evaluations of individuals affect reactions to feedback, feedback can also alter people's self-evaluations. Jussim et al. (1995) suggested that negative feedback reduces self-evaluations of individuals with low self-esteem more than individuals with high self-esteem. Likewise, positive feedback increases self-evaluations of high self-esteem individuals more than low self-esteem individuals. One of the reasons that low self-esteem individuals react negatively to negative feedback is that they take failure personally, and their feelings about themselves tend to depend more on the surrounding situations (Brown, 2007).

It can be seen that previous studies have not suggested a main effect of self-esteem on acceptance; it only makes sense to evaluate the interaction of self-esteem with feedback sign. Contrary findings are due to the studies that did not differentiate affective and accuracy reactions. The following conclusion was drawn after previous studies had been analyzed: everybody loves positive feedback, but high self-esteem

individuals accept it more than low self-esteem individuals, and low self-esteem individuals reject negative feedback less than high self-esteem individuals. Based on this it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: Positive feedback is more accepted by high self-esteem individuals than low self-esteem individuals, and negative feedback is more accepted by low self-esteem individuals than high self-esteem individuals.

This study evaluates not global self-esteem, but domain specific self-esteem of individuals. Global self-esteem comprises of self-esteem in many different domains such as physical, academical (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985). Individuals' self-esteem might be high in one domain, while it can be lower in another one (Conley, Ghamavi, VonOhlen, & Foulkes, 2007). In a study Pierce and Gardner (2004) examined the self-esteem within the work and organizational context, and suggested that organization or work based self-esteem determines work behaviors and attitudes. Since this study is conducted in an organizational setting, self-esteem was measured as domain-specific to the job. In the literature, the effect of personality is studied mostly in personality feedback, but the situation might be a bit different in organizational contexts, so there is a need for more research conducted in organizational settings.

Other than personality characteristic, it is necessary to mention task characteristics to understand the feedback process. As suggested by the feedback intervention theory (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996) task characteristics can moderate the relationship between feedback sign and reactions, but they are poorly understood in the literature. There are not sufficient studies in the literature that refers to the effect of task characteristics on acceptance of feedback. This study will include a task characteristic, task centrality that was not studied before. It will be discussed in the following section.

1.9. Task Centrality

Apart from personality characteristics, task characteristics are also poorly understood in the context of feedback (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Previous research categorized tasks in very different ways such as complex versus simple tasks (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970), resource sensitive versus resource insensitive tasks

(Kanfer, 1996), prevention versus promotion focus tasks (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011). After making such categorizations, these researchers showed the differential effects of task type on reactions o feedback and/or performance.

Kluger and DeNisi (1996) searched for the effects of feedback on performance in the context of task difficulty, and they indicated that if the task is cognitively challenging, praise (a positive feedback) negatively affects the performance while it improves the performance on a simple task. Shrauger and Rosenberg (1970) also suggested that for complex tasks, performance increases more after a success experience than failure experience. Task difficulty was also found to show interaction with self-esteem in reactions to feedback. It has been suggested that when the task is difficult, individuals with low self-esteem impair performance most after negative feedback (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970).

Vancouver and Tischner (2004) suggested that the size of effects of feedback on performance can be related to nature of the task. They used Kanfer (1996)'s distinction of resource-sensitive and resource insensitive tasks. For resource sensitive tasks, performance is not affected by the amount of attention given to the task completion, while for resource insensitive tasks more cognitive processing is needed (Vancouver & Tischner, 2004). Their study has shown that when cognitive resources are needed to reduce discrepancies, feedback was positively related to performance, as the feedback got more favorable the performance increased, but when cognitive resources are not needed, sign of the feedback was negatively related to performance. As the feedback gets more favorable, the performance does not get better.

Van Dijk and Kluger (2011) also studied the effects of task type in relation to feedback. They suggested that sign of the feedback can have different effects on motivation and performance depending on the task type. They categorized tasks either prevention focus or promotion focus. Promotion focus tasks refer to the tasks that require creativity and open-mindedness, while prevention focus tasks require attentiveness, accuracy and obedience to rules (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011). Van Dijk and Kluger (2011) have shown that for promotion focus tasks, positive feedback contributes to performance and motivation more than negative feedback, but for prevention focus tasks, the opposite is true. They concluded that no feedback system

can fit all the situations, so more research about different characteristics is needed for designing effective feedback interventions (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011).

Another task characteristic that might be important is task centrality. It can be said that individuals complete various different tasks as a part of their daily routine at work, but not all of the tasks are highly central to their actual job. In this study, central tasks refer to the tasks that are perceived as more relevant to the actual job, and the ones that are performed more frequently, while peripheral tasks are less relevant and less frequently performed. Task centrality of the task is both related to the self and the job. DeNisi and Kluger (2000) used the term "centrality" for explaining goals, and suggested that some goals are more central to our self-concept; therefore we tend to pay more attention to the feedback that are related to these goals. Bell and Arthur (2008) claimed that for information that is central to a person's self-schema, self-consistent feedback is considered as more accurate, but this is not true for the information where there is not enough self-knowledge.

The effect of task centrality on feedback can be similar to the effect of trait importance in Dunning's (1995) study. His study examined whether individuals's search for feedback is governed by self-assessment or self-enhancement motives. The feedback given in the study was about individuals's traits, and two dimensions he used were trait modifiability and trait importance. He proposed when the trait is important, individuals's self-enhancement concerns override self-assessment concerns. Dunning (1995) asserted that when the trait is important, individuals will be more willing to protect their self-esteem. Thus, they will be more self-protective, because self is vulnerable to failure situations. Another concept that he used is trait modifiability, which refers to the extent that the person believes s/he can influence the ability that is being assessed. In his study, Dunning (1995) suggested that when a person believes that s/he has control over the assessed ability, s/he can tolerate negative feedback more than the non-modifiable condition.

Task centrality concept can be considered similar to trait importance in Dunning's study. Central tasks can be seen as more important by individuals, so when they receive negative feedback about these tasks they might be more self-protective, because negative feedback about them is detrimental to their self-esteem at work. Therefore, it might be easier for them to accept negative feedback for peripheral

tasks. Feedback about central tasks tend to be important for individuals' self-views, so individuals will engage in avoidance strategies when they receive negative feedback about these tasks (Nease, Mudgett, & Quiñones, 1999).

As in the case of self-esteem, task centrality seems to have an effect when it is examined with feedback sign. Since negative feedback about central tasks will be seen as a threat to the self and to the job, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3: Positive feedback is more accepted for central tasks than peripheral tasks, while negative feedback is more accepted for peripheral tasks than central tasks.

Differences in the level of self-esteem and task relevance may also cause individuals to react differently, but they will not make a difference without considering the feedback sign. Previous studies suggested that high self-esteem individuals accept positive feedback more than low self-esteem individuals, and this study expects that positive feedback will be accepted more for central tasks than peripheral tasks. Putting this information together, it is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4: High self-esteem individuals accepts the positive feedback most when it is about a central task.

To sum up, the present study examines this new factor, task centrality, along with feedback sign and self-esteem level to determine how they affect individuals' affective reactions and acceptance of feedback to help organizations especially to deal with hassles in giving negative feedback.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Overview

The method chapter is composed of Pre Study and Main Study subsections. Pre Study was conducted in order to decide on the tasks that would be used in the Main Study. In the Main Study, participants read four different vignettes that include performance feedback about four different tasks. After reading each vignette, they were asked to complete a reaction scale for the related feedback.

One aim of the study was to find how individuals react differently to feedback about central and peripheral tasks. Therefore, firstly a Pre Study was conducted to reveal which tasks are perceived more central or more peripheral by research assistants. Main Study was conducted based on the findings of the Pre Study. Details of these two studies are presented separately below.

2.2. Pre Study: Choosing two central and two peripheral tasks to be used in the Main Study

Pre Study was conducted in order to determine the centrality of the tasks that are performed by research assistants. Task list was prepared by 6 research assistants from a private university in Ankara. In addition to this, Eğitim-Sen's report about research assistants (2013) was used to make arrangements on the list. Final list consisted of 30 different tasks. Participants completed two different forms with the same 30 tasks. In the first one, they were asked to rate the relevance of the tasks, and in the second one, they were asked to rate the frequency of these tasks. They were also asked one open-ended question to check if there is any task they would like to add that was not present in the list.

2.2.1. Participants

Ninety four research assistants (69 female, 25 male) working in public and private universities in Turkey participated the Pre Study. Of them, 65 were from social sciences faculty, 27 participants were from science faculty, and 1 participant

was from health faculty, and 1 participant did not specify her/his department. Mean tenure was 4.87 years (SD = 5.45).

2.2.2. Procedure

Participants were contacted via e-mail. E-mail addresses were received from official web sites of universities in Turkey. Research assistants who agreed to participate in the study completed an online questionnaire. The questionnaire started with informed consent form (See Appendix A) which gave information about the purpose of the study. After that, participants answered demographic questions (See Appendix B). Then, they were asked to rate relevance of the tasks on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1=Not related at all to 5=Very much related. They were also asked to rate frequency of the tasks on a different form on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1=Never to 5=Always (See Appendix C). Before giving relevance and frequency ratings they also received the definition of these two concepts. Lastly, they were asked to indicate at least three tasks that were not present on the list. Mean time that was spent on the completion of the forms was 9 minutes 1 second.

2.2.3. Results

After the data was collected, mean relevance and frequency scores were calculated. Results have shown that research assistants rated following three tasks as most relevant to their actual job: contributing to scientific research and making publications ($Mean\ (M) = 4.68$, $Standard\ Deviation\ (SD) = .77$), attending seminars/workshops held in Turkey or abroad to represent department/institute ($Mean\ (M) = 3.80$, $Standard\ Deviation\ (SD) = 1.33$), answering students' questions related to lessons ($Mean\ (M) = 3.65$, $Standard\ Deviation\ (SD) = 1.24$). Following three tasks were rated as least relevant: contacting the Alumni (via e-mail, by phone) to gather data about their current situation ($Mean\ (M) = 1.36$, $Standard\ Deviation\ (SD) = .87$), dealing with technical problems in the department (computer projection or equipment failure in the department, etc.) ($Mean\ (M) = 1.41$, $Standard\ Deviation\ (SD) = .97$), preparing brochures/catalogs for department / university / institute ($Mean\ (M) = 1.62$, $Standard\ Deviation\ (SD) = 1.08$).

Mean frequency scores indicated that participants rated following three tasks as most frequently performed: proctoring midterm / final / makeup exams (*Mean (M)*

= 4.75, Standard Deviation (SD) = .70), answering students' questions related to courses (Mean (M) = 4.12, Standard Deviation (SD) = 1.13), and printing/copying materials such as homework/exams (Mean (M) = 3.97, Standard Deviation (SD) = 1.16). Additionally, these three tasks were rated as least frequently performed: contacting the Alumni (via e-mail, by phone) to gather data about their current situation (Mean (M) = 1.97, Standard Deviation (SD) = 1.32), advising student clubs (especially the ones related to the department) (Mean (M) = 2.22, Standard Deviation (SD) = 1.37), and dealing with technical problems in the department (computer projection or equipment failure in the department, etc.) (Mean (M) = 2.47, Standard Deviation (SD) = 1.41)

In addition to mean scores, correlation between relevance and frequency was computed for each task on the list. 22 of 30 correlations were significant. Correlations ranged from .20 to .52. It can be said that frequency and relevance scores were moderately correlated (See Table 1 for means, SDs, and correlations).

To determine the task centrality, task relevance was weighted with 0.7 and task frequency was weighted with 0.3. The distribution of weight was done by this way, because there were some tasks which research assistants rated as highly relevant, but not very frequent (e.g. attending seminars/workshops held in Turkey or abroad to represent department/institute), and some tasks that are rated as less relevant, but frequent (e.g. submitting students' grades during or at the end of the semester). After this calculation top two central tasks: namely contributing to scientific research and making publications, and answering students' questions related to lessons, and top two peripheral tasks, namely contacting the Alumni to gather data about their current situation, and dealing with technical problems in the department were chosen to be used in the Main Study. Central tasks were the top two, and the peripheral two tasks were the bottom two after weighted scores were calculated based on relevance and frequency scores.

 Table 2.1. Means, SDs and Correlations for Frequency and Relevance Scores for Each Task

	Task	Relevance		Frequency	/	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Correlations
	Proctoring midterm / final / makeup exams	3.16	1.34	4.75	.69	.20
	Printing/copying materials such as homework/exams	2.67	1.39	3.97	1.16	.28**
	Answering students' questions related to lessons	3.65	1.24	4.12	1.13	.28**
0	Contributing to the promotion of the department (preparing and presenting the presentation)	2.77	1.34	3.84	1.32	.21*
	Marking quizzes and assignments	2.39	1.33	3.37	1.31	.11
	Contributing to scientific research and making publications	4.68	.77	3.53	1.24	.23*
	Performing administrative tasks (writing petitions, etc.)	1.74	1.22	3.30	1.36	.24*

Table 2.1. (continued)

	Task	Relevance		Frequenc	су	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Correlations
	Attending the classes with the instructor in order to facilitate the functioning of the course	3.26	1.26	3.26	1.47	.23*
	Preparing the weekly course /exam period schedules	2.16	1.34	3.10	1.53	.26*
	Giving lab courses	3.00	1.41	2.79	1.72	.52**
29	Sending e-mails or making calls to students in order to make announcements or giving information	2.45	1.35	3.57	1.38	.35**
	Preparing files in the accreditation process (Bologna, FEDEK, MÜDEK, etc.)	2.14	1.29	3.80	1.38	.17
	Taking charge in the students' graduation ceremony	2.01	1.40	3.33	1.56	.30**
	Taking notes in department meetings	1.94	1.20	2.47	1.52	.29**
	Submitting students' grades during or at the end of the semester	2.37	1.43	3.87	1.46	.39**
	Editing/updating department's web page	1.79	1.24	2.60	1.65	.31**

Table 2.1. (continued)

		Relevance		Frequenc	су	
	Task					
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Correlations
	Contacting the Alumni (via e-mail, by phone) to gather data about their current situation	1.36	.87	1.97	1.32	.20
	Keeping record of students' attendance to courses and submitting them to the system	2.06	1.29	3.19	1.69	.39**
30	Preparing the content of a lesson	2.31	1.37	2.67	1.50	.28**
	Preparing the content of a homework	2.04	1.33	3.24	1.43	.36**
	Running errands and giving technical supports in the conferences/seminars /workshops organized by the department	2.34	1.42	3.52	1.54	.29**
	Announcing students' grades	2.15	1.34	3.14	1.62	.37**
	Archiving the documents at the end of the course	2.94	1.39	3.62	1.47	.24*
	Academic advising to students (choice of the courses, life after graduation, graduate schools, etc.)	1.62	1.08	2.52	1.46	.22*

Table 2.1. (continued)

		Relevance			Frequency		
	Task						
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Correlations	
	Preparing brochures/catalogs for department / university / institute	1.68	1.24	3.16	1.39	.29**	
သ	Filling out various documents related to the department (Preparing Professors' CVs, preparing list of requirements for the department, etc.)	3.80	1.32	2.51	1.46	.04	
31	Attending seminars/workshops held in Turkey or abroad to represent department/institute	2.32	1.35	3.76	1.46	.19	
	Assisting instructors in course registration	2.32	1.35	3.76	1.46	.21	
	Dealing with technical problems in the department (computer projection or equipment failure in the department, etc.)	1.41	.97	2.47	1.41	.19	
	Advising student clubs (especially the ones related to the department)	2.22	1.16	2.22	1.37	.37**	

Note: Relevance and frequency were assessed on a 5-point Likert type scale.

