PERCEPTIONS AND RATINGS OF PERFORMANCE: DO THE EFFECTS OF
WORKPLACE ABSENCE DEPEND UPON THE RATEE'S GENDER AND THE REASON
FOR ABSENCE?

by

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B.S., Kansas State University, 2007

A THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Psychology
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KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2010

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2010

Abstract

Prior research has suggested there are negative consequences for missing work for both the individual and the organization. These consequences, such as lower ratings of performance, may exist regardless of the reason for the absence, and may be influenced to some extent by stereotypes held by others, such as supervisors and coworkers. The purpose of this study was to determine if absence from work for a stereotypically male or female task would affect supervisor and coworker ratings of performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). It was expected that workers who violated a gender role stereotype (males missing work for a stereotypically feminine task or females missing work for a stereotypically masculine task) would be sanctioned by supervisors and coworkers through lower ratings of performance, lower ratings of perceived organizational commitment, and lower ratings of the likelihood of performing OCBs than those who did not miss work or who missed work without violating a gender role stereotype. One hundred and seventy-four undergraduate psychology students at a large Midwestern university read descriptions of employee performance and attendance and then rated the employee's performance and perceived organizational commitment and likelihood of performing both altruism and generalized compliance OCBs. Results revealed that an absence from work resulted in lower ratings of all four criteria, but that the interaction between the employee's gender and reason for absence (i.e., whether they violated a gender role stereotype) had no effect. Implications and future directions are discussed.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

CHAPTER 1 - Introduction

Although occasional absences from work are likely, there may still be severe

consequences for missing work for both the individual and the organization. For individuals,

missing work may lead to reduced performance ratings (Butler & Skattebo, 2004; Judiesch &

Lyness, 1999), being perceived as less committed to the organization (Allen & Russell, 1999;

Allen, Russell, & Rush, 1994), and being perceived as less likely to perform organizational

citizenship behaviors (Wayne & Cordeiro, 2003), as well as lower wages (Hansen, 2000) and

increased risk of termination (Balchin & Wooden, 1995; Koopmans, Roelen, & Groothoff,

2008). For organizations, there is evidence that workplace absences result in lower overall

organizational productivity (Brouwer, van Exel, Koopmanschap, & Rutten, 2002; Goodman &

Leyden, 1991) and financial losses (Brown & Sessions, 1996; Dunn & Youngblood, 1986;

Wooden, 1992).

The troublesome relationships between absence from work and outcomes such as those

mentioned have motivated a great deal of research aimed at identifying factors that contribute to

workplace absence. This research has revealed that work strain (Darr & Johns, 2008; Evans &

Steptoe, 2002), the organizational absence culture (Gellatly & Luchak, 1998), physical work

demands (Laaksonen, Martikainen, Rahkonen, & Lehalma, 2008; Michie & Williams, 2003),

and lack of control over work (Michie & Williams, 2003) are related to absence from work. As

these factors have been identified, organizational decision makers have attempted to reduce

absenteeism through a variety of interventions. These include offering flexible work schedules

(Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Brown & Sessions, 1996; VandenHeuvel,

1997), providing stress-management training (Michie & Williams, 2003) and more closely

monitoring employees (Heywood & Jirjahn, 2004). Other factors, however, may be related to

workplace absences that are beyond employees' control and that are unavoidable (i.e., not likely to be affected by any organizational intervention). For example, family demands are likely to cause employed spouses, mothers and fathers, and adult children of aging parents to occasionally miss work. Similarly, research has shown that the presence of young children in the family is positively related to absence (Bekker, Croon, & Bressers, 2005; Mastekaasa, 2000; VandenHeuvel, 1997; Yssaad, 2008).

The purpose of the current study was to determine how an absence from work affects supervisor and coworker perceptions of an employee's organizational commitment, likelihood of performing organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and levels of performance. Additionally, the effects of the interaction of ratee gender and the extent to which the rater holds traditional stereotypes, the interaction of ratee gender and absence from work, and the main effect of gender role stereotype violation are examined.

Effects of Workplace Absence

As previously stated, individuals can experience several negative consequences as a result of an absence from work. The following section examines the effects of workplace absence on performance ratings, organizational commitment, and OCBs.

Performance Ratings

One of the most substantial consequences of workplace absence, because of the potential ramifications for one's career and compensation, is the potential for reduced performance ratings (Butler & Skattebo, 2004; Bycio, 1992; Judiesch & Lyness, 1999; Viswesvaran, 2002). Employees must be present at work in order to achieve any level of performance, and so reporting to work when expected is arguably one of the most critical performance criteria. Some empirical evidence supports the notion that absence from work will negatively affect an

employee's performance ratings. Allen et al. (1994), for example, found that employees who take a leave of absence for family reasons may be less likely to be recommended for an overseas assignment, which may in turn reduce their likelihood of career success. Furthermore, Judiesch and Lyness (1999) found that employees who take a leave of absence are likely to receive lower performance ratings and are less likely to be promoted or receive a pay raise than employees who do not take a leave of absence.

There are several reasons that absence is likely related to lower performance ratings. First, supervisors and coworkers of employees who have an absence from work may perceive those employees as lower in intrinsic motivation. Prior research has shown that perceptions of intrinsic motivation are positively related to performance ratings (DeVoe & Iyengar, 2004; Pelletier & Vallerand, 1996). As such, anything that is likely to make a supervisor or coworker perceive that an employee is less intrinsically motivated (e.g., a workplace absence) can be expected to lead to lower performance ratings. Second, when employees miss work, raters have fewer opportunities to observe their performance, and research has shown that performance ratings are affected by the extent to which the rater has an opportunity to observe performance (Rothstein, 1990). Finally, by definition, performance ratings are a measure of performance. Consequently, when performance decreases (as when the employee is absent and thus unable to perform his or her job), performance ratings will be expected to follow suit. Based on the above rationale, the following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 1: Employees who have an absence from work will receive lower performance ratings than employees who do not have an absence from work.

Organizational Commitment

In addition to receiving lower performance ratings, workplace absence is also likely to influence supervisor and coworker perceptions of an employee's commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment is a "bond or linking of the individual to the organization" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171). Perceptions of organizational commitment are important because they are significantly related to performance ratings, and perceptions of organizational commitment can predict a manager's use of rewards and punishments beyond performance (Shore, Bommer, & Shore, 2008).

Workplace absence is expected to relate to perceptions of lower organizational commitment for several reasons. First, employees who are absent from work may be assumed to make work a low priority and be less invested in the organization, thus being viewed as less committed. Second, an absence from work may be perceived by supervisors and coworkers as a breach of the psychological contract, or a set of expectations held by employers and employees about the conditions of the employment relationship (Tekleab & Taylor, 2003). This perceived violation of the psychological contract is likely to cause deterioration of relationships (Chen, Tsui, & Zhong, 2008), and low-quality relationships are associated with low organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990). Finally, absence from work can be expected to affect supervisor and coworker perceptions of the employee's organizational commitment because an absent employee is unable to perform impression management behaviors, and these are related to perceptions of organizational commitment (Shore et al., 2008). Based on the rationale presented, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: Employees who have an absence from work will be perceived as less committed to the organization than employees who do not have an absence from work.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Supervisors and coworkers may also perceive an employee who is absent as less likely to perform certain behaviors. OCBs are "discretionary actions that promote organizational effectiveness" (Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004, p. 455). These discretionary behaviors are distinct from task performance. Task performance includes the "core responsibilities" of a job, while OCBs, more similar to contextual performance, are "non-job-specific behaviors" (Conway, 1999, p.3). The dimensionality of OCBs has been extensively discussed in the literature, with as few as two and as many as five dimensions being suggested (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Wayne & Cordeiro, 2003; Williams & Anderson, 1991). The current study measured altruism[1] and generalized compliance OCBs, consistent with Wayne and Cordeiro (2003), who define altruism as "directly helping specific others with an organizationally relevant task or problem…" (p. 235) and generalized compliance as "…conscientiousness that indirectly helps others within the organization…" (p. 235).