^{*}*p* <.05; ***p* <.01

2.3. Main Study

2.3.1. Participants

The main study participants were 106 research assistants who work in different public and private universities in Turkey. Of the participants, 73(69%) were female, while 32 (31%) of them were male, and one participant did not report her/his gender. The age of the participants ranged from 23 to 35 with a mean and standard deviation of 27.47 and 2.65, respectively. Nine participants did not report their age. Of the participants, 53 reported their education level masters, and 53 of them as PhD. Fifty two participants were from social sciences faculty, 31 were from natural and applied sciences, seven were from health sciences, 12 of them chose the option other, and four participants did not report their faculty. Participants had 3 years of experience as a research assistant on average with a standard deviation of 2.04. Of the participants, 76 were working in a public university, and 30 of them were working in a private university. Participation was voluntary, and participants did not receive any incentive for their participation.

2.3.2. Materials

In the current study, vignettes, reactions to feedback, and domain specific self-esteem scale were used as a material. Additionally, participants' gender, age, education level, faculty, tenure as a research assistant, and type of university (public versus private) they are working were asked in the demographic information form. Lastly, participants were asked six questions related to receiving feedback in their actual jobs.

2.3.2.1. Vignettes

Eight different vignettes were written by the researcher for the main study. Four of the vignettes included positive feedback, and four of them included negative feedback. Among those four vignettes, for both positive and negative feedback ones, two of them were related to two central tasks, and two of them were related to two peripheral tasks that were determined in the Pre Study. Central tasks were contributing to scientific research and making publications, and answering students' questions related to lessons, while peripheral tasks were contacting the Alumni to

gather data about their current situation, and dealing with technical problems in the department. These four tasks were chosen according to Pre Study results.

For each scenario, first there was a description of the feedback situation. There were two main characters in each scenario. One of them was the chairperson of the department, and the other one is the research assistant of the department in the scenario. Participants were informed that it is a small section from a verbal performance feedback session in 2014. The feedback first included which task is expected from the research assistant, and the second sentence stated his/her situation, and the last sentence was about the expectations for the next year.

Gender was counterbalanced in the scenarios, so there were four different gender conditions: male giving feedback to female, female giving feedback to male, male giving feedback to male, and female giving feedback to female. For each vignette, there was also one positive, and one negative version. Therefore, in total there were 32 different versions of feedback vignettes for four tasks. These vignettes were very similar, only the sign of the feedback and the source's and recipient's gender was different. Each participant was given 4 of these vignettes. In total there were 48 counterbalanced forms (See Appendix D for vignette examples).

2.3.2.2. Reactions to Feedback Scale

Reactions to feedback scale measured participants' accuracy and affective reactions in the present study. A total of 12 items were rated on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1= Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree (See Appendix E).

Perceived accuracy of feedback was assessed with four items. Of them, 1 item was adapted from the four-item acceptance scale of Solmazer (2013). One item was adapted from three-item acceptance scale of Bell & Arthur (2008), and lastly two items were adapted from four-item acceptance scale of Nease, Mudgett, and Quiñones (1999). An example of an accuracy item is "I think the performance feedback accurately reflects the performance".

Affective reactions were assessed with eight items. Five items were adapted from Brett and Atwater (2001)'s 13 item affective reactions scale, and other three items were adapted from Dutton and Brown (1996)'s 4 item emotional reaction scale.

Affective reactions scale included three positive emotions (satisfied, motivated, encouraged) and five negative emotions (angry, criticized, disappointed, humiliated, and ashamed). An example of an acceptance item is "I think the performance feedback is motivating". Reliability of the reaction scale was .96. For affective reaction subscale the reliability was .95, and for acceptance subscale it was .90.

2.3.2.2. Domain Specific Self-Esteem Scale

Domain specific self-esteem scale was created by using Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965). Rosenberg self-esteem scale is a 10-item 4-point Likert type scale, ranging from 1= Completely agree to 4= Completely disagree. In Rosenberg self-esteem scale five items are worded negatively, while five of them are worded positively.

Rosenberg self-esteem scale is a frequently used, highly reliable (Schmitt & Allik, 2005) and well-validated (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989; Rosenberg, 1979) measure of self-esteem. Schmitt and Allik (2005) found reliability coefficient of .81 in their studies which was conducted for 53 nations. Rosenberg self-esteem scale was adapted to Turkish by Çuhadaroğlu (1986), and the reliability of the scale was found to be .75 for Turkish society.

In the present study, Rosenberg self-esteem items were used, but items were re-worded to assess self-esteem as a research assistant. An example item from the original scale is "I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others", in Turkish "Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum", and it was re-worded as follows: "I feel that I'm a research assistant of worth, at least on an equal plane with other research assistants. "Kendimi en az diğer araştırma görevlileri kadar değerli buluyorum" (See Appendix F). The scale was also a 4-point Likert type scale like the original one, but the scoring was the opposite. The scale ranged from 1= Completely disagree to 4= Completely agree. The score range was from 10 to 40, where higher scores indicated higher self-esteem. The scale had a reliability of .89 in the present study.

2.3.4.5. Manipulation Check Scale

Five manipulation check questions were asked to see whether participants could identify themselves with the character in the vignette, if they found the performance feedback in the vignette realistic, how favorable they see the performance feedback, and the task relevance and frequency of the tasks in vignettes.

2.3.4.6. Feedback Questions

Of the participants, 51 answered six more questions asking their feedback situation for their actual work condition for exploratory analyses. They were asked whether they receive feedback. If they receive feedback they completed questions asking the frequency of positive and negative feedback received. They were also asked how frequent they would like to receive feedback, and how useful they find feedback.

2.3.3. Design

A 2 (feedback sign) x 2 (self-esteem) x 2 (task centrality) mixed-subjects design was adopted in this study. The effect of feedback sign (positive vs. negative), self-esteem (high vs. low), and task centrality (central vs. peripheral) on two types of reactions (accuracy and affective) was investigated. Feedback sign and self-esteem were between subject variables, while task centrality was a within subject variable (IVs). Accuracy and affective reactions were treated as seperate dependent variables.

2.3.4. Procedure

Participants were contacted via social media. Participants who agreed to participate in the study were randomly assigned to either positive or negative feedback condition. Firstly, they received the Informed Consent Form (See Appendix G). Participants were informed in the consent form that the aim of the study is to reveal the effects of performance feedback. After the informed consent form was signed, they completed the demographic form questionnaire. After completing the demographic form, they read an instruction about the vignettes they were expected to react. The instruction stated that there are four different vignettes and they are expected to read those vignettes by trying to identify themselves with the research

assistant character. In addition to this, they were informed that they will be asked some questions after reading the vignettes.

Participants then read the first vignette, and then that they completed the reaction scale. After completing the reaction scale they answered five manipulation check questions. First two manipulation check questions checked whether the participants were able to identify with the character, and if they thought the feedback was realistic. They answered on a 5 point-Likert type scale ranging from 1=Completely disagree to 5=Completely agree. The third manipulation check question was to check the sign of the feedback. It was a 5-point Likert type item, ranging from1=Strongly negative to 5=Strongly positive. Other two questions were to check task relevance and task frequency manipulations. They were also 5-point Likert type items, relevance ranging from 1=Not relevant at all to 5=Highly relevant, frequency ranging from 1=Never to 5=Always.

The same scales were also completed after reading other three vignettes. Order of the vignettes and characters of the genders in vignettes were counterbalanced. Therefore, there were totally 48 different versions of the questionnaire. Each participant received a different version.

The last scale of the questionnaire was domain specific self-esteem scale. Of the participants, 51 also completed an additional scale asking their feedback condition at work asking whether they receive feedback at work, frequency of negative and positive feedback, how frequent they would like to receive feedback, and whether they find feedback useful. After completing all the scales, participants were thanked and received a debriefing form which includes a detailed explanation of the purpose of the study (See Appendix H for debriefing form).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1. Overview

Results chapter consists of six subheadings: data screening and cleaning, manipulation check analyses, factor analyses, descriptive statistics and correlations between variables, and main analyses for hypothesis testing, and secondary analysis.

3.2. Data Screening and Cleaning

Prior to analysis, the data were examined for missing values. There were four participants who did not respond to self-esteem scale, so they were excluded from the analysis related to self-esteem. There were 9746 data points in total, and 126 (1.29%) of them were missing, and missing values were randomly scattered. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that when missing values are less than 5%, any method will yield similar results, so expectation maximization method was chosen as a way of dealing with missing data. This technique firstly estimates the means, variances, and covariances from the individuals whose data is complete. After that, maximum likelihood procedures are used to estimate regression equations that relate each variable to each other variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

3.2. Manipulation Check Analyses

Manipulation check questions were asked in order to identify whether participants understood the vignettes, and if manipulations worked as expected.

3.2.1. Perceived Reality and Identification with Vignettes

After reacting to each vignette participants were asked whether they were able to identify with the character and if they found the vignette realistic. They rated these two questions on a 5-point Likert type scale and means were plausible. Mean identification with the character was 3.66 with a standard deviation of .77, while perceived reality of the vignette had a mean of 3.47 with a standard deviation of .70.

3.2.2. Feedback Sign

Feedback sign manipulation was checked by asking participant how negative/positive they perceived the feedback in the vignette on a 5-point Likert type scale. An independent samples t-test was conducted by taking the perceived favorability as dependent variable, and feedback sign as grouping variable. The t-test was statistically significant, t (104) = 9.42, p < .001. Participants that received vignettes including negative feedback (M = 2.53, SD =.61) rated the favorability significantly lower than the ones that received positive feedback (M = 3.77, SD =.74). This indicates that feedback sign manipulation worked as expected.

3.2.3. Task Centrality

Participants were also asked how relevant they perceive and how frequently they perform the task in each vignette to check task centrality manipulation. Centrality scores were computed with same procedure in the Pre Study. Relevance was multiplied by .70 while frequency was multiplied by .30 for four different tasks for each participant.

A paired sample t-test was conducted to evaluate whether participants rated the two central tasks more relevant and frequently performed than the two peripheral tasks. The results indicated that centrality mean of two central tasks (M = 3.82, SD = .71) was significantly greater than the mean for peripheral tasks (M = 1.69, SD = .72), t (104) = 21.64, p < .001. Thus, it is possible to conclude that task centrality manipulation operated as expected.

3.2.4. Feedback Related Questions

Of the participants, 51 completed an additional scale asking their feedback condition at their actual work. 28 of the participant stated that they receive feedback at work, and 23 of them stated that they receive no feedback. From the ones that receive feedback, on average the frequency of the feedback was rated as 3.07 with a standard deviation of .72 on a 5 point-Likert type scale. Their ratings of frequency of positive feedback (M = 3.46, SD = 1.04) was higher than the frequency of negative feedback (M = 2.11, SD = .99). They were also asked how frequent they would like to

receive feedback, and the mean was 3.36 with a standard deviation of 1.02. Lastly mean usefulness of feedback was 3.90 with a standard deviation of .88.

3.3. Factor Analyses

Reaction to feedback was factor analyzed in order to see whether two factor solution will fit as theoretically expected. Since participants answered the reaction scale four times, mean scores for all reaction items were computed. Results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .87, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, χ^2 (66) = 1474.27, p < .001, which showed that the measure included in the analysis was factorable. Initial results showed that there were two factors employing eigenvalue over 1.0. The scree plot also indicated the existence of two factors. Two factor solution explained 80% of the variance. First factor explained 69.20% of the total variance, and second factor explained 10.31% of the variance. Since the factors were highly correlated with each other (r = -.63) direct oblimin rotation was appropriate in the analysis. The pattern matrix indicated that Factor 1 corresponds to accuracy reactions, while Factor 2 corresponds to affective reactions. Item 2, Item 3, and Item 10 loaded on the accuracy reaction factor while they were expected to load on affective reactions (See Table 3.1. for factor loadings). The results were not exactly as expected, so some items were grouped by hand based on the results of previous studies. (e.g. Bell & Arthur, 2008; Nease et al., 1999; Solmazer, 2013).

Table 3.1. Factor loadings and communalities based on a principle components analysis with oblimin rotation for 12 items from the reaction to feedback scale (N = 106)

	Accuracy reaction	Affective reaction
Verilen performans geribildiriminin performansı doğru şekilde yansıttığını düşünüyorum.	.94	
2. Verilen performans geribildiriminin memnun edici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	.63	40
3. Verilen performans geribildiriminin kişinin performansını yakaladığını düşünüyorum.	.95	
4. Verilen performans geribildiriminin motive edici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	.70	30
10. Verilen performans geribildiriminin hayal kırıklığına sebep olacağını düşünüyorum.	.67	
5. Verilen performans geribildirimini ciddiye almanın zor olduğunu düşünüyorum.	.86	
6. Verilen performans geribildiriminin öfkeye sebep olacağını düşünüyorum.		78
7. Verilen performans geribildirimiyle aynı fikirde olmayacağımı düşünüyorum.	.60	34
8. Verilen performans geribildiriminin eleştirilmiş hissetmeye sebep olacağını düşünüyorum		78
9. Verilen performans geribildiriminin hayal kırıklığına sebep olacağını düşünüyorum.	a	79
11. Verilen performans geribildiriminin aşağılanmış hissetmeye sebep olacağını düşünüyorum.		98
12. Verilen performans geribildiriminin utandırıcı olduğunu düşünüyorum.		93

Note. Factor loadings < .30 are suppressed.

3.4. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations between Variables

Means, standard deviations, minimum, and maximum scores for study variables are presented in Table 3.2. In addition to this, the mean and standard deviation of participants on accuracy and affective reactions for each experimental condition is presented in Table 3.3., and the correlation matrix between study variables can be seen in Table 3.4.

All reaction subscale ratings were significantly correlated with each other. The subscales were highly reliable. Reliability scores change from .87 to .95 (See Table 4.2. for reliability scores). Highest correlation was between accuracy of peripheral task feedback and affective reactions to peripheral task feedback (r = .80), followed by the correlation between accuracy of central task feedback and affective reactions to central tasks feedback (r = .75), which indicates that two reaction types are positively and highly correlated for the same type of task feedback. Affective reactions to central and peripheral task feedback were positively associated (r = .58), as well as the accuracy of central and peripheral task feedback (r = .38). Additionally, accuracy of central task feedback and affective reactions to peripheral task feedback were positively correlated (r = .34), and there was also a positive association between accuracy of peripheral task feedback and affective reactions to central task feedback (r = .44).

Surprisingly, self-esteem did not have any significant correlation with any of the study variables even with the acceptance and affective reactions before categorizing them for the sign and centrality variable.

 Table 3.2. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max
1.Age	27.47	2.65	23.00	35.00
2.Job experience as a research assistant	3.00	2.04	0.08	11.00
3.Accuracy reactions to positive feedback	3.66	.75	1.88	5.00
4.Accuracy reactions to negative feedback	2.81	.47	1.63	3.60
5. Affective reaction to positive feedback	3.90	.75	1.88	4.97
6. Affective reaction to negative feedback	2.85	.48	1.84	4.28
7. Accuracy of central task feedback	3.60	.82	1.50	5.00
8.Accuracy of peripheral task feedback	2.86	1.00	1.00	5.00
9.Affective reaction to central task feedback	3.62	.88	1.75	5.00
10.Affective reactions to peripheral task feedback	3.13	.97	1.00	5.00
11.Domain specific self-esteem	3.30	.53	1.50	4.00

Note: Reactions to feedback were rated on 5-point scale, while Self-esteem scale was 4 point scale.