Like organizational commitment, the performance of OCBs is positively related to job performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007), especially when there is high task interdependence among coworkers (Bachrach, Powell, Bendoly, & Richey, 2006; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). When employees are absent from work, they are unable to perform OCBs, including helping coworkers (altruism) and working overtime (generalized compliance). Performing OCBs can be conceptualized as going "above and beyond" what is normally expected of the employee. When the employee fails to do what is minimally expected (reporting when scheduled), it necessarily becomes impossible to exceed expectations. Supervisors and coworkers will likely perceive absent employees as less dependable and lower their expectations of what the employees will contribute to the team, including altruism and generalized compliance OCBs. Finally, as previously stated, absence from work is likely to be

perceived as a violation of the psychological contract by the employee. Previous research has provided evidence that supervisor ratings of employee OCBs are significantly reduced after a perceived violation of the contract (Tekleab & Taylor, 2003). With these points in mind, the following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 3: Employees who have an absence from work will be perceived as less likely to perform (a) altruism OCBs and (b) generalized compliance OCBs than employees who do not have an absence from work.

Effects of Ratee Gender

Just as workplace absence can impact performance ratings, perceptions of organizational commitment, and perceptions of OCBs, the gender of the person being rated can also impact these outcomes. This is due to the influence of gender stereotypes. In the following sections, the impact of whether an employee is male or female is examined in terms of how supervisors and coworkers rate their performance and perceive their organizational commitment and likelihood of engaging in altruism and generalized compliance OCBs, based in large part on the gender stereotypes the rater holds.

Gender Role Stereotypes

Jackson, Hansen, Hansen, and Sullivan (1993) defined stereotypes as "revisions in trait or behavioral probabilities that are based on social category information" (p. 293). According to Deaux and Lewis (1984), gender stereotypes consist of linkages between trait, role, occupation, and physical characteristic probabilities. So, for example, they found that when participants were told that a person has stereotypically male traits (e.g., independent, active, competitive, can make decisions easily, never gives up easily, self-confident, stands up well under pressure, and feels superior) as opposed to stereotypically female traits (e.g., emotional, able to devote self

6

completely to others, gentle, kind, aware of others' feelings, understanding of others, warm in relations with others, and helpful to others), they reported that it was more likely for the person to hold a stereotypically male role (e.g., head of household, financial provider, a leader, responsible for household repairs) than for the person to hold a stereotypically female role (e.g., source of emotional support, manages the house, takes care of children, responsible for decorating the house). Research has also shown that many occupations and roles immediately activate gender role stereotypes, and that the effects of these stereotypes can persist despite conscious effort to avoid being influenced by them (Oakhill, Garnham, & Reynolds, 2005).

Stereotypes, specifically those based on gender, can have powerful effects on important behaviors. When a member of a stereotyped group perceives a situation in which his or her behavior may be assumed to be a test of the stereotype, he or she will likely experience anxiety that will negatively affect cognitive performance (Johns, Inzlicht, & Schmader, 2008). Additionally, gender role stereotypes can affect women's occupation choice by affecting the types of jobs that they perceive they have the ability to perform and that they like (Oswald, 2008) and cause women's performance to be rated more negatively than men's (Bauer & Baltes, 2002; Bowen, Swim, & Jacobs, 2000; Dobbins, Cardy, & Truxillo, 1988). In some cases, a female's awareness of a stereotype may even cause her to intentionally reduce her performance so as not to outperform a male on a stereotypically male task (Krauss, 1977).

Violating a gender stereotype can also influence other's judgments about the violator, including performance appraisals (Butler & Skattebo, 2004). Karniol and Aida (1997) found that even children believe that a peer should be punished more severely for accidentally breaking a toy if they violated a gender stereotype (a girl playing with a stereotypically male toy or vice versa). Furthermore, research has demonstrated that boys who play feminine games with girls

will be less popular than boys who play neutral or masculine games (Lobel, 1994). Children are not the only ones affected by gender role stereotypes, however. For example, Wiley and Eskilson (1985) found that male raters perceived female job applicants as less likeable when they use a powerful (stereotypically male) as opposed to a powerless (stereotypically female) speech style. The authors defined powerless speech as including hesitation forms ("well," "ah"), tag questions ("isn't it?"), hedges ("kinda", "sorta"), and intensifiers ("very," "so"), and powerful speech including relatively fewer of these hesitation forms, tag questions, hedges, and intensifiers.

Performance Ratings

Whether an employee is male or female has been shown to play a role in how that individual is rated. For example, researchers have found that women may generally be more likely to receive lower ratings than men, particularly when the rater holds traditional stereotypes of women (Bauer & Baltes, 2002; Dobbins et al., 1988). While men are stereotypically assumed to possess traits and characteristics that contribute to success at work, including aggressiveness, ambitiousness, confidence, strength, and being logical, women are assumed to possess traits and characteristics that will more likely contribute to poor performance, such as anxiousness, dependency, emotionality, sensitivity, and submissiveness (Williams, Satterwhite, & Best, 1999). These stereotypes can affect performance ratings. Bowen et al. (2000) found that when raters are all male, men receive higher performance ratings than women. This is consistent with findings from Bauer and Baltes (2002) and Dobbins et al. (1988). There is no evidence to suggest that women's actual performance is weaker than men's, but stereotypes can cause men and women to be rated differently even when their performance is equal. As such, the following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between ratee gender and performance ratings will be moderated by the extent to which the rater holds traditional gender role stereotypes, such that those with a greater adherence to traditional stereotypes will give women lower performance ratings than they give men.

Organizational Commitment

There has been some debate in the literature concerning the relationship between one's commitment to family and commitment to the organization. Barnett and Hyde (2001) have developed an expansionist theory that suggests having multiple roles (in the family and in the workforce) can result in mental, physical, and relationship health benefits. There is evidence, however, that multiple roles can lead to work-life conflict, which is negatively related to organizational commitment (Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005). Although many researchers have failed to find a sex difference in work-life conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Gronlund, 2007; McElwain, Korabik, & Rosin, 2005; Winslow, 2005), laypeople may generally expect women who work to experience more work-life conflict since, as Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found, "…there have been very few changes in society's perception of gender-specific work- and family-role responsibilities over the past few decades," and that "…women have fewer options than men for achieving control over competing role demands" (p. 71).

Researchers who have specifically examined gender differences in organizational commitment have found conflicting results, with some evidence suggesting that men may be slightly more committed than women (Marsden, Kalleberg, & Cook, 1993), others finding little or no difference between the sexes (Bruning & Snyder, 1983), and still others finding women higher in commitment and less likely to voluntarily turnover (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001; Wahn, 1998). Still, because of the stereotype that men are to make work a priority and women are to

make family a priority, it is expected that individuals who hold traditional stereotypes will rate women as less committed. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between ratee gender and perceived organizational commitment will be moderated by the extent to which the rater holds traditional stereotypes, such that those with greater adherence to traditional stereotypes will perceive women as less committed than men.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Previous researchers have suggested and found some initial evidence that various dimensions of OCBs are considered to be more stereotypically male or female (Kidder & Parks, 2001; Lovell et al., 1999). For example, Kidder and Parks characterize altruism OCBs as helping behavior. As such, they argue, these behaviors are likely to be perceived as feminine, and females will be more likely to perform them. This proposition has been supported by studies such as that by Lovell et al. (1999), in which women were rated significantly higher in altruism OCBs than were men. Similarly, Rioux and Penner (2001) found that prosocial values motives, "a need to be helpful and a desire to build positive relationships with others" (p. 1307), were significantly, positively related to altruism OCBs. These prosocial values motives can also be expected to be more typical of female employees than male employees. Following from this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: The relationship between ratee gender and altruism OCB ratings will be moderated by the extent to which the rater holds traditional stereotypes, such that those with greater adherence to traditional stereotypes will rate women as more likely to perform altruism OCBs than men.

Although female employees are expected to be rated higher than male employees on altruism OCBs, they are expected to be rated lower than males on generalized compliance OCBs. Generalized compliance OCBs are behaviors that do not involve interaction with others, but rather include behaviors such as maintaining a good attendance record, being diligent, and paying attention to detail, similar to what others have called conscientiousness OCBs (Organ, 1988). Like job performance, these behaviors may be positively related to stereotypically masculine characteristics including ambitiousness, confidence, strength, and being logical (Williams et al., 1999), and so men may be expected to perform them with greater frequency than women. Rioux and Penner (2001) also found that organizational concern motives, "a desire… for the company to do well and a desire for the participants to show pride in and commitment to the organization" (p. 1307), were positively related to conscientiousness OCBs. These organizational concern motives can be expected to be more typical of male employees than female employees. Correspondingly, the following hypothesis is presented:

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between ratee gender and generalized compliance OCB ratings will be moderated by the extent to which the rater holds traditional stereotypes, such that those with greater adherence to traditional stereotypes will rate men as more likely to perform conscientiousness OCBs than women.