Table 3.3. The means and standard deviation of accuracy and affective reactions for each experimental condition

			Dependent Variables							
			Acc	Accuracy Reactions		e Reactions				
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
Sign	Positive (Pos)		3.66	.75	3.90	.75				
	Negative(Neg)		2.81	.47	2.85	.48				
E Centrality	Central(Cen)		3.60	.82	3.62	.88				
	Peripheral (Per)		2.86	1.00	3.13	.97				
SE	High (H)		3.29	.85	3.45	.85				
	Low (L)		3.19	.64	3.26	.80				
Sign*Centrali	Pos	Cen	3.40	.77	4.15	.76				
		Per	3.33	.98	3.64	.97				
	Neg	Cen	3.19	.74	3.68	.62				
		Per	2.39	.77	2.62	.64				

Table 3.3.

			Dependent Variables						
			Accuracy	Reactions	Affectiv	ve Reactions			
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Sign*SE	Pos	Н	3.75	.74	3.95	.72			
		L	3.50	.75	3.82	.80			
	Neg	Н	2.65	.53	2.84	.53			
		L	2.94	.39	2.82	.43			
Centrality*SE	Cen	Н	3.61	.92	3.71	.93			
		L	3.63	.70	3.53	.84			
	Per	Н	2.97	1.00	3.25	.97			
		L	2.75	1.01	2.99	.98			

44

Table 3.3. (continued)

				Dependent Variables						
			_	Accuracy	Reactions	Affective	Reactions			
			_	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Sign*Centrality*SE	Pos	Cen	Н	4.13	.70	4.24	.72			
			L	3.75	.83	4.03	.83			
		Per	Н	3.37	1.00	3.66	.97			
<u>.</u>			L	3.25	.98	3.61	1.01			
	Neg	Cen	Н	2.89	.65	2.98	.62			
			L	3.53	.57	3.13	.62			
		Per	Н	2.41	.68	2.69	.63			
			L	2.35	.86	2.50	.63			

Table 3.4. Correlations between Study variables and Reliability Estimates for Scores

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.Age	-						
2.Job experience as a research	.69**						
assistant 3.Accuracy of central tasks feedback	12	.04	(.88)				
4.Accuracy of peripheral tasks	17	10	.38**	(.90)			
feedback 5.Affective reactions to central tasks	03	.12	.75**	.44**	(.95)		
feedback 6. Affecive reactions to peripheral	06	06	.34**	.80**	.58**	(.95)	
tasks feedback 7. Domain specific self-esteem	.12	.15	.02	.03	.11	.06	(.89)

Note: Job experience as a research assistant: The amount of time in years that the participant have worked as a research assistant*p<.05; **p<.01, N = 49

3.5. Main Analysis for Hypothesis Testing

First hypothesis stated that (a) individuals will show more positive affective reactions to positive feedback, and more negative reactions to negative feedback, (b) positive feedback will be more accepted than the negative feedback. Affective reaction subscale consisted of eight items. An example item is "I think the performance feedback is motivating". Acceptance subscale consisted of four items, and the example item is "I think the performance feedback accurately reflects the performance". In order to test part a of the Hypothesis 1, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The test was statistically significant, t (104) = 8.57, p <.001. The results indicated that participants showed more positive affective reactions to positive feedback (M = 3.90, SD =.75), and more negative affective reactions to negative feedback (M = 2.85, SD =.49). Additionally, an independent samples t-test showed that the effect of sign on acceptance was significant, t (104) = 7.01, p <.001. On average, participants accepted positive feedback (M = 3.69, SD =.75) more than negative feedback (M = 2.81, SD =.48). ¹Therfore, hypothesis 1 was confirmed.

Second hypothesis suggested that positive feedback will be more accepted by high self-esteem individuals, and negative feedback will be more accepted by low self-esteem individuals. Before doing the analysis, participants were categorized as high and low self-esteem individuals using a median split. Participants who had a score lower than 34 on self-esteem scale were categorized as low self-esteem individuals (N = 50), and the ones who had score higher than 34 were categorized as high self-esteem individuals (N = 52). 2 x 2 ANOVA was conducted to see the effects of feedback sign and self-esteem on acceptance of the feedback. The ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between the variables, F = (1, 98) = 4.61 p < .05, partial $\eta = 0.05$. The main effect of sign was also significant as mentioned in the first hypothesis results, but the main effect of self-esteem was not significant, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, F = 0.05, while low self-esteem participants accepted positive feedback (F = 0.05), while low self-esteem participants accepted negative feedback (F = 0.05) more than

¹ The study did not evaluate the reactions of participants based on an actual feedback condition. They reacted to the feedback in the vignettes by trying to identify themselves with the research assistant in the story.

high self-esteem individuals (M = 2.65, SD = .53) (See Figure 1 for interaction). To explore the nature of the interaction, tests of the simple main effects were performed. The simple main effect of sign within low self-esteem individuals was significant F (1, 98) = 3.95, p < .05, and the main effect of sign within high self-esteem individuals was also significant F (1, 98) = 15.35, p < .001.

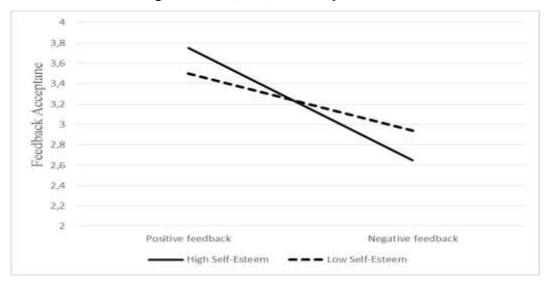


Figure 3.1. The Interaction between Feedback Sign and Self-Esteem in Predicting Feedback Acceptance

The third hypothesis was formed to test the interaction between feedback sign and task centrality, and it stated that positive feedback will be more accepted for central tasks, while negative feedback will be more accepted for peripheral tasks. A 2 x 2 mixed-design analysis of variance with feedback sign as the between subjects variable and task centrality as the within subjects variable was carried out on the dependent variable, feedback acceptance. The ANOVA indicated no significant interaction between feedback sign and task centrality, F(1, 104) = .80, ns, partial $\eta 2 = .01$, but there was a significant main effect of task centrality on feedback acceptance, F(1, 104) = .55.65, p < .001, partial $\eta 2 = .34$. Feedback acceptance was higher for central tasks for both positive (M = 3.98, SD = .77) and negative feedback (M = 3.22, SD = .68), than peripheral tasks (positive feedback M = 3.33, SD = .98; negative feedback M = 2.39, SD = .77). The main effect of task centrality is depicted in Figure 2. Thus, hypothesis 3 is not confirmed.

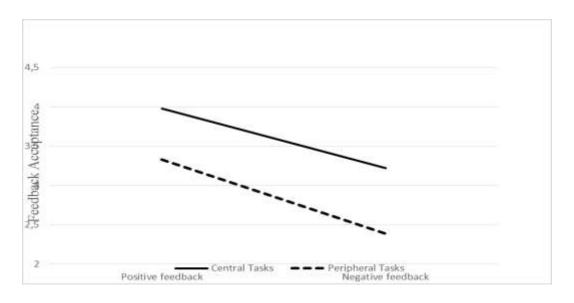


Figure 3.2. Main Effect of Task Centrality on Feedback Acceptance

The last hypothesis was about a three way interaction, suggesting that high self-esteem individuals will accept the positive feedback most when it is about a central task. A 2 x 2 x 2 mixed design ANOVA as task centrality (central vs. peripheral) is a within subjects factor, feedback sign (positive vs. negative) and selfesteem (high vs. low) as between subjects factors was conducted. Results showed that the predicted interaction between these variables was significant, F(1, 98) =5.63, p < .05, partial $\eta 2 = .05$. Participants with high self-esteem had the higher acceptance for positive feedback about central tasks (M = 4.13, SD = .70) as suggested by the fourth hypothesis, and participants with low self-esteem showed the lowest acceptance scores for negative feedback for peripheral tasks (M = 2.34, SD=.86). The interaction effect is depicted in Figure 3. To explore the nature of the interaction, tests of the simple main effects were performed for central tasks. The results have shown that simple main effect of self-esteem within self-esteem groups was significant for high self-esteem individuals, F(1, 98) = 41.45, p < .001, but not for low self-esteem individuals, F(1, 98) = 1.38, ns. This indicates that for central tasks, sign of the feedback determines acceptance of high self-esteem individuals more than low self-esteem ones.

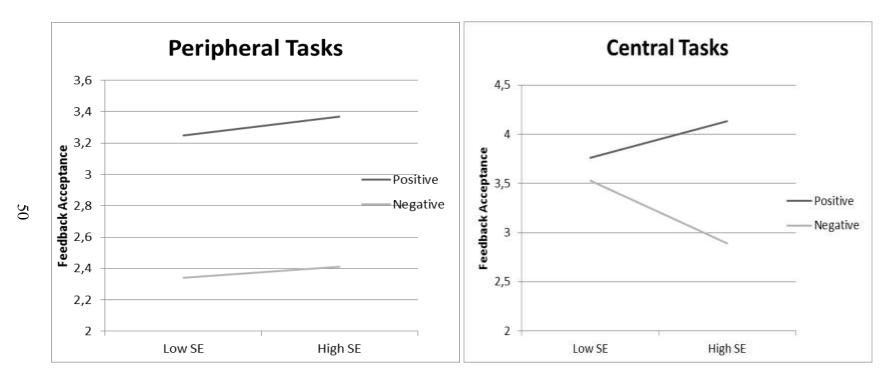


Figure 3.3. Interaction effect of Feedback Sign, Self-Esteem, and Task Centrality on Feedback Acceptance

3.6. Secondary Analyses

Secondary analyses were firstly conducted for affective reactions that were not actually included in the hypothesis. Firstly, 2 x 2 ANOVA was conducted to see the effects of feedback sign and self-esteem on affective reactions. ANOVA results indicated that the interaction between feedback sign and self-esteem was not significant for affective reactions, F(1, 98) = .18, ns, partial $\eta 2 = .00$. Only the main effect of sign was significant for affective reactions as stated in the part a of the first hypothesis.

Furthermore, to see the effect of sign and task centrality on affective reactions a 2 x 2 mixed ANOVA was conducted by taking the task centrality as within subjects factor, and sign as between subjects factor. ANOVA was not statistically significant for interaction effect, F(1, 98) = .09, ns, partial $\eta 2 = .02$. However, task centrality had a significant main effect on affective interactions, F(1, 98) = 34.51, p < .001, partial $\eta 2 = .25$. Mean affective reactions were higher for central tasks both for positive (M = 4.15, SD = .76) and negative feedback conditions (M = 3.08, SD = .62) than peripheral tasks (positive feedback M = 3.64, SD = .97; negative feedback M = 2.62, SD = .64) (See figure 4 for the main effect of task centrality on affective reactions).

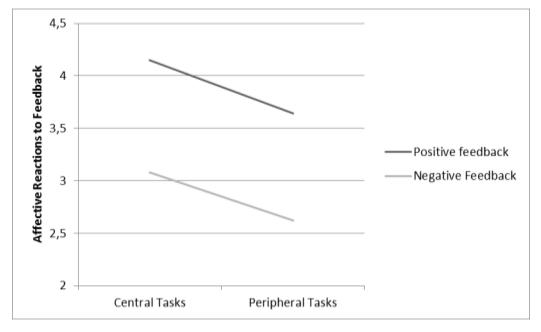


Figure 3.4. Main Effect of Task Centrality on Affecive Reactions to Feedback

Hypotheses of the study were also tested without differentiating between affective and accuracy scores. Since the results of the factor analyses were not exactly as expected, there is a possibility that individuals cannot differentiate between these reactions. Firstly, by taking the average of all reaction scores a mean reaction score was computed. After that, an independent samples t-test was conducted to see whether sign of the feedback affect reactions. The test was statistically significant, t (104) = 8.71, p <.001. The results showed that participants showed more positive reactions to positive feedback (M = 3.82, SD =.71), and more negative reactions to negative feedback (M = 2.84, SD =.41).

To see whether reactions of individuals depend on self-esteem and feedback sign a 2 x 2 ANOVA was conducted. ANOVA results were not statistically significant for interaction effect, F(1, 98) = .09, ns, partial $\eta 2 = .02$. However, task centrality had a significant main effect on affective interactions as well as acceptance, F(1, 98) = 34.51, p < .001, partial $\eta 2 = .25$. Mean affective reactions were higher for central tasks both for positive (M = 4.15, SD = .76) and negative feedback conditions (M = 3.08, SD = .62) than peripheral tasks (positive feedback M = 3.64, SD = .97; negative feedback M = 2.62, SD = .64) (See figure 4 for the main effect of task centrality on affective reactions). Only the main effect of feedback sign on reactions was significant as mentioned above. This indicates that when reactions are not differentiated, interaction between feedback sign and self-esteem cannot be observed.

The interaction between feedback sign and task centrality on reactions was also tested by using 2 x 2 mixed ANOVA. ANOVA was not statistically significant for interaction, F(1, 104) = .04, ns, partial $\eta 2 = .00$, but task centrality had a significant main effect on reactions in general as well, F(1, 104) = 46.24, p < .001, partial $\eta 2 = .31$. On average reactions were higher for central tasks both for positive (M = 4.09, SD = .72) and negative feedback conditions (M = 3.13, SD = .56) than peripheral tasks (positive feedback M = 3.54, SD = .93; negative feedback M = 2.54, SD = .62).

Lastly, a three way interaction was tested by taking the ractions as dependent variable, feedback sign, and self-esteem category as between subjects factor, and task

centrality as within subjects factor. Three way interaction was marginally significant F(1, 98) = 3.57, p = .06, partial $\eta 2 = .04$. The main effect of task centrality was also significant as aforementioned. The results have shown that differentiating the reactions as affective and acceptance reactions enables to see clearer interaction effects.

Another set of analyses were carried out to examine whether feedback condition at actual work affect affective and accuracy reactions. An independent samples t-test was conducted by taking affective reactions as dependent variable, and receiving feedback at work (yes vs. no) as grouping variable. The independent variable was not significant, t(49) = 0.97, ns. Affective reactions of participants who receives feedback at work (M = 3.53, SD = .92) were slightly higher than the ones who do not receive feedback (M = 3.31, SD = .69). On the other hand, independent sample t-test was significant for accuracy reactions, t (49) = 2.06, p < .05. On average, participants who receive feedback at work (M = 3.43, SD = .76) accepted the feedback more than the ones who receive no feedback (M = 3.02, SD = .66). Correlational analyses were conducted between affective reactions, accuracy reactions and other feedback questions, namely frequency of feedback at work, frequency of positive and negative feedback, how frequently they would like to receive feedback, and their usefulness perception of feedback. Only two of these correlations were significant. As a result, how frequent individuals' would like to receive feedback at work (r = .31) and their usefulness perceptions of feedback (r = .31).29) were positively and moderately corraleted with affective reactions.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

4.1. Overview

The main aim of the present study is to reveal the effects of feedback sign, task centrality, and self-esteem on reactions to feedback, namely acceptance of feedback and affective reaction. Firstly, the major findings of the study will be discussed. Then, limitations of the study and future suggestions will be mentioned. After that, contributions of the study will be explained, and the chapter will end with conclusions.