Effects of the Interaction of Ratee Gender and Absence

Employer expectations concerning employee absence from work, and resulting consequences, may depend upon gender. Patton and Johns (2007) examined *New York Times* articles from the past 100 years and found a consistent expectation that women would have higher absenteeism rates than would men, due to factors such as perceived frailer health and greater responsibility for family matters. Their results revealed that the expectation for more

11

absences by women may have historically caused a certain amount of reluctance to hire women, but that once hired, absences by women are less likely to be punished than are absences by men. Evans and Steptoe (2002) also found that instrumentality, defined as "the behavioural and psychological characteristics culturally associated with masculinity" (p. 483), was negatively related to absence, and men are expected, on average, to be higher than women in instrumentality. Research has verified that women are absent from work more frequently than are men (Feeney, North, Head, Canner, & Marmot, 1998; Hansen, 2000; Laaksonen et al., 2008; Sharp & Watt, 1995; Yssaad, 2008), which may cause the expectation that women will have more absences to be maintained.

Patton and Johns' (2007) findings that absences by women are less likely to be punished than are absences by men are consistent with a study by Butler and Skattebo (2004), in which men who missed work to care for a sick child were given lower performance ratings than men who had not, while there was no effect of absence on women's ratings (women received similar ratings, whether they had missed work to care for a sick child or had not missed work). The researchers argued that the men were penalized because they violated a gender stereotype when they made caring for a sick child a higher priority than work. Considering the prevalence and impact of gender role stereotypes, Butler and Skattebo's conclusion is reasonable. It seems that men, on some level, are aware of the bias, as they are less likely to make work adjustments to try to accommodate family demands (Keene & Reynolds, 2005), even though their family demands are similar to women's (McElwain et al., 2005).

The extent to which an employee is committed to the organization is another judgment made by others that may be negatively affected by the employee's absence from work, especially for men. Sex role bias is "any set of attitudes or behavior which favors sex role congruent

behavior and negatively evaluates sex role incongruent behavior" (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987, p. 83). Being absent from work can be expected to be perceived as sex role incongruent behavior for males because they are expected to make work a priority (Cook, 1994). So, for example, a man may not be expected to miss work when he has a sick child. If he does miss work to care for the sick child, it may be assumed that he *chose* to stay home with the child when he could have just as easily chosen to come to work and had someone else (like the child's mother) provide care. Supervisors and coworkers may also feel that the man is unwilling to make an effort to make arrangements for the sick child that will allow him to work. They may think that whenever he has a relatively decent excuse, he will not hesitate to use it to get out of work. This, in turn, can be expected to cause them to feel that he is simply not concerned with the welfare of his organization, the definition of low organizational commitment. A study by Allen and Russell (1999) found evidence that men's perceived organizational commitment is, in fact, negatively affected by absence from work, while women's perceived organizational commitment was relatively less affected by an absence.

This same argument applies to the perceived likelihood that men who have an absence from work will perform OCBs. Wayne and Cordeiro (2003) found that, in general, men who took leave from work were subsequently rated as less likely to perform OCBs than those who did not take leave, while there was no significant effect for women who took leave. In this case the absence was a 3-month leave of absence. The results led the researchers to conclude that "These findings support anecdotal and empirical evidence that suggest a bias against men who take parental leave" (p. 242). With these points in mind, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 8: Men who have an absence from work will (a) receive lower performance ratings, (b) be perceived as less committed to the organization, and (c) be perceived as less likely

13

to perform altruism and (d) generalized compliance OCBs than women who have an absence from work.

Effects of the Interaction of Ratee Gender and Reason for Absence

Some reasons for missing work are perceived as more acceptable than others. Illness, for example, is seen as a more legitimate reason for missing work than environmental, psychological, interpersonal, or domestic reasons (Johns & Xie, 1998). The acceptability of a particular reason for a work absence is likely dependent upon the gender of the employee. If the reason for an absence is perceived to be consistent with the employee's gender, it will be deemed more acceptable than if it is inconsistent with the employee's gender. This perceived acceptability, in turn, is likely to affect performance ratings, perceived organizational commitment, and perceptions of the likelihood of performing OCBs.

Many social judgments are made by others when an individual violates a gender role stereotype. The prevalence and influence of gender stereotypes and how the violation of a gender stereotype can affect judgments, including the severity of punishment that is appropriate and perceptions of popularity and liking, has already been discussed. Taken together, the research findings seem to suggest that when a person violates a gender role stereotype, others (especially those who hold traditional stereotypes) may draw the conclusion that there is something "wrong" with the violator. This general conclusion will likely influence the manner in which that employee's behaviors are perceived, resulting in lower performance ratings, perceived organizational commitment, and perceptions regarding the likelihood of performing altruism and generalized compliance OCBs.

There is already some evidence to support the notion that an employee's gender and reason for absence can interact to influence supervisor and coworker perceptions. When men had

a leave of absence for parental reasons, for example, Allen and Russell (1999) found that they were perceived as less committed to the organization than females who took a leave of absence for the same reason. In this case, the men were also less likely to be recommended for rewards. When the reason for the leave of absence was described as medical, however, males were no less likely to be recommended for rewards than were males who had no leave of absence.

Wayne and Cordeiro (2003) found similar results using OCBs as the criterion. For participants in their study, perceptions of employees using family leave varied depending upon the gender of the employee and the reason for taking leave. The perceived likelihood that women would perform OCBs was not affected by whether they took family leave or not, or whether they took family leave for the birth of a child, to care for a sick child, or to care for an elderly parent. Men, however, who took family leave for the birth of a child or to care for an elderly parent were perceived as less likely to perform OCBs. Their likelihood of performing OCBs was unaffected when they took leave to care for a sick child. Wayne and Cordeiro examined the effects of three family reasons for leave, but did not look at differences between stereotypically masculine or feminine tasks as reasons for an absence. However, the research on the effects of violating a gender stereotype and the empirical evidence presented that supports the notion that gender and the reason given for an absence from work can interact to affect important outcomes lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9: Employees whose reason for absence from work violates a gender stereotype will (a) receive lower performance ratings, (b) be perceived as less committed to the organization, and (c) be perceived as less likely to perform gender-congruent OCBs (altruism OCBs for women and general compliance OCBs for men) than will employees whose reason for absence from work does not violate a gender stereotype.

CHAPTER 2 - Method

Participants

A power analysis performed with the use of the G*Power 3 program (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) revealed that approximately 160 participants would be required to attain sufficient power to detect a medium-sized effect. A medium effect size was chosen because it is equivalent to the effect size achieved by Butler and Skattebo (2004). A total of 174 (82 male, 92 female) participants were recruited through a general psychology participant pool and from an upper-level psychology class at a large university in the Midwest. Participants received course research credit or extra credit for their participation. The average age of participants was 20.12 ($SD = 3.19$), with a range of 17 to 39. The majority of participants (77%) were White and nearly half (44.2%) reported that they supervised other employees either currently or at some point in the past.

Procedure

A pilot study was conducted to identify an occupation that was perceived as gender neutral. Responses were collected from 41 participants, aged 16 to 43 with a mean age of 22.7 ($SD = 4.71$). Several occupations were listed and rated on an 11-point scale from 1 (*extremely masculine*) through 6 (*gender neutral*) to 11 (*extremely feminine*). Results of the pilot study revealed that the job of retail cashier was perceived as gender neutral (an average rating of 7.05) and thus chosen for the occupation within the current study.

Pilot participants also indicated the extent to which 30 different tasks were perceived as masculine or feminine, with responses given on an 11-point scale from extremely masculine to extremely feminine. In addition, Wayne and Cordeiro (2003) suggested that the perceived necessity of the absence from work might affect relationships between absences and outcome

variables such as the ones included in this study. Thus, participants also indicated how necessary it would be to miss work in order to perform the task in each situation so that the tasks could be controlled for with respect to necessity. Response options for the necessity scale ranged from 1 (*extremely necessary*) to 11 (*extremely unnecessary*). The masculine task ($M = 4.54$) of responding to a call from a teenage child whose car broke down and the feminine task of helping to supervise a child's school field trip ($M = 7.51$) were selected. These tasks were chosen because they were roughly equal in terms of their degree of masculinity and femininity and because they had similar ratings on the necessity scale. The necessity of responding to a call from a teenage child whose car broke down ($M = 7.3$, $SD = 2.72$) and helping to supervise a child's school field trip ($M = 6.59$, $SD = 1.85$) were not significantly different ($t=1.23$, $p>.05$).

Individuals completed gender role stereotypes scales in a mass screening at the beginning of the semester during which they were enrolled in their psychology course. At a later date, participants completed the remainder of the study, which included reading one of six vignettes describing an employee's performance and attendance and subsequently rating the employee on measures of performance, commitment, and the employee's likelihood of engaging in OCBs. This methodology is consistent with that used by Butler and Skattebo (2004). Participants were told a cover story describing an organization that was considering changes to its performance appraisal system. Before any changes were made, however, the management team was seeking information regarding how the new system might be expected to affect performance ratings.

Employee performance was static across conditions, while attendance and reason for absence varied. One vignette described a male employee and another described a female employee in each of three situations: missing work for a masculine family task (responding to a call from a teenage child whose car broke down), missing work for a feminine family task

17

(supervising a child's school field trip), or not missing work. These vignettes are included as Appendixes A-F. After reading one of the vignettes, participants took the perspective of either the supervisor or coworker of the employee and, as noted, rated the employee's performance, organizational commitment, and the likelihood of performing OCBs. To make the cover story more credible, these items were formatted to look like a performance appraisal form from an actual organization. The entire packet that participants were given is included as Appendix G (with the male missing work for a masculine task performance description). After making their ratings, participants completed demographic and manipulation check items (contained on the last page of Appendix G). Surveys of those who had completed the gender role stereotypes ($N = 89$) at the beginning of the semester were matched to their stereotypes responses.[2]

Measures

Performance

Participants rated the employee's performance using four items used by Butler and Skattebo (2004). A sample item is, "Is an excellent performer." A complete list of scale items is provided in Appendix G, section IV of the performance appraisal form. Response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), and were averaged to obtain an overall performance score. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .56.

Perceived Organizational Commitment

Participants rated the employee's organizational commitment by responding to ten items developed by Allen et al. (1994). A sample item is, "The employee appears loyal toward the organization." A complete list of scale items is provided in Appendix G, section V of the performance appraisal form. Response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly*

agree), and were averaged to obtain a single organizational commitment score. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .63.

Perceived Likelihood of Performing Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Participants indicated how likely they thought it was for the employee to engage in altruism and generalized compliance OCBs using a 13-item scale developed by Wayne and Cordeiro (2003). A sample item of the altruism scale is, "Always be available to help others in his/her team do their jobs more effectively." A complete list of scale items is provided in Appendix G, section VI of the performance appraisal form (the first six items of the section). A sample item of the generalized compliance scale is, "Have better attendance than most employees." A complete list of scale items is also provided in Appendix G, section VI of the performance appraisal form (the last seven items of the section). Response options ranged from 1 (*extremely unlikely*) to 7 (*extremely likely*) and were averaged within the two scales to obtain a likelihood of performing altruism OCBs score and a likelihood of performing generalized compliance OCBs score. Coefficient alphas were .83 and .61 for the altruism and generalized compliance scales, respectively.

Gender Role Stereotypes

The extent to which participants hold traditional gender role stereotypes for males was measured with 11 items in the Status Norm Scale, developed by Thompson and Pleck (1986) as a result of factor analysis of items created by Brannon and Juni (1984). Response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A sample item from the scale is, "Success in his work has to be man's central goal in this life." A complete list of scale items is provided in Appendix H. Additionally, the short version of the Attitudes Toward Women Scale, developed by Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1973) was used to measure the extent to which participants

hold traditional stereotypes for females. This scale is comprised of 25 items, one of which is,

"Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending, rather than

with desires for professional and business careers." A complete list of scale items is provided in

Appendix I. Response options again ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The

responses to all 36 items (all items from both scales) were averaged to compute a single gender

role stereotypes score, with higher scores reflecting greater adherence to traditional gender role

stereotypes. Coefficient alphas were .78, .86, and .89 for the Status Norm Scale, the Attitudes

Toward Women Scale, and the combined scale respectively.

CHAPTER 3 - Results

The descriptive statistics and inter-correlations for all study variables are presented in Table 3.1. Prior to performing any tests of the hypotheses, the main effect of the participants' perspective (supervisor or coworker) on the outcome variables was examined in order to determine whether there was a difference in perspective, and thus a need to compute separate tests of hypotheses by perspective. Regression analyses revealed that the main effect of participant perspective on ratings of employee performance ($F(1,167) = 2.028$, $p > .05$), organizational commitment ($F(1,167) = .245$, $p > .05$), and likelihood of performing altruism ($F(1,116) = .000$, $p > .05$) and generalized compliance ($F(1,167) = .142$, $p > .05$) OCBs was not significant. Therefore, these conditions were collapsed in subsequent analyses.

Hypothesis 1 stated that employees who had an absence from work would receive lower performance ratings compared to employees who did not have an absence. This hypothesis was supported by the data ($F(1,167) = 4.936$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 2, that employees who had an absence from work would be perceived as less committed to the organization than employees without an absence, was also supported ($F(1,167) = 8.729$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 3 was supported as well, as employees who had an absence from work were perceived as significantly less likely to perform both (a) altruism OCBs ($F(1,167) = 4.06$, $p < .05$), and (b) generalized compliance OCBs ($F(1,167) = 39.626$, $p < .001$) compared to employees who had no absence.

Hypotheses 4-7, that the relationship between ratee gender and performance ratings (H4), organizational commitment (H5), and likelihood of performing altruism (H6) and generalized compliance OCBs (H7) would be moderated by the extent to which the rater held traditional gender role stereotypes were tested using hierarchical multiple regression. Predictor variables were centered to prevent multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). The main effect of employee

gender and of rater gender role stereotypes were entered in the first step, and the interaction term was entered in the second. The regressions were run three separate times: once with the Status Norm Scale score (measuring male stereotypes), once with the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (measuring female stereotypes), and once with the combined scale. Regardless of the measure of gender role stereotypes used, these hypotheses were not supported. Specifically, when the combined scale was used, the interaction term was not significant for Hypothesis 4 ($\beta = .194$, $p > .05$), Hypothesis 5 ($\beta = .227$, $p > .05$), Hypothesis 6 ($\beta = .237$, $p > .05$), or Hypothesis 7 ($\beta = .051$, $p > .05$). Results obtained by running the analyses with the Status Norm Scale and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale separately yielded similarly nonsignificant results, with the exception of Hypothesis 5 being supported when using the Status Norm Scale ($\beta = .194$, $p < .05$). Results using the Status Norm Scale and the Attitudes Toward Women Scale are shown in Table 3.2.

Hypothesis 8 was also tested using hierarchical multiple regression. This hypothesis stated that men who had an absence from work would (a) receive lower performance ratings, (b) be rated lower in organizational commitment, and be perceived as less likely to perform (c) altruism and (d) generalized compliance OCBs than women who had an absence. Predictor variables were once again centered, and the main effects of employee gender and absence were entered in the first step, and their interaction term was entered in the second step. The interaction of employee gender and absence did not have a significant effect on any of the criteria. The interaction term was not significant for Hypothesis 8a ($\beta = .124$, $p > .05$), Hypothesis 8b ($\beta = -.119$, $p > .05$), Hypothesis 8c ($\beta = -.393$, $p > .05$), or Hypothesis 8d ($\beta = -.038$, $p > .05$).