4.2. Major Findings

First hypothesis stated that individuals will show more positive affective reactions and higher acceptance to positive feedback than negative feedback, and the results were as expected. This is consistent with the previous studies suggesting positive feedback will induce positive emotions, while negative feedback will induce negative ones, with a few exceptions, individuals like positive feedback, and therefore accept the positive feedback more than the negative (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Brown, 2007; Belscchak & Den Hartog, 2009). The findings confirmed the first hypothesis.

The second hypothesis suggested an interaction between feedback sign and self-esteem on predicting feedback acceptance, and the results supported the hypothesis stating that high self-esteem individuals will accept positive feedback more than low self-esteem individuals, while low self-esteem individuals will accept negative feedback more than high self-esteem ones. Since the literature proposed that self-enhancement motive dominates affective reactions, and self-consistency dominated accuracy reactions (Jussim et al., 1995), the interaction was hypothesized for only acceptance scores, and the results confirmed the hypothesis. Supplementery analyses (although not hypothesized in the present study) revealed no difference

between high and low self-esteem groups in affective reactions. The low and high self-esteem groups both showed similar reactions to positive and negative feedback, because individuals acted on the principle of self-enhancement theory which asserted that they want to see themselves as positively as possible (Shrauger, 1975). However, they gave different reactions in terms of acceptance of the given feedback. This is a support for Korman's (1970) consistency theory of self-esteem. Self-consistency theory suggests that individuals tend to internalize ideas that are consistent with their past experiences and their self-views, and they reject inconsistent ideas in order to maintain their existing self-conceptions (Swann, 1987). The theory asserts that individuals with positive self-views will be less accepting of negative feedback than individuals with negative self-views (Brown, 2007). The results of the study also confirmed that individuals use self-enhancement in their affective reactions, and self-verification in acceptance. This interaction effect has shown that for acceptance levels, it is necessary to evaluate self-esteem along with the feedback sign to understand the underlying mechanisms determining acceptance.

The third hypothesis suggested an interaction between feedback sign and task centrality on predicting feedback acceptance, but the results were inconsistent with the hypothesis suggesting that positive feedback will be more accepted for central tasks, while negative feedback will be more accepted for peripheral tasks. The present study demonstareted only main effect for task centrality. Task centrality was a new concept that is introduced to the literature in the present study. Central tasks are operationalized as more relevant and more frequently performed tasks, while peripheral tasks are operationalized as less relevant and less frequently performed tasks. Since the study found a main effect of task centrality, it can be discussed that such a distinction between tasks might really exist. However, the findings were not in the predicted direction. For positive feedback condition individuals showed stronger affective reactions and acceptance for central tasks than peripheral tasks, because they attach more importance to these tasks since central tasks are more critical both for the job and the self. However, the study assumed that individuals show stronger negative affective reactions and less acceptance to negative feedback for central tasks which was not supported by the findings. It might be due to the fact that individuals

tend to accept the negative feedback more in order to improve themselves for central tasks. Negative feedback about peripheral tasks may cause anger, and frustration. Performing these tasks probably do not improve them, and they may even think that it is not their job to perform those tasks. Since they see the tasks less important they probably do not take the feedback for peripheral tasks very seriously. In fact, they might even had a hard time understanding why they received feedback about the tasks they perform less frequently, and perceive as less relevant. On the other hand, conducting this study with a more structured job than research assistant where the tasks do not show this much variability, results could be different.

Last hypothesis was for three way interaction between study variables, namely feedback sign, task centrality, and self-esteem, and it stated that high selfesteem individuals will accept the positive feedback most when it is about a central task. Results showed significant differences between the groups such that high selfesteem individuals accepted the positive feedback most for central tasks as congruent with expectations. When the interaction effect is examined, it can be seen that there is no interaction for peripheral tasks, but for central tasks there is a significant interaction. For peripheral tasks results are straightforward: high self-esteem individuals show more acceptance for both the positive and negative feedback. However, for central tasks there is difference between high self-esteem and low selfesteem groups in terms of accepting positive and negative feedback. For central tasks, low self-esteem individuals's acceptance of the feedback does not depend so much on the feedback sign. They mildly accept the positive feedback more than the negative one. However, for high self-esteem individuals there is a huge gap between acceptance of positive and negative feedback for central tasks. They highly accept the positive feedback, and reject the negative one. As Shrauger and Lund (1975) suggested high self-esteem individuals were more defensive than low self-esteem individuals when confronted with negative feedback. This indicates that organizations should find efficient ways to deliver negative feedback to high selfesteem individuals. Rejection of negative feedback by these individuals can lower their job satisfaction and organizational commitment, so the organization can suffer from rejection of feedback.

4.3. Limitations and Future Suggestions

Firstly the characteristics of the participants can be a problem for the present study. Although conducting the study with a specific occupation is a strength of the study, research assistants that took part in the study were from three different faculties, namely social sciences, natural and applied sciences, and health sciences and from different private and public universities in Turkey. Tasks that are performed in these different universities as well as different faculties might have different characteristics. Although, a Pre Study was conducted to choose the common tasks performed by all the research assistants, it might be better to choose one specific faculty and conduct the study with more specific tasks.

Gender of the participants might be a problem in this study as well. 73% of the participants were female which means that males were underrepresented in the sample. Therefore, the findings can be biased. A study by Robertsa and Nolen-Hoeksema (1989) revealed that women are affected by both the positive and negative feedback while men are more selective and usually react to positive feedback. Thus, future studies should include same number of men and women if possible.

Future studies should also check the effects of the gender of the feedback provider in reactions to feedback. The present study counterbalanced the gender of the feedback provider in vignettes, and found no difference for different gender combinations. However, this might be due to the fact that participants probably did not pay attention to the gender of the feedback provider while reading the vignettes. They probably did pay more attention to the sign of the feedback and the task in the vignette. Anseel, Yperen, Janssen, and Duyck (2011) showed that men react more negatively to feedback that is given by woman. Therefore, future research should attempt to see the effect of gender.

One of the study variables was self-esteem and it was assessed as domain specific to the job. The reason for using domain specific self-esteem scale was that since research assistants are highly educated individuals, they probably have high general self-esteem, but their domain specific self-esteem might show more variety. However, participants' domain specific self-esteem were also high, ranging from 15

to 40, probably above the general population. It might be also helpful to assess the self-esteem with implicit measures in future studies.

Self-esteem was chosen as the individual difference variable, because it is the critical variable in the self theories, namely self-enhancment and self-concictency which serve as the basis of the hypotheses. There are also studies that examine the effects of self-efficacy on reactions to feedback (e.g. Podsakoff & Farh, 1989; Locke & Latham, 2002; Şahan 2013), but a study by Gardner and Pierce (1998) has shown that organization based self-esteem, which the current study called domain specific self-esteem is a better predictor of organizational outcomes than self-efficacy. Thus, future research can use self-efficacy to see whether the effect will be similar to self-esteem.

Furthermore, this study used a vignette technique which is a controversial issue in social sciences (Barter & Renold, 1999). Barter & Renold (1999) suggested that it is mostly used for qualitative research. Neff (1979) underlines that stories must appear acceptable and realistic to participants. Although the participants on average found the vignettes realistic (M = 3.47, SD = .70) and could identify themselves with the character in the story (M = 3.66, SD = .77), there might be some participants for whom the vignettes made no sense.

The present study used vignette technique because use of vignette technique for feedback studies is more practical than giving actual feedback to the participants. Dijk and Kluger (2011) also used scenarios to evaluate individuals's reaction to feedback, but it may not be the best way to assess reactions to performance feedback. In real conditions, individuals' reactions would be different. Reading vignettes requires no human interaction like an actual performance feedback situation which might affect the feedback process. The participants only read the feedback in the present study. When the feedback is given face to face, negative feedback would probably cause more frustration, and disappointment. Thus, actual negative feedback would probably receive more negative reactions than the imaginery situation. Future studies that conderns reactions to feedback should find a way to assess the performance on an actual task.

The last problem with the study is its ecological validity. Although many universities have performance criteria for research assistants, most of them do not

have a formal performance appraisal system. The present study asked 51 of the perticipants whether they receive feedback, and 21 of them stated that they receive no feedback which is a problem for the study. Research assistants mostly receive informal feedback from their chairperson, and it is generally positive feedback. They actually might not have much idea about their weaknesses and strengths for the tasks they are performing if they are not receiving any feedback.

The problem in giving and receiving negative feedback is also a cultural issue. In Turkey, as Aycan (2001) reports individuals tend to get emotional when they receive negative feedback. On the other hand, affective reactions and acceptance ratings were not extremely low for negative feedback in this study which can be attributed to modesty culture. Modesty is a desirable characteristic in collectivist Asian cultures (Cai et al., 2011). Due to modesty norm, self-enhancement motive is less powerful in these cultures (Kurman, 2003). Although Uskul et al. (2013) categorizes Turkish culture neither modesty-based like China nor positivity-based like the United States, it falls somewhere between these countried which they called honor-based culture. Therefore, maybe this study was able to find self-consistency effects due to the effect of culture. Future studies should conduct the study in modesty and positivity based cultures to see if the characteristics of the culture affect how individuals react to the feedback.

Another reason for above midpoint acceptance of negative feedback might be that negative feedback in the vignettes are perceived constructive rather than destructive by the participants. London (2003) suggested that both positive and negative feedback can be constructive and destructive. Constructive feedback is the one that provides useful information and does not hurt the receiver. If the negative feedback messages in the vignettes were constructed as more destructive, it would be possible to observe more negative reactions. As suggested by Krings, Jacobshagen, Elfering, and Semmer (2015) subtly offending feedback can be used to make negative feedback more acceptable. Future studies may attempt to search for the ways to make negative feedback more acceptable.

4.4. Contributions and Implications of the Study

Firstly, the present study contributed to the literature by introducing task centrality concept. Categorizing tasks as central and peripheral to the actual job might be helpful especially in designing performance criteria. Some tasks which the present study referred as peripheral tasks should be given less weight, and other important tasks, which the study referred as central tasks should be given more weight in performance appraisal systems in organizations.

Secondly, the study showed the level of acceptance of the feedback depends on feedback sign, self-esteem level, and task centrality. The interaction of the variables on affecting feedback acceptance has implications for human resource practices. The study has shown that high self-esteem individuals especially reject the negative feedback when it is about a central task. As Gregory and Levy (2015) suggested negative feedback is the most beneficial form of feedback, but individuals are likely to reject it, and it is a problem for organizations. Individuals need to accept negative feedback in order to improve themselves. Therfore, as part of performance appraisal systems, human resource departments should find ways to give negative feedback in more acceptable ways. As a suggestion, especially for high self-esteem individuals, an appropriate way to give negative feedback might be combining positive and negative feedbacks. Before giving negative feedback, mentioning the positive aspects of the performance can increase the acceptance of high self-esteem individuals.

Lastly, the present study was conducted in educational setting, and it has implication for education sector. The study has shown that research assistants in Turkey on average find the feedback useful, but unfortunately almost half of the respondents stated that they receive no feedback at work. The ones that receive feedback said they mostly receive positive feedback. Universities should find efficient ways to give performance feedback, and should acknowledge the importance of giving negative feedback. The present study can guide universities about how to set performance critieria for research assistants in Turkey.

4.5. Conclusions

The study findings suggested that understanding acceptance of feedback is a complex process. Although in this study affective reactions only changed as a function of feedback sign, acceptance changed with feedback sign, self-esteem and task centrality.

Individuals showed more positive reactions to positive feedback, and more negative reactions to negative feedback. The sign of the feedback affected the acceptance in the same way. Concerning self-esteem, high self-esteem individuals accepted positive feedback more than low self-esteem individuals, and low self-esteem individuals accepted negative feedback more than high self-esteem individuals. Lastly, individuals with high self-esteem showed higher acceptance ratings for positive feedback for central tasks than peripheral tasks, and more rejection of negative feedback for these tasks which shows that they seem to care more about frequently performed and more relevant tasks.

REFERENCES

- Adams, D. M. (1999). An examination of feedback recipients' reactions to multisource feedback (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.
- Albright, M. D., & Levy, P. E. (1995). The Effects of Source Credibility and Performance Rating Discrepancy on Reactions to Multiple Raters1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 25(7), 577-600.
- Alicke, M. D., Klotz, M. L., Breitenbecher, D. L., Yurak, T. J., & Vredenburg, D. S. (1995). Personal contact, individuation, and the better-than-average effect. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 68(5), 804-825.
- Alliger GM, Tannenbaum SI, Bennett W, Traver H, Shotland A. (1997). A metaanalysis of the relations among training criteria. *Personnel Psychology*, 50, 341–58.
- Alvero, A. M., Bucklin, B. R., & Austin, J. (2001). An objective review of the effectiveness and essential characteristics of performance feedback in organizational settings (1985-1998). *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 21(1), 3-29.
- Ammons, R. B. (1956). Effects of knowledge of performance: A survey and tentative theoretical formulation. *The Journal of general psychology*, *54*(2), 279-299.
- Anderson, R. C., Kulhavy, R. W., & Andre, T. (1971). Feedback procedures in programmed instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 62(2), 148-156.
- Anderson, L. J., & Jones, R. G. (2000). Affective, behavioral, and cognitive acceptance of feedback: Individual difference moderators. *Emotions in the workplace: Research, theory, and practice*, 130-140.
- Annett, J. (1969). *Feedback and human behaviour*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England: Penguin Books.
- Anseel, F., Van Yperen, N. W., Janssen, O., & Duyck, W. (2011). Feedback type as a moderator of the relationship between achievement goals and feedback reactions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*,84(4), 703-722.
- Atwater, L. E., Waldman, D. A., Atwater, D., & Cartier, P. (2000). An upward feedback field experiment: Supervisors' cynicism, reactions, and commitment to subordinates. *Personnel Psychology*, *53*(2), 275-297.
- Aycan, Z. (2001). Human resource management in Turkey-Current issues and future challenges. *International Journal of Manpower*, 22(3), 252-260.

- Bailey, C., & Fletcher, C. (2002). The impact of multiple source feedback on management development: Findings from a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(7), 853-867.
- Balcazar, F., Hopkins, B. L., & Suarez, Y. (1985). A critical, objective review of performance feedback. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 7(3-4), 65-89.
- Bandura, A., & Jourden, F. J. (1991). Self-regulatory mechanisms governing the impact of social comparison on complex decision making. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(6), 941-951.
- Baron, R. M., & Ganz, R. L. (1972). Effects of locus of control and type of feedback on the task performance of lower-class black children. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 21(1), 124-130.
- Baron, R. M., Cowan, G., Ganz, R. L., & McDonald, M. (1974). Interaction of locus of control and type of performance feedback: Considerations of external validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30(2), 285-292.
- Barter, C., & Renold, E. (1999). The use of vignettes in qualitative research. *Social research update*, 25(9), 1-6.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1989). The optimal margin of illusion. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 8(2), 176-189.
- Baumeister, R. F., Tice, D. M., & Hutton, D. G. (1989). Self-presentational motivations and personality differences in self-esteem. *Journal of personality*, 57(3), 547-579.
- Bell, S. T., & Arthur, W. (2008). Feedback acceptance in developmental assessment centers: The role of feedback message, participant personality, and affective response to the feedback session. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29(5), 681-703.
- Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2009). Consequences of Positive and Negative Feedback: The Impact on Emotions and Extra-Role Behaviors. *Applied Psychology*, 58(2), 274-303.
- Blaine, B., & Crocker, J. (1993). Self-esteem and self-serving biases in reactions to positive and negative events: An integrative review. In *Self-esteem* (pp. 55-85). New York: Plenum Press.
- Bono, J. E., & Colbert, A. E. (2005). Understanding responses to multi-source feedback: the role of core self-evaluations. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 171-203.
- Brett, J. F., & Atwater, L. E. (2001). 360° feedback: Accuracy, reactions, and perceptions of usefulness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 930-942.

- Brockner, J. (1988). *Self-esteem at work: Research, theory, and practice.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books
- Brown, J. D. (2007). The self. New York, NY: Psychology Press
- Brown, J. D., & McGill, K. L. (1989). The cost of good fortune: when positive life events produce negative health consequences. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *57*(6), 1103-1110.
- Cai, H., Sedikides, C., Gaertner, L., Wang, C., Carvallo, M., Xu, Y., ... & Jackson, L. E. (2010). Tactical self-enhancement in China: Is modesty at the service of self-enhancement in East Asian culture?. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 2(1), 59-64.
- Chapanis, A. (1964). Knowledge of performance as an incentive in repetitive, monotonous tasks. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 48(4), 263-267.
- Cleveland, J. N., Murphy, K. R., & Williams, R. E. (1989). Multiple uses of performance appraisal: Prevalence and correlates. *Journal of applied psychology*, 74(1), 130-135.
- Conley, T. D., Ghavami, N., VonOhlen, J., & Foulkes, P. (2007). General and Domain-Specific Self-Esteem Among Regular Education and Special Education Students. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *37*(4), 775-789.
- Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Citera, M. (1993). A goal hierarchy model of personality, motivation, and leadership. *Research in organizational behavior*, *15*, 267-267.
- Çuhadaroglu, F. (1986). *Self-esteem in adolescents*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Hacettepe University, Turkey.
- DeNisi, A. S., & Kluger, A. N. (2000). Feedback effectiveness: can 360-degree appraisals be improved?. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 14(1), 129-139.
- Dunning, D. (1995). Trait importance and modifiability as factors influencing self-assessment and self-enhancement motives. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21(12), 1297-1306.
- Dutton, K. A., & Brown, J. D. (1997). Global self-esteem and specific self-views as determinants of people's reactions to success and failure. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 73(1), 139-148.
- Epstein, S. (1973). The self-concept revisited: Or a theory of a theory. *American psychologist*, 28(5), 404-416.
- Erdemli, Ç., Sümer, H. C., & Bilgiç, R. (2007). Performans Yönetiminde Yazılı Geribildirim ve Yazılı artı Sözlü Geribildirim Yöntemlerinin Karşılaştırması. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, 22 (60), 71-85.

- Farh, J. L., & Dobbins, G. H. (1989). Effects of comparative performance information on the accuracy of self-ratings and agreement between self-and supervisor ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(4), 606-610.
- Feather, N. T. (1968). Change in confidence following success or failure as a predictor of subsequent performance. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *9*(1), 38-46.
- Fedor, D. B., Eder, R. W., & Buckley, M. R. (1989). The contributory effects of supervisor intentions on subordinate feedback responses. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 44(3), 396-414.
- Gardner, D. G., & Pierce, J. L. (1998). Self-esteem and self-efficacy within the organizational context an empirical examination. *Group & Organization Management*, 23(1), 48-70.
- Giffin, K. (1967). The contribution of studies of source credibilityto a theory of interpersonal trust in the communication process. *Psychological Bulletin*, 68, 104-120.
- Gray, P. (2011). Psychology, 6th Edition. New York: Worth Publishers.
- Gregory, J. B., & Levy, P. E. (2015). *Using feedback in organizational consulting*. American Psychological Association.
- Gümüş, A., Akıncı, Ü ve Akçasoy, İ. (2014). Araştırma Görevliliği: Akademisyenlik Değil Angarya Sekreterlik, Bilim Fidanlığı Değil "Amirin İçini İstediği Gibi Doldurduğu Bir Boşluk", Eğitim Sen YÖB-Yüksek Öğretim Bürosu, Araştırma Görevlileri Raporu, Ankara: Eğitim Sen.
- Halperin, K., Snyder, C. R., Shenkel, R. J., & Houston, B. K. (1976). Effects of source status and message favorability on acceptance of personality feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 61(1), 85-88.
- Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological review*, *94*(3), 319-340.
- Hundal, P. S. (1969). Knowledge of performance as an incentive in repetitive industrial work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *53*, 224-226.
- Ilies, R., De Pater, I. E., & Judge, T. (2007). Differential affective reactions to negative and positive feedback, and the role of self-esteem. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(6), 590-609.
- Ilgen, D. R., & Hamstra, B. W. (1972). Performance satisfaction as a function of the difference between expected and reported performance at five levels of reported performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 7(3), 359-370.

- Ilgen, D. R., Fisher, C. D., & Taylor, M. S. (1979). Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of applied psychology*, 64(4), 349-371.
- Ilgen, D. R., & Davis, C. A. (2000). Bearing bad news: Reactions to negative performance feedback. *Applied Psychology: An international review*, 49, 511-526.
- Ivancevich, J. M., Donnelly, J. H., & Lyon, H. L. (1970). A study of the impact of management by objectives on perceived need satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 23(2), 139-151.
- Jacobs, M., Jacobs, A., Feldman, G., & Cavior, N. (1973). Feedback: II. The "credibility gap": Delivery of positive and negative and emotional and behavioral feedback in groups. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 41(2), 215-223.
- Jussim, L., Yen, H., & Aiello, J. R. (1995). Self-consistency, self-enhancement, and accuracy in reactions to feedback. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, *31*(4), 322-356.
- Kanfer, R. (1996). Self-regulatory and other non-ability determinants of skill acquisition. In P. Gollwitzer & J. Bargh (Eds.), *The psychology of action* (pp. 404–423). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kennedy, W. A., & Willcutt, H. C. (1964). Praise and blame as incentives. *Psychological Bulletin*, 62(5), 323-332.
- Kinicki, A. J., Prussia, G. E., Wu, B. J., & McKee-Ryan, F. M. (2004). A covariance structure analysis of employees' response to performance feedback. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(6), 1057-1069.
- Kluger, A. N., & DeNisi, A. (1996). The effects of feedback interventions on performance: a historical review, a meta-analysis, and a preliminary feedback intervention theory. *Psychological bulletin*, *119*(2), 254-284.
- Korman, A. K. (1970). Toward an hypothesis of work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *54*(1), 31-44.
- Korsgaard, M. A. (1996). The impact of self-appraisals on reactions to feedback from others: the role of self-enhancement and self-consistency concerns. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17(4), 301-311.
- Krings, R., Jacobshagen, N., Elfering, A., & Semmer, N. K. (2015). Subtly offending feedback. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 45(4), 191-202.
- Kruger, J., & Dunning, D. (1999). Unskilled and unaware of it: how difficulties in recognizing one's own incompetence lead to inflated self-assessments. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 77(6), 1121-1134.

- Kurman, J. (2003). Why is self-enhancement low in certain collectivist cultures? An investigation of two competing explanations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *34*(5), 496-510.
- Lam, S. S., Yik, M. S., & Schaubroeck, J. (2002). Responses to formal performance appraisal feedback: the role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 192-201.
- Landy, F. J., & Fair, J. L. (1983). *The measurement of work performance: Methods, theory and applications.* New York: Academic Press.
- Lecky, P. (1945). Self-consistency; a theory of personality. New York: Island Press.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). Work motivation and satisfaction: Light at the end of the tunnel. *Psychological Science*, *1* (4), 240-246.
- London, M. (2003). *Job feedback: Giving, seeking, and using feedback for performance improvement.* Psychology Press.
- London, M., & Smither, J. W. (1995). Can multi-source feedback change perceptions of goal accomplishment, self-evaluations, and performance-related outcomes? Theory-based applications and directions for research. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 803-839.
- Marsh, H. W., & Shavelson, R. (1985). Self-concept: Its multifaceted, hierarchical structure. *Educational psychologist*, 20(3), 107-123.
- Maurer, T. J., & Palmer, J. K. (1999). Management development intentions following feedback-Role of perceived outcomes, social pressures, and control. *Journal of Management Development*, 18(9), 733-751.
- Meyer, H. H., & Walker, W. B. (1961). A study of factors relating to the effectiveness of a performance appraisal program. *Personnel Psychology*, *14*(3), 291-298.
- Meyer , B . J . F . (1975). *The organization of prose and its effects on memory*. Amsterdam: North-Holland Publishing.
- Murphy, K.R. & Cleveland, J.N. (1995). *Understanding performance appraisal systems: Aligning appraisals and organizational realities*. San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass.
- Nease, A. A., Mudgett, B. O., & Quiñones, M. A. (1999). Relationships among feedback sign, self-efficacy, and acceptance of performance feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5), 806-814.
- Neff, J. A. (1979). Interactional versus hypothetical others: The use of vignettes in attitude research. *Sociology and social research*, 64(1), 105-125.
- Pearce, J. L., & Porter, L. W. (1986). Employee responses to formal performance appraisal feedback. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(2), 211-218.

- Phoel, C. M. (2006) Leading Words: How to Use Stories to Change Minds and Ignite Action. *Harvard Management Communication Letter*, *3*(2), 3–5.
- Pierce, J. L., & Gardner, D. G. (2004). Self-esteem within the work and organizational context: A review of the organization-based self-esteem literature. *Journal of management*, *30*(5), 591-622.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & Farh, J. L. (1989). Effects of feedback sign and credibility on goal setting and task performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 44(1), 45-67.
- Roberts, T. A., & Nolen-Hoeksema, S. (1989). Sex differences in reactions to evaluative feedback. *Sex Roles*, 21(11-12), 725-747.
- Rosenberg, M. (1979). Conceiving the self. New York: Basic Books
- Sassenrath, J. M. (1975). Theory and results on feedback and retention, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 67(6), 894-899.
- Schmitt, D. P., & Allik, J. (2005). Simultaneous administration of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale in 53 nations: exploring the universal and culture-specific features of global self-esteem. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 89(4), 623-642.
- Shannon, C. E., & Weaver, W. (1949). 77ie mathematical theory of communication. *Urbana: University of Illinois Press*.
- Shepperd, J., Malone, W., & Sweeny, K. (2008). Exploring Causes of the Self-serving Bias. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2(2), 895-908.
- Shrauger, J. S., & Rosenberg, S. E. (1970). Self-esteem and the effects of success and failure feedback on performance1. *Journal of Personality*, 38(3), 404-417.
- Shrauger, J. S. (1975). Responses to evaluation as a function of initial self-perceptions. *Psychological Bulletin*, 82(4), 581-596.
- Shrauger, J. S., & Lund, A. K. (1975). Self-evaluation and reactions to evaluations from others. *Journal of Personality*, *43*(1), 94-108.
- Silverman, S. B., Pogson, C. E., & Cober, A. B. (2005). When employees at work don't get it: A model for enhancing individual employee change in response to performance feedback. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 19(2), 135-147.
- Smith, R. E., & Sarason, I. G. (1975). Social anxiety and the evaluation of negative interpersonal feedback. *Journal of consulting and Clinical Psychology*, *43*(3), 429.

- Smither, J. W., London, M., & Reilly, R. R. (2005). Does performance improve following multisource feedback? A theoretical model, meta-analysis, and review of empirical findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 33-66.
- Smither, J. W., London, M., & Richmond, K. R. (2005). The Relationship Between Leaders' Personality and Their Reactions to and Use of Multisource Feedback A Longitudinal Study. *Group & Organization Management*, 30(2), 181-210.
- Solmazer, G. (2013). Reactions to performance feedback and source: the moderating effect of individualism/collectivism and power distance(Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Stake, J. E. (1982). Reactions to positive and negative feedback: Enhancement and consistency effects. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 10(2), 151-156.
- Steelman, L. A., & Rutkowski, K. A. (2004). Moderators of employee reactions to negative feedback. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *19*(1), 6-18.
- . Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1974). The role of task-goal attributes in employee performance. *Psychological bulletin*, 81(7), 434-452.
- Swann, W. B. (1987). Identity negotiation: where two roads meet. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *53*(6), 1038-1051.
- Swann, W. B., Griffin, J. J., Predmore, S. C., & Gaines, B. (1987). The cognitive—affective crossfire: When self-consistency confronts self-enhancement. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *52*(5), 881-889.
- Swann, W. B., Stein-Seroussi, A., & Giesler, R. B. (1992). Why people self-verify. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 62(3), 392-401.
- Şahan, T. (2013). The Effects of Feeback Sign, Achievement Goal Orientation and Regulatory Focus on Task Performance (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson.
- Taylor, M. S., Fisher, C. D., & Ilgen, D. R. (1984). Individual's reactions to performance feedback in organizations: A control theory perspective.
- Thorndike, E. L. (1911). *Animal intelligence*. New York: Macmillan.
- Toegel, G., & Conger, J. A. (2003). 360-degree assessment: Time for reinvention. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2(3), 297-311
- Uskul, A. K., Oyserman, D., Schwarz, N., Lee, S. W., & Xu, A. J. (2013). How successful you have been in life depends on the response scale used: The role

- of cultural mindsets in pragmatic inferences drawn from question format. *Social Cognition*, *31*(2), 222-236.
- Van De Ridder, J. M., Berk, F. C., Stokking, K. M., & Ten Cate, O. T. J. (2014). Feedback providers' credibility impacts students' satisfaction with feedback and delayed performance. *Medical teacher*, 78 (8), 767-774.
- Van Dijk, D., & Kluger, A. N. (2011). Task type as a moderator of positive/negative feedback effects on motivation and performance: A regulatory focus perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(8), 1084-1105.
- Vancouver, J. B., & Tischner, E. C. (2004). The effect of feedback sign on task performance depends on self-concept discrepancies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), 1092-1098.
- Vazire, S., & Carlson, E. N. (2011). Others sometimes know us better than we know ourselves. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(2), 104-108.
- Waldman, D. A., & Bowen, D. E. (1998). The acceptability of 360 degree appraisals: A customer-supplier relationship perspective. *Human Resource Management*, *37*(2), 117-129.
- Walker, A. G., & Smither, J. W. (1999). A five-year study of upward feedback: what managers do with their results matters. *Personnel Psychology*, 52(2), 393-423.
- White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: the concept of competence. *Psychological review*, 66(5), 297-333.
- Wimer, S. (2002). The dark side of 360-degree feedback, T+D, 56, 37-42.
- Yüce Selvi, Ü. (2014). The effects of performance feedback and both conscious and unconscious goal setting on performance: A priming study. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Zajonc, R. B. (1980). Feeling and thinking: Preferences need no inferences. *American psychologist*, *35*(2), 151-175.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR PRE STUDY

GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim

üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç danışmanlığında Endüstri/ Örgüt Psikolojisi

yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Elis Güngör tarafından yürütülen bir yüksek

lisans tezi çalışmasıdır.

Çalışmanın amacı; araştırma görevlisi olarak yerine getirdiğiniz görevlerin

esas işle **ilgililiğini** ve yapılma **sıklığını** ölçmektir. Çalışma toplam 10 dakikanızı

alacaktır. Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Elde

edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçlar için kullanılacaktır. Kimliğiniz

kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir.