For Hypothesis 9, an "absent" variable was created and was coded with a 0 indicating that the employee violated a gender role stereotype (a male missed work for a feminine task, or a

female missed work for a masculine task) and a 1 indicating that the employee did not violate a gender role stereotype (a male missed work for a masculine task, a female missed work for a feminine task, or there was no absence). A regression analysis was then performed to determine the significance of the main effect of the new absent variable. Hypothesis 9a was not supported, as the effect of gender role stereotype violation on performance appraisal ratings was not significant ($F(1,167) = .105$, $p > .05$). Hypothesis 9b, stating that violating a gender role stereotype would be negatively related to ratings of organizational commitment, was also not supported ($F(1,167) = 1.246$, $p > .05$). For Hypothesis 9c, two separate regression analyses were performed, one with male employees (with the outcome variable of generalized compliance OCBs) and the other with female employees (with the outcome variable of altruism OCBs). The results of the regression analyses revealed that the data did not support the hypothesis that males who missed work for a feminine task would be perceived as less likely to perform generalized compliance OCBs ($F(1,83) = .738$, $p > .05$), or the hypothesis that females who missed work for a masculine task would be perceived as less likely to perform altruism OCBs ($F(1,82) = .903$, $p > .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 9c was not supported.

Table 3.1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Study Variables

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Participant Sex	0.53	0.50	(--)										
2. Participant Age	20.12	3.19	-.17*	(--)									
3. AWS	2.64	0.76	-.30**	-.23*	(-.86)								
4. SNS	4.44	0.98	-.18	-.02	.25*	(.78)							
5. Perspective	0.49	0.50	-.07	.09	.06	.07	(--)						
6. Employee Sex	0.51	0.50	-.12	.02	.15	.27*	-.01	(--)					
7. Absent	0.33	0.47	-.09	-.06	.18	-.12	-.01	.01	(--)				
8. AOCB	5.35	0.90	.01	-.15	.05	-.04	.01	.12	.16*	(.83)			
9. GCOCB	4.32	0.84	-.09	.03	.02	.03	.03	-.05	.44**	.47**	(.61)		
10. Org Com	3.48	0.44	-.11	-.10	.02	.06	-.02	-.02	.23**	.45**	.51**	(.63)	
11. PA	3.14	0.63	.04	-.08	-.22*	-.20	-.10	-.06	.17*	.33**	.44**	.42**	(.56)

Notes. Participant Sex = Male (0), Female (1); AWS = Attitudes Toward Women Scale; SNS = Status Norm Scale; Perspective =

Supervisor (0), Coworker (1); Employee Sex = Male (0), Female (1); Absent = Yes (1), No (2); AOCB = Altruism OCBs; GCOCB =

Generalized Compliance OCBs; Org Com = Organizational Commitment; PA = Performance Appraisal. Coefficient alphas for scales

appear in the diagonal. * Indicates correlation is significant at the .05 level. ** Indicates correlation is significant at the .01 level. N =

169-174 for all correlations not including AWS or SNS. For correlations including AWS and/or SNS, N = 86-89.

Table 3.2 Results for Hypotheses 4-7, using the Status Norm Scale and Attitudes Toward Women Scale.

	Status Norm Scale	Attitudes toward Women Scale
Hypothesis 4	$\beta = .199$, $p > .05$	$\beta = .09$, $p > .05$
Hypothesis 5	$\beta = .194$, $p < .05$	$\beta = .03$, $p > .05$
Hypothesis 6	$\beta = .215$, $p > .05$	$\beta = .035$, $p > .05$
Hypothesis 7	$\beta = .084$, $p > .05$	$\beta = -.08$, $p > .05$

Note. $N = 87\text{-}88$.

CHAPTER 4 - Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine if an absence from work for a stereotypically male or female task affects supervisor and coworker ratings of performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing OCBs. In their earlier research, Butler and Skattebo (2004) found that men who missed work for a feminine task (staying home with a sick child) received lower ratings than men who did not miss work, while women received similar ratings whether they missed work for a feminine task or did not miss work. They suggested that the reduced ratings of the men who stayed home with a sick child may have been due, at least in part, to their violation of a gender role stereotype. The current study sought to replicate and extend their findings by including a condition in which a woman missed work for a masculine task (responding to a teenage child's car breakdown), in addition to a condition in which a man missed work for a feminine task (supervising a child's school field trip) to ascertain if a similar effect would be found for women who violated a gender role stereotype. It was also expected that participants with greater adherence to traditional gender role stereotypes would rate women lower on performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing OCBs than men, as compared to those with less adherence to traditional gender role stereotypes.

As expected, men and women who missed work received lower ratings of performance, were perceived as less committed to the organization, and were regarded as less likely to perform altruism and generalized compliance OCBs than those who did not miss work. This is in line with previous research which has found that workplace absence is often related to reduced performance ratings (Butler & Skattebo, 2004; Bycio, 1992; Judiesch & Lyness, 1999; Viswesvaran, 2002). The design of the study, however, leaves open the possibility of an alternative explanation, that the absence condition performance description was just generally

more negative and so led to more negative ratings (not necessarily because of the absence specifically). This is discussed in more detail in the strengths and limitations section.

Contrary to expectations, the current study's results revealed that the relationships between employee gender and the four criteria (performance, organizational commitment, and altruism and generalized compliance OCBs) were not moderated by the extent to which raters endorsed traditional gender role stereotypes. The failure of the data to support these hypotheses could have been due to a number of factors. Male and female employees in the current study received very similar ratings on all four criteria, suggesting that the raters, regardless of the extent to which the endorsed traditional gender role stereotypes, rated employees on the basis of their performance and did not allow gender stereotypes to have an effect. This may be more or less likely to occur in an actual organization, where employees and their supervisors develop relationships and a number of other variables (such as office politics) impact performance ratings. Additionally, a number of measures, particularly for the criteria, suffered from range restriction and low reliability. This naturally would have made any effects, if they were present, more difficult to detect. Alternatively, it could be that the extent to which raters endorse traditional gender role stereotypes simply does not tend to moderate the relationships between employee gender and the criteria measures included in the current study.

In addition, the interaction of gender and absence did not have a significant effect on the four criteria. It was expected that men who missed work would experience greater reductions in their performance ratings, level of perceived organizational commitment, and perceived likelihood of performing altruism and generalized compliance OCBs relative to women who missed work, but the data did not support this hypothesis. The lack of evidence supporting this hypothesis could also be due, in part, to restriction of range and low reliability in the criteria

27

measures. It is also possible that participants failed to recognize whether the employees they were rating were men or women. It was expected that participants would be made aware of the gender of their employee as a result of the employee's name being included on the page containing the performance notes, and by the use of the terms "she", "her", "he", and "his". The name of the employees appeared just once, however, and this may not have been sufficient. No manipulation check related to the employee's gender was included, so testing of this possibility was not possible. Future researchers may want to make the gender of the employee more obvious, perhaps through inclusion of a photograph.

Finally, counter to what was expected, there was no support for an interaction of employee gender and reason for absence on perceptions. In other words, women who missed work for a masculine task did not receive lower ratings than those who missed work for a feminine task and men who missed work for a feminine task did not receive lower ratings than those who missed work for a masculine task. As previously stated, range restriction and low reliability of criteria measures may have contributed to these null findings. It is also possible that participants were aware of an absence when it occurred, but failed to register the employee's gender and the reason for the absence. Two manipulation check items related to the employee's reason for absence were included in the survey packets, and descriptive statistics of these items seem to support this notion. For those participants who rated employees who missed work to respond to a call from a teenage child whose car broke down, only 29.3% somewhat or strongly agreed with the statement "The employee missed work for a masculine task," which is less than the 37.9% who somewhat or strongly disagreed. More than half of these participants (53.4%), however, somewhat or strongly disagreed with the statement "The employee missed work for a feminine task." For participants who rated employees who missed work to supervise a child's

school field trip, only 23.2% somewhat or strongly agreed with the statement that "The employee missed work for a feminine task," which is also less than the 33.9% that somewhat or strongly disagreed. In addition, fewer than half of these participants (48.2%) somewhat or strongly disagreed with the statement that "The employee missed work for a masculine task."

A post-hoc analysis of the data obtained from participants who perceived the masculine task as masculine and those who perceived the feminine task as feminine was performed to determine if this subsample (for whom the manipulation was effective) would yield different results for Hypotheses 9a-c, as these were the only hypotheses which depended upon participants' perceptions of the masculinity and femininity of the tasks. Participants were included in the post-hoc analysis if they read a description of an employee (male or female) who missed work to respond to a call from a teenage child whose car broke down and indicated that they somewhat or strongly agreed with the statement "The employee missed work for a masculine task" and that they somewhat or strongly disagreed with the statement "The employee missed work for a feminine task" ($N = 8$). Participants were also included if they read a description of an employee (male or female) who missed work to supervise a school field trip and indicated that they somewhat or strongly agreed with the statement "The employee missed work for a feminine task" and that they somewhat or strongly disagreed with the statement "The employee missed work for a masculine task" ($N = 7$).