Çalışmaya katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız

hissederseniz çalışmaya katılımınızı yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında

daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr.

Reyhan Bilgiç (E-posta: rey@metu.edu.tr) ya da yüksek lisans öğrencisi Elis

Güngör (E-posta: elisgungor@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda

kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda

kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

İsim:

Soy isim:

İmza:

71

APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM FOR PRE STUDY

Cinsiyet: Kadın □Erkek □		
Alanınız: Sosyal Bilimler □	Fen Bilimleri 🗆	Sağlık Bilimleri
Kac vildir calisiyorsunuz?		

APPENDIX C: PRE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Aşağıda araştırma görevlisi olarak işinizin kapsayabileceği bazı görevler sunulmaktadır. Sizden her bir görev için 2 ayrı değerlendirme yapmanız istenmektedir. Bu değerlendirmeler İlgililik ve Sıklık değerlendirmeleridir.

İlgililik tanımı: İşiniz gereği pek çok görevi yerine getirirsiniz; ancak bütün görevler esas işinizle aynı derecede ilgili değildir. Örneğin; bir sekreter için toplantı organizasyonu yapmak çok ilgili bir görevken, toplantıda çay dağıtmak daha ilgisiz bir görevdir.

Sıklık tanımı: İşiniz gereği tamamladığınız görevleri ne sıklıkta yaptığınızdır.

A. Aşağıdaki görevlerin <u>ilgililik derecesini</u> 1 ile 5 arasında değerlendiriniz.

- 1 =İlgili değil
- 2 = Biraz ilgili
- 3 = İlgili
- 4 = Oldukça ilgili
- 5 = Çok ilgili

B. Aşağıdaki görevlerin <u>yapılma sıklığını</u> 1 ile 5 arasında değerlendiriniz.

- 1 = Hic
- 2 = Nadiren
- 3 = Bazen
- 4 = Sıklıkla
- 5 = Her zaman

Yapılan görevler	Ya		Göre İlgili	evin A iliği	sıl	Görevin Yapılma Sıklığı				a
1. Ara sınav/final sınavı/bütünleme vb. sınavlarda gözetmenlik yapmak.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sınav ödev vb. materyallerin çıktısını almak/fotokopi çekmek	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Derslerle ilgili sorusu olan öğrencilerin sorularına cevap vermek.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sınav/ödev/quiz okumak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bölüm tanıtımına katkıda bulunmak (Sunum hazırlamak, sunmak)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bilimsel araştırmalara katkıda bulunmak ve yayın yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. İdari işler yapmak (Dilekçe yazmak vb. gibi)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Hocayla birlikte derse girerek dersin işleyişini kolaylaştırmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Haftalık ders programını hazırlamak/ sınav dönemi sınav tarihleri için çizelge oluşturmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Laboratuvar derslerine girmek	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. Öğrencilere duyuru ya da bilgilendirme için mail atmak/aramak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. Akreditasyon süreçlerinde (Bologna, FEDEK, MÜDEK vb.) dosya hazırlamak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Öğrencilerin mezuniyet töreninde görev almak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bölüm toplantılarında not tutmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Dönem sonu/dönem arası not girişi yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bölüm web sayfasını düzenlemek/güncel tutmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

17. Mezunlarla iletişime geçerek (mail, telefon yoluyla) mevcut durumlarıyla ilgili verileri toparlamak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. Ders yoklamalarını takip etmek/yoklamaları sisteme girmek	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19. Verilecek olan bir dersin içeriğini hazırlamak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. Verilecek ödevlerin içeriğini hazırlamak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
21. Bölüm tarafından düzenlenen konferans/seminer/panel vb. etkinliklerde getir-götür işlerinde ve teknik destekte yardımcı olmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22. Notları öğrencilere duyurmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
23. Ders sonunda arşivlenecek belgeleri arşivleyip arşive kaldırılmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24. Öğrencilere akademik danışmanlık yapmak (Ders seçimi, mezuniyet sonrası yaşam, yüksek lisans, vb. konularda)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25. Bölüm/üniversite/enstitü için broşür/katalog hazırlamak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
26. Bölümle ilgili çeşitli evrakları doldurmak (Hocaların CVlerini hazırlamak, ihtiyaç listesi hazırlamak, vb.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27. Yurtiçi ve yurtdışında yapılan seminer/çalıştay vb. etkinliklere kurumu/bölümü temsilen katılmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ders kayıtlarında öğretim elemanlarına yardımcı olmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
29. Bölümdeki teknik arızalarla ilgilenmek (Bölüm bilgisayarı arızaları, projeksiyon cihazı arızası, vb.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
30. Öğrenci kulüplerine (özellikle bölümle ilgili topluluklara) danışmanlık yapmak	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Yazılı bulunan görevler dışında işinizin bir parçası olarak yaptığınız en az üç tane görevi belirtip ilgililik ve sıklık değerlendirmelerini yukarıdaki şekilde yanlarına yazınız.

APPENDIX D: VIGNETTE EXAMPLES FOR POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE FEEDBACK GROUPS

FOR POSITIVE FEEDBACK GROUPS

Vignette 1

Yeni Dünya Üniversitesi İşletme Mühendisliği Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Semiha Ercüment bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Ali Katı'ya her yılsonunda sözlü performans geribildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşma Semiha Hanım'ın 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır.

"Sevgili Ali,

Üniversitemiz tarafından araştırma görevlilerinden bilimsel araştırmalara katkıda bulunması ve yayın yapması beklenmektedir. Senin de bu yıl yeterli sayıda ve kaliteli yayınlar yaptığın gözlemlenmiştir. Önümüzdeki sene de bu başarının artarak devam etmesini umuyorum."

Vignette 2

Ekol Üniversitesi Sosyal Hizmet Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Yalçın Ser bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Aslı Kocabaş'a her yıl sonunda sözlü olarak performans geri bildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşmaYalçın Bey'in 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır.

"Sevgili Aslı,

Görevinin bir parçası olarak derslerle ilgili soruları olan öğrencilerimizin sorularını cevaplaman beklenmektedir. Bu yıl bu görevi hakkıyla ve başarılı bir şekilde yaptığın gözlemlenmiştir. Önümüzdeki sene de görevindeki başarılarının artarak devam etmesini umuyorum."

Vignette 3

Aydınlık Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Cansu Tezgör bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Gamze Doğan'a her yılsonunda sözlü performans geribildirimi vermektedir.

Aşağıdaki konuşma Cansu Hanım'ın 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır.

"Sevgili Gamze,

Görevinin bir parçası olarak mezun öğrencilerimizle iletişime geçerek hakkındaki mevcut verileri toplaman beklenmektedir. Bu sene oldukça fazla mezuna ulaştığın ve veri toplamada çok büyük aşamalar kaydettiğin gözlemlenmiştir. Bu başarılarının artarak devam etmesini umuyorum."

Vignette 4

Nitelik Üniversitesi Matematik Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Arif Demir bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Mustafa Atalay'a her yılsonunda sözlü performans geribildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşma Mustafa Bey'in 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır. "Sevgili Mustafa,

Görevinin bir parçası olarak bölümdeki teknik arızalarla ilgilenmen beklenmektedir. Bu yıl bu görevi hakkıyla ve başarılı bir şekilde yaptığın gözlemlenmiştir.

Önümüzdeki sene de görevindeki başarılarının artarak devam etmesini umuyorum."

FOR NEGATIVE FEEDBACK GROUPS

Vignette 1

Yeni Dünya Üniversitesi İşletme Mühendisliği Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Semiha Ercüment bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Ali Katı'ya her yılsonunda sözlü performans geribildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşma Semiha Hanım'ın 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır.

"Sevgili Ali,

Üniversitemiz tarafından araştırma görevlilerinden bilimsel araştırmalara katkıda bulunması ve yayın yapması beklenmektedir; fakat 2014 yılında araştırma ve yayın yapma konusunda ne yazık ki etkin olamadığın gözlemlenmiştir. Önümüzdeki sene bu konuda daha etkin olmanı umuyorum."

Vignette 2

Ekol Üniversitesi Sosyal Hizmet Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Yalçın Ser bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Aslı Kocabaş'a her yıl sonunda sözlü olarak performans geri bildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşma Yalçın Bey'in 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır. "Sevgili Aslı,

Görevinin bir parçası olarak derslerle ilgili soruları olan öğrencilerimizin sorularını cevaplaman beklenmektedir. Bu yıl bu görevi etkin bir şekilde yerine getiremediğin gözlemlenmiştir. Önümüzdeki yıl bu görevde daha etkin olmanı umuyorum."

Vignette 3

Aydınlık Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Cansu Tezgör bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Gamze Doğan'a her yılsonunda sözlü performans geribildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşma Cansu Hanım'ın 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır.

"Sevgili Gamze,

Görevinin bir parçası olarak mezun öğrencilerimizle iletişime geçerek hakkındaki mevcut verileri toplaman beklenmektedir. Bu sene yeterince mezun öğrenciye ulaşamamış ve veriyi toplayamamış olduğun gözlemlenmektedir. Önümüzdeki yıl bu görevde daha etkin olmanı umuyorum."

Vignette 4

Nitelik Üniversitesi Matematik Bölümü'nde Bölüm Başkanı olarak görev yapan Prof. Dr. Arif Demir bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışan Mustafa Atalay'a her yılsonunda sözlü performans geribildirimi vermektedir. Aşağıdaki konuşma Mustafa Bey'in 2014 yılı için yaptığı performans geribildiriminden kısa bir alıntıdır. "Sevgili Mustafa,

Görevinin bir parçası olarak bölümdeki teknik arızalarla ilgilenmen beklenmektedir. Fakat bu yıl teknik arızalara etkin bir şekilde müdahale edemediğin gözlemlenmiştir. Önümüzdeki sene bu konuda daha etkin olmanı umuyorum."

APPENDIX E: REACTION TO FEEDBACK SCALE

Aşağıdaki bölümde, bölüm başkanının araştırma görevlisine verdiği geri performans geribildirimi ile ilgili bazı ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Hikayedeki araştırma görevlisi karakterinin yerine kendinizi koyarak bu ifadeleri okuyunuz. Lütfen her ifadeye ne oranda katıldığınızı aşağıdaki beşlik ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
		katılmıyorum		

HİKAYEDE VERİLEN PERFORMANS GERİ BİLDİRİMİNİ KENDİMİ DÜŞÜ-NEREK DEĞERLENDİRDİĞİMDE,

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Verilen performans geribild mansı doğru şekilde yansıttı		1	2	3	4	5
Verilen performans geribild edici olduğunu düşünüyorun		1	2	3	4	5
 Verilen performans geribild formansını yakaladığını düşi 	, .	1	2	3	4	5
4. Verilen performans geribild ci olduğunu düşünüyorum.	riminin motive edi-	1	2	3	4	5
5. Verilen performans geribildi manın zor olduğunu düşünü	=	1	2	3	4	5
6. Verilen performans geribild bep olacağını düşünüyorum.	-	1	2	3	4	5

7. Verilen performans geribildirimiyle aynı fikirde olmayacağımı düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Verilen performans geribildiriminin eleştirilmiş hissetmeye sebep olacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
 Verilen performans geribildiriminin hayal kırıklığına sebep olacağını düşünüyorum. 	1	2	3	4	5
10. Verilen performans geribildiriminin teşvik edici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Verilen performans geribildiriminin aşağılanmış hissetmeye sebep olacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Verilen performans geribildiriminin utandırıcı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F: DOMAIN SPECIFIC SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Aşağıdaki araştırma görevlilerinin kendileriyle ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerini anlatan bazı cümleler verilmiştir. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve o cümledeki anlatıma ne derece katıldığınızı belirtecek şekilde size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4
***			TD.
Hiç	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen
Katılmıyorum	J. J. J.	J	Katılıyorum

1.	Kendimi en az diğer araştırma görevlileri kadar değerli buluyorum.	1	2	3	4
2.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak bazı olumlu özelliklerimin olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4
3.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak kendimi başarısız bir kişi olarak görme eğilimindeyim.	1	2	3	4
4.	Ben de diğer araştırma görevlilerinin birçoğunun yapa- bileceği kadar bir şeyler yapabilirim.	1	2	3	4
5.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak kendimde gurur duyacak fazla bir şey bulamıyorum.	1	2	3	4
6.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içindeyim.	1	2	3	4
7.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak genelde kendimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4
8.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak kendime daha fazla saygı duyabilmeyi isterdim.	1	2	3	4
9.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak bazen kendimin bir işe yara- madığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4
10.	Bir araştırma görevlisi olarak bazen kendimin hiç de yeterli bir insan olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX G: INFORMED CONSENT FOR MAIN STUDY

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç danışmanlığında Endüstri/ Örgüt Psikolojisi yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Elis Güngör tarafından yürütülen bir yüksek lisans tezi çalışmasıdır. Çalışmanın amacı, araştırma görevlilerine verilen performans geribildiriminin etkilerini ortaya çıkarmaktır.

Bu çalışmada performans geribildirimi içeren dört farklı hikâye okumanız, daha sonra da bu hikâyelerle ilgili bir dizi soruya cevap vermeniz istenecektir. Son kısımda da benlik saygısıyla ilgili bir ölçek doldurmanız beklenmektedir.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacaktır. Kimliğiniz kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve çalışmada verdiğiniz bilgiler sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Çalışmada herhangi bir şekilde kişisel rahatsızlık verecek bir durum bulunmayacaktır. Ancak, katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmaya katılımınızı yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.

Çalışma sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç (Eposta: rey@metu.edu.tr) ya da Elis Güngör (E-posta: elisgungor@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

İsim:	
Soyisim:	
Tarih:	
İmza:	

APPENDIX H: DEBRIEFING FORM

Bu çalışma ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç danışmanlığında Endüstri/Örgüt Psikolojisi yüksek lisans öğrencisi Elis Güngör tarafından yürütülen bir yüksek lisans tezi çalışmasıdır.

Ön bilgilendirme formunda çalışmanın amacının "araştırma görevlilerine verilen performans geribildiriminin etkilerini ortaya çıkarmak" olduğu söylenmiştir. Bu tez çalışmasının söylenmeyen asıl amacı ise pozitif ve negatif geribildirime gösterilen duygusal ve bilişsel tepkilerin geribildirim verilen görevin ilgililiği ve benlik saygısıyla olan ilişkisini incelemektir. Bu çalışmada katılımcılara toplam dört görevle ilgili hikayeler sunulmuştur. Katılımcıların negatif geribildirime negatif, pozitif geribildirime ise pozitif duygusal reaksiyon göstereceği, pozitif geribildirimin negatif geribildiriminden daha çok kabul edileceği tahmin edilmektedir. Bunun yanında pozitif geribildirimin yüksek benlik saygısına sahip kişiler tarafından daha çok kabul edileceği, negatif geribildirimin ise düşük benlik saygısına sahip kişiler tarafından kabul edileceği öne sürülmüştür. Son olarak da pozitif geribildirimin daha ilgili görevler için, negatif geribildirimin ise daha ilgisiz görevler için kabul edileceği tahmin edilmektedir.

Elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel araştırma ve yazılarda kullanılacaktır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek ya da bu araştırma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Prof. Dr. Reyhan Bilgiç (E-posta: rey@metu.edu.tr) ve Elis Güngör (E-posta: elisgungor@gmail.com) ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Bu araştırmaya katıldığınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.

APPENDIX I: EXTENDED TURKISH SUMMARY

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

1. GİRİŞ

Bireyler okul, ev, iş ve hatta kişilerarası ilişkiler dahil olmak üzere farklı bağlamlarda hemen hemen her gün değerlendirme alırlar (Jussim, Yen, & Aiello, 1995). Bu değerlendirmelerden sonra da çoğu zaman gelişimleri için gerekli olan geribildirim verilir (London, 2003). Ilgen, Fisher ve Taylor (1979) geribildirimi alıcının geribildirim kaynağından geribildirim mesajını aldığı özel bir iletişim durumu olarak tanımlamıştır. Geribildirim alıcısı mesajı algıladıktan sonra ona tepki gösterir. Geribildirim tanımı düşünüldüğünde geribildirim doğasının, alıcı ve kaynağın özelliklerinin geribildirim sürecini etkilediği düşünülebilir. Phoel (2006) geribildirimin davranış şekillenmesinde, öğrenmenin hızlanmasında ve sonuç olarak daha iyi bir performansa öncülük etmekte önemli rol oynadığını belirtmiştir.

Geribildirimin gelişim için hayati önem taşıdığını göz önünde bulundurarak bu çalışma geribildirime yönelik tepkileri etkileyen faktörleri araştırmaktadır. Bu çalışmada geribildirime yönelik tepkiler üzerinde önemli bir rol oynayan geribildirim yönü, benlik saygısı ve görev merkeziliği gibi üç faktör ele alınmıştır. Bu çalışmanın odak noktası geribildirime gösterilen duygusal tepkilerden daha çok geribildirimin kabulüdür, çünkü önceki bulgular geribildirimin kabulünü anlamanın verilen duygusal tepkileri anlamaktan daha karmaşık olduğunu göstermiştir (Jussim et al., 1995). Çalışmanın temel katkısı örgütsel ortamlarda olumsuz geribildirimin kabul edilirliğini arttırmaktır. Çalışmanın özgünlüğü de görev merkeziliği kavramını ilk kez literatüre tanıtılmasından gelmektedir.

Geribildirimin önemi Thorndike (1911)'ın etki kuramına dayanmaktadır. Etki kuramına göre belli bir durumda tatmin edici sonuçlar doğuran bir tepkinin o durumda tekrar ortaya çıkmasının daha muhtemel hale geldiği ve rahatsız edici

sonuçlar doğuran tepkinin tekrar çıkmasının da daha az muhtemel hale geldiği öne sürülmüştür. Burada tatmin edici sonuçlar doğuran tepkiyi olumlu geribildirim, rahatsız edici tepkiyi doğuran tepkiyi de olumsuz geribildirim olarak düşünmek mümkündür; ancak Kluger ve DeNisi (1996) etki kuramını geribildirimin karmaşıklığını anlamak için yetersiz bulmuştur. Kluger ve DeNisi geribildirimin etki kuramı tarafından öne sürüldüğü gibi performansı her zaman geliştirmediğini, hatta bazı durumlarda performansa zararlı etkilerinin de olabileceğini öne sürmüşlerdir. Dolayısıyla Kluger ve DeNisi (1996) özellikle geribildirimin performansa olan etkisiyle ilgili tutarsız bulguları anlamaya çalışmışlardır ve bu nedenle yaptıkları meta analiz ile görevle ilgili olası moderatörleri ortaya çıkarmak istemişlerdir. Fakat görev özelliklerinin literatürde az anlaşıldığını öne sürmüşleridir. Bu nedenle bu çalışma görev özelliklerinden biri olarak görev merkeziliğini ele almıştır.

Geribildirim sürecini anlamak için Ilgen ve ark. (1979) çok boyutlu bir model önermiştir. Bu modele göre geribildirim alıcısı önce geribildirimi algılar, sonra kabul edip etmeyeceğini karar ver ve son olarak geribildirime tepki verir. Geribildirimin bileşenleri arasında geribildirim kaynağı, geribildirim mesajı ve geribildirim alıcısı bulunmaktadır. Çalışmalar geribildirim kaynağının güvenirliği ve çalışanların geribildirime tepki verme isteği arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulmuştur (Kinicki, Prussia, Wu, & McKee-Ryan, 2004; Van de Ridder ve ark.., 2014) ve daha güvenilir bir kaynaktan gelen geribildirimin daha çok kabul edildiği gözlemiştir (Brett & Atwater, 2001). Geribildirim mesajının özelliklerinden de üç tanesi geribildirim sürecinde etkilidir. Bunlar: zamanlama, yön ve sıklık. Eğer geribildirimle performans arasındaki zaman kısa ise geribildirim daha etkili çalışır (Ilgen ve ark., 1979). Geribildirim yönü için önceki çalışmalar olumlu geribildirimin olumsuz geribildirimden daha doğru algılandığını bulmuştur (Feather, 1968; Ilgen & Hamstra, 1972; Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970). Ayrıca daha sık verilen geribildirim daha doğru algılanmaktadır (Anderson, Kulhavy, & Andre, 1971; Ivancevich, Donelly, & Lyon, 1970). Kaynağın ve mesajın özelliklerinin yanında geribildirim alıcısıyla ilgili faktörler de mesajın nasıl algılandığını etkiler. Literatürde kontrol odağı (Baron & Ganz, 1972), benlik saygısı (Shrauger & Rosenberg, 1970), sosyal kaygı (Smith & Sarason, 1975) gibi bireysel farklılıkların geribildirim algısı üzerindeki etkileri incelenmiştir.

Geribildirime verilen tepkileri anlamak için öncelikle tepki türlerini birbirinden ayırmak gerekir. Shrauger (1975) tepkileri duygusal ve bilişsel olarak ikiye ayırmış ve Adams (1999) bunlara üçüncü bir kategori olan davranışsal tepkileri eklemiştir. Bu çalışmanın amacı geribildirime verilen duygusal ve doğruluk tepkilerini değerlendirmektir. Duygusal tepkileri anlamak doğruluk tepkilerini anlamaktan daha kolay gözükmektedir çünkü bireyler olumlu geribildirimi daha çok sevme eğilimi gösterirler (Brown, 2007); fakat kabul edilebilirlik açısından durum daha karmaşıktır.

Olumlu geribildirimin olumsuz geribildirimden daha çok kabul edildiğini öne süren çalışmaların yanında (örn., Brett & Atwater, 2001), olumsuz geribildirimin daha çok kabul edildiğini gösteren çalışmalar da vardır (örn., Kennedy & Willcutt, 1964). Bu durum Korman (1970)'ın öz uyum teorisiyle açıklanabilir. Korman (1970) diğer faktörler eşit olduğunda, bireylerin bilişsel denge ya da tutarlılık duygularını artıran davranış rollerine gireceklerini belirtmiştir.

Landy ve Farr (1983) geribildirimin kabul edilirliğini belirleyen en etkili faktörün geribildirmin yönü olduğuna inanmıştır. Olumlu geribildirim alıcının beklentileri karşıladığını gösterirken olumsuz geribildirim alıcının yetersiz olduğunu ve kendini geliştirmesi gerektiğini gösterir (Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005).Çalışmalar bireylerin olumsuz geribildirimi olumlu geribildirimden daha az doğru bulduğu ve daha az kabul ettiğini göstermiştir (Fedor, Eder, & Buckley, 1989; Ilgen ve ark.,1979). Bireylerin olumlu geribildirimi olumsuz geribildirimden daha çok tercih etmeleri olumsuz geribildirimin kabulü konsunda örgütsel bağlamda problem yaratabilir (Bell & Arthur, 2008). Çalışmalar genellikler olumlu geribildirimi olumsuz geribildirimden daha faydalı bulmakla birlikte, Podsakoff ve Farh (1989) olumsuz geribildirimin performansı olumlu geribildirimde daha çok arttırdığını buldu. Bireylerin olumsuz geribildirime olumlu tepkiler verebileceğini gösteren çalışmalar olmakla birlikte, pek çok çalışma bireylerin olumlu geribildirimi daha çok sevdiği ve dolayısıyla daha çok kabul ettiğini bulmuştur. Dolayısıyla bu çalışma geribildirim yönünün tepkilere etkisi için şu hipotezleri sunmuştur:

H1a: Bireyler olumlu geribildirime olumsuz geribildirimden daha olumlu duygusal tepki gösterir.

H1b: Olumlu geribildirim olumsuz geribildirimden daha çok kabul edilir.

Geribildirim yönü geribildirim sürecinde önemli olmakla birlikte bireysel farklılıklar ve geribildirim verilen görevin özellikleri gibi diğer faktörlerle birlikte çalışılmalıdır. Geribildirime verilen tepkileri anlamak için benlikle ilgili teorileri de iyi anlamak gerekir (Jussim ve ark., 1995). Geribildirim almak dikkati benliğe yöneltir, çünkü bireyler benlik çelişkilerini azaltmak ve benliklerini korumaya motivedirler (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Bireylerin kendi performansları hakkında inandıkları ve başkalarından duyduklarının farklı olması benlik çelişkilerine yol açabilir (Vancouver & Tischner, 2004). Jussim ve arkadaşları (1995) kişilerin geribildirime verdikleri tepkilerin temel olarak iki farklı güdüden etkilendiğini söyler: kendini geliştirme ve öz-tutarlılık. Kendini geliştirme teorisi kişilerin kendilerini mümkün olduğunca olumlu görmek istediğini söylerken (Epstein, 1973; Shrauger, 1975), öz-tutarlılık teorisi kişilerin geçmiş yaşantıları ve kendilerine bakış açılarıyla aynı doğrultudaki fikirleri kabul ettiğini söyler (Lecky, 1954; Swann, 1987). Jussim ve arkadaşları (1995) duygusal tepkilerin kendini geliştirme güdüsü tarafından yönetilirken geribildirimin kabulünün öz-tutarlılık güdüsüyle yönetildiğini önermiştir. Bu güdüler ayrıca farklı seviyedeki benlik saygısına sahip kişilerde farklı çalışıyor olabilir. Dolayısıyla bireyler arasındaki kişisel farklılıkları da anlamak gerekir. Shrauger ve Lund (1975) yüksek ve düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin geribildirime verdikleri tepkileri kendini geliştirme ve öz-tutarlılık teorilerini kullanarak incelemiştir ve öz-tutarlılık teorisiyle tutarlı olarak düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin olumlu geribildirimi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylerden daha az tercih ettiğini bulmuştur. Stake (1982) de yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin olumlu geribildirimi daha doğru bulurken düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin olumsuz geribildirimi gelecekteki hayal kırıklıklarını önlemek için daha kolay kabul ettiğini göstermiştir. Bu bilgilere dayanarak aşağıdaki hipotez sunulmuştur:

H2: Olumlu geribildirim yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler tarafından düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylere göre daha çok kabul edilirken, olumsuz geribildirim düşük benlik sahip saygısına sahip bireyler tarafından yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylere göre daha çok kabul edilir.

Bu çalışma kişilerin genel değil, alana özgü benlik saygılarını değerlendirmektedir. Pierce ve Gardner (2004) iş temelli benlik saygısının işle ilgili davranışları ve tutumları daha iyi belirlediğini öne sunmuştur. Bu çalışma da örgütsel bağlamda gerçekleştirildiğinden, benlik saygısı işe özgü bir şekilde ölçülmüştür.

Bireysel farklılıklar dışında görevle ilgili özellikler de geribildirim bağlamında çok az anlaşılmıştır (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Daha önceki çalışmalara görevleri kolay ve zor görevler (Shrauger & Rosenberg,1970), kaynağa duyarlı ve kaynağa duyarsız görevler (Kanfer, 1996), kaçınmacı ve yaklaşmacı odaklı görevler (Van Dijk & Kluger, 2011) şeklinde kategorize etmişlerdir. Geribildirim sürecinde etkili olacak görev özelliklerinden biri de görevin merkeziliği olabilir. Bireyler işleri gereği pek çok farklı görevi yerine getirirler; fakat bütün görevler esas işlerine aynı merkezilikte değildir. Bu çalışmada merkezi görevler sık yapılan ve önemli bulunan görevlerden şeklinde tanımlanırken, çevresel görevler daha az yapılan ve daha önemsiz yapılan görevler şeklinde tanımlanmıştır. Merkezi görevler bireyler tarafından daha önemli görüldüğünden bu görevler hakkında olumsuz geribildirim almak kişilerin daha korumacı olmasına sebep olabilir. Dolayısıyla çevresel görevler için olumsuz geribildirimi kabul etmek daha kolaydır. Bu bilgiler ışığında aşağıdaki hipotezler sunulmuştur:

H3: Olumlu geribildirim merkezi görevler için çevresel görevlere göre daha fazla kabul edilirken, olumsuz geribildirim çevresel görevler için merkezi görevlere göre daha çok kabul edilir.

H4: Yüksek benlik saygısına sahip kişiler olumlu geribildirimi en çok merkezi görevler için kabul eder.

2.YÖNTEM

Bu çalışmanın yöntem bölümü Ön Çalışma ve Ana Çalışma kısımlarından oluşmaktadır. Ön çalışma ana çalışmada kullanılacak görevleri belirlemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Ana çalışmada katılımcılar dört farklı performans geribildirimi içeren hikaye okumuş ve hikayelerdeki performans geribildirimleri için tepki ölçeği doldurmuşlardır.

2.1.Ön Çalışma: Ana Çalışmada Kullanılacak İki Merkezi ve İki Çevresel Görevi Seçme

Görev listesi özel bir üniversitede çalışan 6 araştırma görevlisi tarafından hazırlanmıştır. Ayrıca Eğitim-Sen'in araştırma görevlileri hakkındaki raporu (2013) listede düzenlemeler yapmak amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Son liste 30 farklı görevden oluşmuştur. Çalışmanın bu aşamasına Türkiye'deki farklı üniversitelerde çalışan 94 farklı araştırma görevlisi katılmıştır (69 kadın, 25 erkek). Katılımcılardan 65'i sosyal bilimlerde, 17'si fen bilimlilerinde, 1'i sağlık bilimlerinde görev yapmaktadır ve 1'i fakültesini belirtmemiştir. Katılımcılara üniversitelerin resmi sayfalarındaki e-posta adresleri aracılığıyla ulaşılmış ve çalışmaya katılmayı kabul edenler internet üzerinden 30 farklı görevin esas işle ilgililiğini ve yapılma sıklığını 5 basamaklı Likert tipi ölçek üzerinden değerlendirmiştir. Görev merkeziliğini belirlemek için görev ilgiliği 0.7 ve görev sıklığı 0.3 ile çarpılmıştır. Ağırlığın bu şekilde yapılmasının nedeni bazı görevlerin oldukça ilgili algılanmasına rağmen az sıklıkta yapılması (örn. Türkiye'deki ve yurtdışındaki seminer ve çalıştaylara bölümü temsilen katılmak), bunun yanında bazı görevlerin ise sıklıkla yapılmasına rağmen daha az ilgili algılanmasıdır (örn. Dönem boyunca ya da sonunda öğrencilerin notlarının sisteme girilmesi). Hesaplamalar sonucunda iki merkezi görev bilimsel çalışmalara katkıda bulunmak ve yayın yapmak ile öğrencilerin derslerle ilgili sorularını cevaplamak şeklinde belirlenmiştir. İki çevresel görev ise mezun öğrencilerle mevcut durumları hakkında bilgi edinmek için iletişime geçmek ve bölümdeki teknik arızalarla ilgilenmek şeklinde olmuştur.