The regression analysis of the data provided by the 15 participants described above revealed that in the subsample, Hypothesis 9a was not supported, as the effect of gender role stereotype violation on performance appraisal ratings was not significant ($F(1,13) = .099, p > .05$). Hypothesis 9b, stating that violating a gender role stereotype would be negatively related to ratings of organizational commitment, was also not supported ($F(1,13) = 1.899, p > .05$). For

Hypothesis 9c, two separate regression analyses were performed, one with male employees (with the outcome variable of generalized compliance OCBs) and the other with female employees (with the outcome variable of altruism OCBs). The results of the post-hoc regression analyses revealed that the subsample data did not support the hypothesis that males who missed work for a feminine task would be perceived as less likely to perform generalized compliance OCBs ($F(1,5) = .647$, $p > .05$), or the hypothesis that females who missed work for a masculine task would be perceived as less likely to perform altruism OCBs ($F(1,6) = .306$, $p > .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 9c was not supported in the subsample. The inability to find an effect of gender role stereotype violation in these analyses was likely due at least in part to the small sample size.

The tasks were pretested to check for perceived masculinity and femininity, but in all cases a parent missed work to care for a child. Participants may view the care of a child as a parent's duty, and not particularly masculine or feminine. Future researchers may consider using tasks that are not family-related to determine if consequences of violating a gender role stereotype are more severe when it does not include caring for a family member.

Implications and Future Directions

In general, the results of this study should be reassuring to organizational leaders who desire performance ratings to reflect actual performance of rated employees. Employees who missed work legitimately received lower ratings of performance, perceived organizational commitment, and perceived likelihood of performing altruism and generalized compliance OCBs, and this did not differ between male and female employees. Employees who violated a gender role stereotype (males missing work for a feminine task and females missing work for a masculine task) during an absence were not rated significantly lower than those who did not violate a gender role stereotype, even by raters who strongly endorsed traditional gender role

stereotypes. This suggests that at least these particular raters did not allow their ratings to be influenced by factors irrelevant to the employees' actual performance.

The outcomes that were of interest in the current study (performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing OCBs) are likely influenced by factors outside of the employee's control in actual organizations. An employee who manufactures a product, for example, will see a decrease in the number of items manufactured if a machine malfunctions through no fault of the employee. Motowidlo (2003) suggested an emphasis on behaviors rather than outcomes, or results, when it comes to performance appraisal because specific behaviors are more completely under the employee's control. Future researchers may look at the effect of an employee's absence on the rater's perceptions or reflections of that employee's other work-related behaviors, rather than the effect on the rater's perceptions of the outcomes such as performance.

The fact that previous researchers have found a significant effect of the interaction between employee's gender and reason for absence on ratings (Allen & Russell, 1999; Butler & Skattebo, 2004; Wayne & Cordeiro, 2003) is still cause for concern, despite the fact that there was no evidence of an interaction in the current study. It is not clear why the current study was unable to replicate the findings of these previous researchers. More research will need to be conducted to determine if characteristics of the performance appraisal situation (i.e., in a lab as opposed to a field setting, etc.) and/or of the raters (i.e., with or without experience supervising and rating employees, and with or without having developed a relationship with the rated employee, etc.) may moderate the extent to which the interaction between gender and reason for absence influences ratings.

Employees should also be aware that although they may consider a single absence to be relatively minor, a single absence may be enough for supervisors and coworkers to modify their perceptions regarding the employee who missed work. Perceptions of the employee's performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing OCBs may all be affected. These perceptions, in turn, can affect employees' chances of receiving promotions and pay raises, ultimately impacting their career. Unfortunately, the design of this study does not allow us to draw any firm conclusions about the effects of a single absence. As previously stated (and discussed at length in the following section), the lower ratings for employees who had an absence may have been due to the generally more negative performance description, rather than to an absence per se. In addition, the note about an absence was one of just six notes provided to raters in this study, or nearly 17% of the performance information available to them. Raters in actual organizations would have a great deal more performance information, likely reducing the impact of an absence.

Strengths and Limitations

The current study had several strengths that are worthy of mentioning. Having undergraduate students read descriptions of employee performance and then rate the fictional employee on the various criteria allowed the variables of interest (employee sex, performance, attendance, and reason for absence) to be controlled and manipulated, increasing confidence in the internal validity of the conclusions drawn, though not all alternative explanations could be ruled out, as discussed below. This was consistent with the methodology of Butler and Skattebo (2004). Additionally, participants were told that the study was being conducted because the leaders of an actual organization were considering changes to their performance appraisal system. The results, participants were told, would have a direct effect on the new system. They

were also told that the descriptions of performance were provided by the supervisor of one of the organization's actual employees, and the rating items were made to look like the performance appraisal form of an actual organization. The methodology, including the deception of participants, was expected to contribute to the internal validity of the study. It is also important to note that even with the use of undergraduate students, more than half (55%) were employed, and nearly as many (44%) reported that they had supervised other employees (and presumably were responsible for evaluating those employees), either presently or at some point in the past. These participants were likely familiar with performance appraisal processes and with performance appraisal forms that were not all that different from the form used in the current study. This would suggest that their ratings may not differ substantially from ratings provided by supervisors in an actual organization, and make the findings of the current study more generalizable.

The data were reanalyzed using only responses of participants with supervisory experience, and revealed that in the subsample, the reliability of the performance appraisal scale improved to .66 (as compared to .56 for the whole sample) and the reliability of the organizational commitment scale improved to .67 (as compared to .63 for the whole sample). Additionally, the data of the supervisor subsample supported Hypothesis 6 (when the regression was run with the combined gender role stereotypes scale), which stated that the relationship between the ratee gender and altruism OCB ratings would be moderated by the extent to which the rater held traditional stereotypes, such that those with greater adherence to traditional stereotypes would rate women as more likely to perform altruism OCBs than men ($\beta = .488$, $p < .05$). Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3b (that employees who had an absence from work would receive lower performance ratings and be perceived as less committed to the organization and less likely to perform generalized compliance OCBs) were no longer significant with the subsample,

33

presumably due to the much smaller sample size ($N = 73$). All other results were similar for the supervisor subsample and the full sample.

Despite the numerous strengths of the current study, there are a number of limitations for the study as well. First, although participants who rated employees with an absence rated those employees lower than did participants who rated employees without an absence, the design of the study did not allow all possible alternative explanations to be ruled out. Employees with no absence had five performance "notes", three of which were positive and two of which were negative, while employees with an absence had one additional note stating that he or she missed work. This additional note gave employees with an absence three positive and three negative notes, making them generally more negative than employees in the no absence condition. This would have been the case as long as the sixth note was negative, regardless of whether it was for an absence, for being disrespectful of the store manager, for theft of the organization's cash or merchandise, etc. Therefore, it is possible that raters provided lower ratings simply because of the increased negativity of the overall performance description, rather than because of the absence in particular.

One way to avoid this limitation would have been to have identical performance descriptions for all conditions, with a brief note attached stating the number of absences and tardies for the quarter. Had this been done, the absence variable would have been isolated to a greater extent and any effect on ratings could more confidently have been attributed to an absence, rather than to a generally more negative performance description. The benefit of this method to researchers interested in the effect of absence is that it would allow for easy manipulation of the number of absences over the course of a specified amount of time. Unfortunately, this method would have made it much more difficult to manipulate the

masculinity or femininity of the reason for absence without raising suspicions regarding the truth of the cover story.

Another option would have been to add another condition in which the employee had no absence, but a sixth note was added which was negative in nature. This would have allowed for the comparison of ratings of employees with an absence to employees without an absence, when the overall valence of the performance description was more nearly equal. If the employees with an absence received lower ratings than employees without an absence, even when all employees had three negative and three positive notes in their performance description, it could be more confidently concluded that the absence was in fact what led to the reduced ratings.