2.2. Ana Çalışma

2.2.1.Katılımcılar

Ana çalışmaya Türkiye'deki çeşitli özel üniversitelerle devlet üniversitelerinde çalışan 106 araştırma görevlisi katılmıştır (73 kadın, 32 erkek). Katılımcıların yaşları 23 ve 35 arasında değişmektedir. Katılımcıların 53'ü yüksek lisansa devam ederken, 53ü doktora çalışmalarına devam etmektedir. Katılımcıların 52'si sosyal bilimlerde, 31'i fen bilimlerinde, 7'si sağlık bilimlerinde, 12'si diğer fakültelerde görev yapmaktadır. Dört katılımcı da fakültesini belirtmemiştir. Katılımcıların ortalama çalışma süresi üç yıldır. Katılımcılardan 76'sı devlet üniversitesinde, 30'u özel üniversitede çalışmaktadır. Katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmıştır.

2.2.2.Ölçekler

Bu çalışmada performans geribildirim hikayeleri, geribildirime tepki ölçeği, alana özgü benlik saygısı ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ek olarak, katılımcıların cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim, fakülte, çalışma süresi, çalıştıkları üniversite türü (devlet ya da özel) demografik bilgi formunda sorulmuştur. Son olarak bazı katılımcılar esas işlerindeki geribildirim durumuyla ilgili altı soruya yanıt vermiştir.

2.2.2.1. Hikayeler

Araştırmacı tarafından sekiz farklı performans geribildirimi içeren hikaye yazılmıştır. Dört hikaye olumlu geribildirim, dört hikaye ise olumsuz geribildirim içermektedir. Bu dört hikayeden ikisi merkezi ikisi ise çevresel görevlerle ilgilidir. Her hikayede iki farklı karakter vardır. Bunlardan biri geribildirimi veren bölüm başkanı, diğeri ise geribildirimi alan araştırma görevlisidir. Katılımcılar bu senaryonun 2014 yılında araştırma görevlisine verilen geribildirimden bir alıntı olduğu konusunda bilgilendirilmiştir. Geribildirimde öncelikle araştırma görevlisinden beklenen görev, daha sonra görevdeki şu anki başarı durumu ve son olarak da gelecek yıl için beklentiler söylenmiştir. Senaryolarda cinsiyet dengelenmiştir. Her senaryonun bir olumlu bir olumsuz olmak üzere iki farklı

versiyonu vardır. Dört farklı görev, farklı cinsiyetler dengelendiğinde toplam 48 farklı form oluşmuştur.

2.2.2. Geribildirime Tepki Ölçeği

On iki maddeden oluşan 5 Basamaklı Likert tipi bir ölçektir. Dört madde doğruluk algısını ölçmektedir. Bir madde Solmazer (2013)'ün çalışmasından, bir madde Bell ve Arthur (2008)'un çalışmasından ve son iki madde ise Nease, Mudgett ve Quiñones'in çalışmasından uyarlanmıştır. Duygusal tepkiler ise sekiz madde ile ölçülmüştür. Bu sekiz maddeden beşi Brett ve Atwater (2001)'in çalışmasından ve diğer üç madde Dutton ve Brown (1996)'ın çalışmasından uyarlanmıştır. Geirbildirim tepki ölçeğinin iç tutarlılık katsayısı .96 olarak bulunmuş ve alt ölçeklerin de sırasıyla duygusal tepki için .95 ve doğruluk tepkisi için .90 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.2.3.Alan Özgü Benlik Saygısı Ölçeği

Alana özgü benlik ölçeği Rosenberg (1965)'in Benlik Saygısı Ölçeği kullanılarak yaratılmıştır. Rosenberg benlik saygısı ölçeği 10 maddeli 4 Basamaklı Likert tipi bir ölçektir. Türkçe'ye Çuhadaroğlu (1986) tarafından uyarlanmış olup Türk örneklemi için iç tutarlılık katsayısı. 75 olarak bulunmuştur. Bu çalışmada Rosenberg Benlik Saygısı Ölçeğinin maddeleri araştırma görevlisi olarak benlik saygısı ölçecek şekilde şekillendirilmiştir. Örneğim "Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum" maddesi "Kendimi en az diğer araştırma görevlileri kadar değerli buluyorum" şeklinde düzenlenmiştir. Bu çalışmada alana özgü benlik saygısının iç tutarlılık katsayısı. 89 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.2.4. Manipülasyon Kontrolü Ölçeği

Katılımcılara beş manipülasyon kontrolü sorusu sorulmuştur. Kendilerini ne derece hikayedeki karakterlerle özdeşleştirebildiklerini, hikayedeki performans geribildirimini ne kadar gerçekçi bulduklarını, performans geribildirimini ne kadar olumlu algıladıklarını ve hakkında performans geribildirimi verilen göreve esas

işleriyle ne kadar ilgili bulduklarını ve ne sıklıkta yaptıklarını 5 Basamaklı Likert tipi bir ölçek üzerinde değerlendirmişlerdir.

2.2.2.5. Geribildirim Soruları

Katılımcılardan 51'i gerçek işlerindeki geribildirim durumlarıyla ilgili altı soruya daha cevap vermiştir. Bu katılımcılara işlerinde geribildirim alıp almadıkları, alıyorlarsa ne sıklıkta aldıkları, olumlu ve olumsuz geribildirim sıklığı, hangi sıklıkta geribildirim almak istedikleri ve geribildirimi ne derece faydalı buldukları sorulmuştur.

2.2.3. Desen

Bu çalışmada 2 (geribildirim yönü) x 2 (benlik saygısı) x 2 (görev merkeziliği) deneysel desen kullanılmıştır. Geribildirim yönünün (olumlu ya da olumsuz), benlik saygısının (düşük ve yüksek) ve görev merkeziliğinin (merkezi ya da çevresel) iki tepki (duygusal ve doğruluk) üzerindeki etkisi araştırılmıştır. Geribildirim yönü ve benlik saygısı denekler arası değişken iken görev merkeziliği denek içi değişkendir.

2.2.4. İşlem

Katılımcılara sosyal medya aracılığıyla ulaşılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul edenler seçkisiz olarak olumlu ya da olumsuz geribildirim durumu için atanmıştır. Katılımcılar öncelikle demografik bilgi formunu doldurmuş sonra performans geribildirimi içeren dört farklı hikaye okumuştur. Her bir hikaye için geribildirime tepki ölçeği ve manipülasyon kontrol ölçeği doldurmuştur. Son olarak alana özgü benlik ölçeğini tamamlamıştır. Katılımcılardan 51'i buna ek olarak esas işlerindeki geribildirim durumlarıyla ilgili altı ek soruya cevap vermiştir. Bütün ölçekler tamamlandıktan sonra katılımcılara teşekkür edilmiş ve katılım sonrası bilgilendirme formu verilmiştir.

3. BULGULAR

3.1 Hipotezlerin Test Edilmesi

Çalışma sonuçları bireylerin olumlu geribildirime olumsuz geribildirimden daha olumlu duygusal tepkiler verdiğini, t (104) = 8.57, p <.001 ve olumlu geribildirimi olumsuz geribildirimden daha çok kabul ettiğini, t (104) = 7.01, p <.001 göstermiştir. Bu bulgu Hipotez 1a ve Hipotez 1b'yi desteklemektedir. Bununla birlikte, geribildirim kabul edilirliği için geribildirim yönü ve benlik saygısı arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi bulunmuştur, $F(1, 98) = 4.61 p < .05, \eta = .05.$ Hipotez2'de sunulduğu gibi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumlu geribildirimi düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylere göre daha fazla kabul ederken, düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumsuz geribildirimi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylerden daha çok kabul etmiştir. Hipotez 3 geribildirim kabul edilirliği için görev merkeziliği ile geribildirim yönü arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim öne sürmüştür. Fakat sonuçlar bu etkileşimi desteklememiştir. Bununla beraber, merkeziliğinin anlamlı bir ana etkisi bulunmuştur, F(1, 104) = 55.65, p < .001, $\eta 2$ =.34. Bireyler hem olumlu hem de olumsuz geribildirim için merkezi görevlerle ilgili verilen geribildirimi çevresel görevlerle ilgili verilen geribildirimden daha fazla kabul edilebileceğini belirtmişlerdir. Son olarak yine geribildirimin kabul edilirliği için geribildirim yönü, benlik saygısı ve görev merkeziliği arasında anlamlı bir üçlü etkileşim bulunmuştur, F(1, 104) = 55.65, p < .001, $\eta 2 = .34$. Beklendiği gibi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumlu geribildirimi en fazla merkezi görevler için kabul etmiştir.

4. TARTIŞMA

4.1. Ana Bulguların Değerlendirilmesi

Bu çalışma önceki çalışmalarla (örn. Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Brown, 2007) tutarlı olarak bireylerin olumlu geribildirime olumsuz geribildirimden daha olumlu duygusal tepkiler verdiğini ve daha çok kabul ettiğini bulmuştur. Bununla birlikte Korman (1979)'ın öz uyum teorisiyle tutarlı olarak yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin olumlu geribildirimi düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerde daha fazla kabul ederken, düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin olumsuz geribildirimi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylerden daha fazla kabul ettiğini göstermiştir. Bu çalışma geribildirimin kabul edilirliği için geribildirim yönü ve görev merkeziliği arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi bulamasa da, görev merkeziliğinin ana etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu da merkezi ve çevresel görevler olarak bir ayırımın gerçekten var olabileceğini işaret etmektedir. Bireyler merkezi görevler için hem olumlu hem de olumsuz geribildirimi daha çok kabul etmiştir. Bu durum bireylerin kendilerini merkezi görevlerde daha fazla geliştirmek istemelerinden kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Son olarak, bu çalışma geribildirimin kabul edilirliği için geribildirim yönü, benlik saygısı ve görev merkeziliği arasında anlamlı bir üçlü etkileşim bulmuştur. Beklendiği gibi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumlu geribildirimi en çok merkezi görevler için kabul etmiştir. Çevresel görevler için yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler hem olumlu hem de olumsuz geribildirimi düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerden daha çok kabul etmiştir. Merkezi görevler için ise düşük benlik saygısına sahip bireylerin kabulü çok fazla geribildirimin yönüne dayanmazken, yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumlu geribildirim için oldukça yüksek kabul göstermiş olumsuz geribildirimi ise reddetmişlerdir. Shrauger ve Lund (1975)'un belirttiği gibi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireyler olumsuz geribildirim için savunmacı tepki göstermişlerdir. Bu durum da organizasyonların olumsuz

geribildirimi yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylere vermek için etkili yollar geliştirmesinin gerekliliğini ortaya koymuştur.

4.2. Çalışmanın Sınırlılıklar ve Öneriler

Öncelikle katılımcıların farklı üniversite ve fakültelerden olması bu çalışmanın sonuçlarını etkilemiş olabilir. Çünkü araştırma görevlilerinin yaptığı görevler fakülte ve üniversitelere göre çok fazla değişkenlik göstermektedir. Bu çalışmayı daha yapılandırılmış bir meslek grubuyla gerçekleştirmek daha faydalı olabilir. Katılımcılarının çoğunun kadın olması da örneklemin yanlı sonuçlar vermesine sebep olmuş olabilir. Bununla birlikte, bu çalışmada geribildirim veren bireyin cinsiyeti farklı hikayelerde dengelenmiş ve geribildirime verilen tepkiler açısından farklı cinsiyetteki kaynaklar için fark bulunamamıştır; fakat bu durum katılımcıların hikayeleri okurken geribildirim kaynağının cinsiyetine çok fazla dikkat etmemelerinden kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Bir başka sınırılılık katılımcıların benlik saygısının yüksek çıkmasıdır. İleriki çalışmalarda katılımcıların örtülü benlik saygısının da değerlendirilmesi faydalı olabilir. Buna ek olarak, çalışmada hikaye tekniğinin kullanılması da sınırlılıklar arasındadır. Geribildirim çalışmasında gerçek bir performansla gerçek bir geribildirim verilmesi farklı sonuçlar çıkmasını sağlayabilir. Bu çalışmanın ekolojik geçerliliğiyle ilgili problemden de bahsetmek mümkündür Bu çalışmada esas işlerindeki geribildirim durumlarıyla ilgili soruları yanıtlayan 51 kişiden 21'i işyerinde geribildirim almadığını belirtmiştir. Bunun dışında kültürün etkisi de göz ardı edilemez. Asya ülkelerinde alçakgönüllülük arzu edilir bir özellik olduğundan (Cai ve ark., 2011) kendini geliştirme güdüsü daha az etkilidir (Kurman, 2003). Uskul (2013) Türk kültürünü Çin kültürü kadar alçak gönüllük-temelli olarak ya da Amerikan kültürü kadar olumluluk-temelli sınıflandırmamış olsa da Türk kültürü ikisinin arasında onur-temelli bir kültürdür. Gelecekte kültürün etkisini ortaya çıkarmak için kültürlerarası çalışmalar yapılabilir.

4.3. Çalışmanın Potansiyel Katkıları ve Doğurguları

Öncelikkle bu çalışma görev merkeziliği kavramını literatüre tanıtmıştır. Görevleri merkezi ve çevresel olarak ayırmak daha etkili performans kriteri sağlamak için organizasyonlara yardımcı olabilir. Performans kriterlerinde çevresel görevlere daha az merkezi görevlere ise daha çok ağırlık verilebilir. İkincisi çalışmanı bulgularının insan kaynakları uygulamalarına katkıları vardır. Gregory ve Levy (2015)'nin belirttiği gibi olumsuz geribildirim en faydalı geribildirim çeşididir; fakat bireyler genellikle olumsuz geribildirimi reddeder ve bu durum da organizasyonlar için problem yaratır. Dolayısıyla insan kaynakları departmanları olumsuz geribildirimin nasıl verilmesi gerektiği konusunda etkili yollar bulmalıdır. Özellikle yüksek benlik saygısına sahip bireylere olumsuz geribildirim vermeden önce performansın olumlu yönlerinden bahsetmek faydalı olabilir. Son olarak bu çalışmanın eğitim sektörü için uygulamalarından da söz edilebilir. Bu çalışma Türkiye'deki araştırma görevlilerinin ortalama olarak geribildirimi faydalı bulduğunu; fakat pek çoğunun geribildirim almadğını ortaya koymuştur. Geribildirim alanlar da genellikle olumlu geribildirim aldığını belirtmiştir. Bu sebeple üniversiteler performans geribildirimi vermek konusunda etkili yollar bulmalı ve olumsuz geribildirimin öneminin de farkına varmalıdır. Bu çalışma Türkiye'deki araştırma görevlilerinin nasıl performans kriteri belirleneceği konusunda fikir verebilir.

APPENDIX J: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

<u>ENSTİTÜ</u>		
Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü		
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü		
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü		
Enformatik Enstitüsü		
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü		
YAZARIN		
Soyadı : Güngör Adı : Elis Bölümü : Psikoloji		
<u>TEZİN ADI</u> (İngilizce) : Reactions Self-Esteem and Task Centrality	to Feedback: Effects of Feedback	Sign,
TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans	Doktora	
Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösteri	ilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.	
Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, ind bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şa		
Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokop	pi alınamaz.	

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:

1.

2.

3.