Secondly, it is possible that the information regarding employees' absence was not sufficiently salient to have an effect. The vignettes for the absence conditions included six separate performance "notes" for the employee. It was not expected that this amount of information would be enough to obscure the absence, and the significant effects of absence on ratings of performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing OCBs (Hypotheses 1-3) suggests that participants were aware of an absence when it occurred. It is still possible, however, that participants were aware of the absence but did not register violations of gender role stereotypes, or that the manipulation was simply too weak to have an effect. Future researchers may check the strength of their manipulations by asking participants to write down what they recall about the employee's performance after they have given their ratings. If the participants do not recall the absence and/or the reason for absence, researchers may consider some modification to increase the salience of the manipulation. The vignettes were also written with the goal of describing an employee with average, or typical performance, as opposed to very poor or excellent performance. As a result, three positive notes were alternated with three

negative notes. It may be that the positive-negative-positive order of the performance notes seemed contrived to some participants. If so, the deception may have been ineffective and participants may not have taken as much care in responding as they might have, had they been more convinced of the cover story.

Thirdly, several of the measures appeared to suffer from range restriction and low reliability. This could have made relationships between absence and the criteria, should they exist, difficult to detect. This was particularly true of the measures of performance (with a coefficient alpha of .56), organizational commitment (with a coefficient alpha of .63), and generalized compliance OCBs (with a coefficient alpha of .61). It is unclear why the reliability estimates for the scales in these studies were as low as they were. Butler and Skattebo (2004), for example, reported a coefficient alpha of .73 for the same performance items. The difference may be due in part to the fact that the participants in Butler and Skattebo's study were industrial employees whose average age was 43. Their sample likely had more experience with employment and with performance appraisals. That is, despite almost half of the participants in the current study having supervised, and presumably rated other individuals, they may not have had enough exposure to such measures to conceptualize them in the same way as did the individuals in Butler and Skattebo's study. Future researchers may want to consider the use of other scales with more established psychometric properties. They may also consider writing vignettes more vaguely, to allow for greater variance in criteria measures such as performance.

Additionally, the measures of the gender role stereotypes were outdated. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1973) and the Status Norm Scale (Thompson and Pleck, 1986) were both developed more than two decades ago, and contain outdated items such as "It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn

socks" (Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1973). The dated nature of these items may have made it difficult for participants to fully understand their meaning, and to indicate their level of agreement with them. Other measures that might have been used instead, such as the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974), and the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996), which measures both hostile and benevolent sexism, were also rather old and/or measured constructs other than gender role stereotypes, which were of interest in this study. Future researchers may consider developing a new scale of gender role stereotypes.

Finally, the cost of increased internal validity is reduced external validity, and this was the case in the current study. While the methodology used allowed the isolation and manipulation of the variables of interest, psychology students rating "paper people" may not provide the same ratings as the supervisors and coworkers of actual employees. Even for raters with supervisory experience, evaluating one's actual employees would be very different than evaluating an employee which they have never met and for whom they are provided only limited performance information.

The failure of this study to replicate previous findings of an interaction between employee gender and reason for absence (Allen & Russell, 1999; Butler & Skattebo, 2004; Wayne & Cordeiro, 2003) indicates that this effect may be present in some situations but not others. Future research should attempt to identify specifics of the absence and the rater that may influence the salience and/or perceived relevance of the violation of a gender role stereotype to ratings of performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing OCBs. In addition, all three of the studies mentioned above utilized undergraduate students reading

vignettes. Future research might attempt a field study to determine if violating a gender role stereotype during an absence can affect ratings of actual employees in organizations.

Summary

The results of this study provide some evidence for the hypothesized effect of absence on ratings of performance, perceived organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing both altruism and generalized compliance OCBs, but not all alternative explanations could be discounted due to the design of the study. It was also believed that raters who strongly endorsed traditional gender role stereotypes would rate women lower on the four criteria than they would men, as compared to those who did not strongly endorse traditional gender role stereotypes. Results revealed, however, that the extent to which participants endorsed traditional gender role stereotypes did not moderate the relationships between employee gender and the various criteria. Finally, employees who missed work received lower ratings than those who did not, but (contrary to what was expected) men who had an absence were not penalized significantly more than women who had an absence, and there was no significant difference between those who violated a gender role stereotype during their absence and those who did not.

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Appendix A - Female Employee Missing Work for a Feminine Task

Performance notes for: Anne Woods

January 5, 2008: A delivery came to the store today during Anne's shift, and she signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008: Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Anne made good use of her time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008: A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Anne told him that she could not accept it, but she maintained her composure and remained pleasant with him.

March 14, 2008: Anne missed her shift today to help supervise a school field trip for one of her children. The timing could not have been worse, since this is the weekend of the big concert in town and we have been very busy with out-of-town customers.

April 2, 2008: In our meeting today Anne had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow her advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008: Anne left her cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Anne to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

Appendix B - Male Employee Missing Work for a Feminine Task

Performance notes for: Andrew Woods

January 5, 2008:   A delivery came to the store today during Andrew's shift, and he signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008:   Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Andrew made good use of his time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008:   A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Andrew told him that he could not accept it, but he maintained his composure and remained pleasant with him.

March 14, 2008:   Andrew missed his shift today to help supervise a school field trip for one of his children. The timing could not have been worse, since this is the weekend of the big concert in town and we have been very busy with out-of-town customers.

April 2, 2008:   In our meeting today Andrew had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow his advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008:   Andrew left his cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Andrew to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

Appendix C - Female Employee Missing Work for a Masculine Task

Performance notes for: Anne Woods

January 5, 2008: A delivery came to the store today during Anne's shift, and she signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008: Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Anne made good use of her time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008: A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Anne told him that she could not accept it, but she maintained her composure and remained pleasant with him.

March 14, 2008: Anne missed her shift today because one of her kids had a car break-down and she had to help make repairs. The timing could not have been worse, since this is the weekend of the big concert in town and we have been very busy with out-of-town customers.

April 2, 2008: In our meeting today Anne had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow her advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008: Anne left her cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Anne to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

Appendix D - Male Employee Missing Work for a Masculine Task

Performance notes for: Andrew Woods

January 5, 2008:   A delivery came to the store today during Andrew's shift, and he signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008:   Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Andrew made good use of his time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008:   A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Andrew told him that he could not accept it, but he maintained his composure and remained pleasant with him.

March 14, 2008:   Andrew missed his shift today because one of his kids had a car break-down and he had to help make repairs. The timing could not have been worse, since this is the weekend of the big concert in town and we have been very busy with out-of-town customers.

April 2, 2008:   In our meeting today Andrew had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow his advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008:   Andrew left his cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Andrew to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

Appendix E - Female Employee with no Absence from Work

Performance notes for: Anne Woods

January 5, 2008: A delivery came to the store today during Anne's shift, and she signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008: Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Anne made good use of her time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008: A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Anne told him that she could not accept it, but she maintained her composure and remained pleasant with him.

April 2, 2008: In our meeting today Anne had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow her advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008: Anne left her cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Anne to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

Appendix F - Male Employee with no Absence from Work

Performance notes for: Andrew Woods

January 5, 2008:   A delivery came to the store today during Andrew's shift, and he signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008:   Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Andrew made good use of his time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008:   A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Andrew told him that he could not accept it, but he maintained his composure and remained pleasant with him.

April 2, 2008:   In our meeting today Andrew had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow his advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008:   Andrew left his cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Andrew to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

Appendix G - Study Packet

To Whom It May Concern:

The management team at an Omaha retail organization is considering changes to their performance appraisal system. Before they make any changes, however, they would like to have an understanding of how ratings may be affected by the type of performance information available.

This study will be the first of several used to help the management decide whether changes in the performance appraisal process will be appropriate for their organization. While it is understood that you will not give exactly the same ratings as an employee's coworker, there are some general conclusions that may be drawn from a study of this kind.

Your participation in this study will be valuable to the retail organization and **will have a direct effect on the performance appraisal system that is used by the organization**. For this reason, it is imperative that you read the materials carefully and answer the questions thoughtfully and honestly. There are no wrong answers, as long as your answers reflect your true beliefs.

You will be provided with actual performance notes describing an employee at the organization over the past six months. After you read the performance information, you will be asked to rate that employee's performance, organizational commitment, and likelihood of performing certain kinds of helping behaviors. You should take the point-of-view of a coworker of the employee described in the vignette. When responding to items, please consider how you would think and feel if you were a coworker at the same level as the employee described (you are a peer, not a subordinate or a supervisor of the employee described).

Thank you for your assistance in this matter!
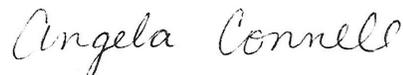
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Performance notes for: Andrew Woods

January 5, 2008: A delivery came to the store today during Andrew's shift, and he signed for it despite the fact that one of the boxes was badly damaged. This will create extra work for management, who now have to communicate with the manufacturer and take extra steps to return the shipment.

January 28, 2008: Today was a very slow day due to the snowstorm. Andrew made good use of his time by changing some of the displays in the store and addressing postcards to inform customers of the upcoming sale.

February 7, 2008: A customer came into the store today and tried to use a coupon that was issued by one of our competitors. He became irate when Andrew told him that he could not accept it, but he maintained his composure and remained pleasant with him.

March 14, 2008: Andrew missed his shift today because one of his kids had a car break-down and he had to help make repairs. The timing could not have been worse, since this is the weekend of the big concert in town and we have been very busy with out-of-town customers.

April 2, 2008: In our meeting today Andrew had some good suggestions for moving some of the merchandise in the store that hasn't been selling well by up-selling at the cash register. All of the cashiers will follow his advice, and we'll see if it has the desired effect.

May 29, 2008: Andrew left his cash register this morning to help a customer find an item, rather than paging an associate to direct the customer. Another customer who was ready to check out had to wait several minutes for Andrew to return and became frustrated to the point of leaving the store without his items.

| ___ Appointment
___ Reappointment
___ Change of Status
___ Separation/Termination | **HARRIS HOMETOWN**

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL |

I **PERSONAL INFORMATION**	
	_____ _____ _____ _____ Employee Name Last First Middle Social Security Number
	_____ _____ _____ _____ Address Sreet City State Zip Date of Birth
	_____ _____ _____ Highest Education Level Completed Position Store Number and City

II **EVALUATOR INFORMATION**	
	_____ _____ _____ _____ Evaluator Name Last First Middle Social Security Number

III **ATTENDANCE**	Initial
	_____ _____ _____ _____ Number of Tardies Number of Excused Absences Number of Unexcused Absences

IV **PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL**	**The employee is an excellent performer.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ **The employee should NOT be considered for a promotion.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ **The employee handles crisis situations effectively.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ **Please mark the statement that best describes the employee.** ☐ Poor Performer ☐ Needs Improvement ☐ Meets Expectations ☐ Exceeds Expectations ☐ Outstanding Performer _____
V **ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**	**The employee appears willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to make the organization successful.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ **The employee appears loyal toward the organization.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ **The employee really cares about the fate of the organization.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ **It would take a lot of change in the employee's present circumstances to cause him/ her to leave the organization.** ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____

V ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT	The values of the employee and the organization appear to be congruent. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ The employee would probably accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for the organization. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ The employee feels a strong sense of belonging to the organization. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ The employee would be very happy to spend the rest of his/her career with this firm. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ Too much in the employee's life would be disrupted if he/she decided he/she wanted to leave the organization now. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____ The employee probably feels that he/she has too few career options to consider leaving the organization. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Somewhat Disagree ☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐ Strongly Agree _____
VI CITIZENSHIP	How likely is it that this employee would **help a coworker with a difficult project?** ☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely ☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____ How likely is it that this employee would **always be available to help others in his/her team do their jobs more effectively?** ☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely ☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____ How likely it is it that this employee would **help orient new coworkers even though it is not required?** ☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely ☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____ How likely is it that this employee would **help other coworkers who have been absent?** ☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely ☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

VI CITIZENSHIP	How likely it is it that this employee would **offer emotional support to coworkers in times of trouble?**

How likely it is it that this employee would **offer emotional support to coworkers in times of trouble?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely is it that this employee would **make him/herself available to coworkers to discuss any personal or professional problems?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely do you think it is that this employee would **never miss a day of work?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely do you think it is that this employee would **be punctual to work?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely is it that this employee would **have better attendance than most employees?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely is it that this employee would **come to work early if needed?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely is it that this employee would **be absent more than most employees?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely is it that this employee would **work overtime when it is necessary?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

How likely is it that this employee would **not spend time on personal calls?**

☐ Extremely Unlikely ☐ Moderately Unlikely ☐ Somewhat Unlikely
☐ Neither Likely Nor Unlikely
☐ Somewhat Likely ☐ Moderately Likely ☐ Extremely Likely _____

VII SIGNATURES	
	_____ _____
	Employee Date
	_____ _____
	Supervisor Date

Ratings of Performance, Organizational Commitment, and OCBs

Please answer the following questions:

1. Sex: ☐ Male   **2. Race:** ☐ African-American/Black
           ☐ Female   ☐ Asian
                                          ☐ Hispanic
                                          ☐ Native American
                                          ☐ White

3. Age: _____   ☐ Other _____

4. If employed, where do you work? _____

5. What is your position or title? _____

6. How many hours per week do you work, on average? _____

7. Do you have any supervisory experience? ☐ Currently Supervise other Employees
                                                       ☐ Have Previously Supervised other Employees
                                                       ☐ No Experience Supervising other Employees

12. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements:	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree nor Disagree	Neither Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
a. The employee gets along well with the boss.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. The employee missed work for a masculine task.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I felt sympathetic towards this employee.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. The employee has a spouse and children.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. The employee missed work for a family matter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. The employee makes work a priority over family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. I would feel sorry for one of my coworkers if they were in the same situation as this employee.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
h. The employee is irresponsible.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
i. The employee missed work for a feminine task.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
j. I would not want to trade places with this employee, because that is a bad situation to be in.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you very much!

Appendix H - Status Norm Scale (Thompson & Pleck, 1986)

Instructions: Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

Response options: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, somewhat agree, strongly agree

1. Success in his work has to be man's central goal in this life.

2. The best way for a young man to get the respect of other people is to get a job, take it seriously, and do it well.

3. A man owes it to his family to work at the best-paying job he can get.

4. A man should generally work overtime to make more money whenever he has the chance.

5. A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children.

6. It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who knows him.

7. A man should never back down in the face of trouble.

8. I always like a man who's totally sure of himself.

9. A man should always think everything out coolly and logically, and have rational reasons for everything he does.

10. A man should always try to project an air of confidence even if he really doesn't feel confident inside.

11. A man must stand on his own two feet and never depend on other people to help him do things.

Appendix I - Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973)

Instructions: Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

Response options: strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, slightly disagree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly agree, somewhat agree, strongly agree

1. Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than of a man.

2. Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day. (R)

3. Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce. (R)

4. Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.

5. Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among women.

6. Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry. (R)

7. It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service. (R)

8. There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex. (R)

9. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage. (R)

10. Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

11. Women earning as much as their dates should bear equally the expense when they go out together. (R)

12. Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men. (R)

13. A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.

14. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.

15. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.

16. In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.

17. Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone before marriage, even their fiancés.

18. The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income. (R)

19. Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.

20. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.

21. Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men. (R)

22. On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to economic production than are men.

23. There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.

24. Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades. (R)

25. The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given

   to the modern boy. (R)

*Note—(R) indicates that the item was reverse-scored.

Appendix J - Footnotes

[1]Although these behaviors have traditionally been referred to as "altruism OCBs", it may be more accurate to refer to them as "prosocial OCBs", as the term "prosocial" does not include any implication as to the helper's motives, while "altruism" implies that the helper helps solely to improve the situation of the individual who is helped. Altruism can be conceptualized as one end of a motivation scale, with egoism at the opposite end. "To the degree that helping is directed toward the ultimate goal of enhancing the other's welfare… it can be said to be *alfruistically* motivated. To the degree that helping is directed toward the ultimate goal of enhancing the helper's own welfare, either through providing rewards (e.g., self-esteem, a star in one's crown) or avoiding punishments (e.g., guilt, hellfire), it can be said to be *egoistically* motivated" (Batson, et al., 1989, p. 873). In the interest of keeping with terminology of the OCB literature, the term "altruism" is used in this paper.

[2] A post-hoc power analysis using the G*Power 3 program (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) revealed that a sample size of 89 would provide power of .86 to detect a medium-sized effect with alpha at .05 and three predictors (main effects of employee gender and rater gender role stereotypes, as well as the interaction) in the regression. Therefore, the smaller sample size for testing hypotheses including gender role stereotypes due to missing data should not have prevented the detection of significant effects.