

THE EFFECTS OF LEADER MOTIVATING LANGUAGE ON SUBORDINATE PERFORMANCE AND SATISFACTION

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This article bridges theory and practice to show that superiors' use of Sullivan's (1988) "motivating language theory" correlates significantly with subordinates' performance and job satisfaction. In brief, Sullivan hypothesized that superiors' use of motivating language (including (1) perlocutionary or direction-giving, (2) illocutionary or sharing feelings, and (3) locutionary or explaining culture) would have positive impact on key worker productivity and process outcomes including performance and job satisfaction. This theory was tested by the authors using a LISREL analysis and found to be true.

Introduction

Extensive research has shown the importance of a leader's oral communication skills to successful outcomes (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986; Robbins, 1993). For decades, implicitly or explicitly, management theorists have identified leader communication as a key means for improving worker motivation. For example, the Ohio State studies emphasized two key leader dimensions, consideration and initiating structure, which are often expressed in verbal language (Robbins, 1993). Furthermore, clear expression of the link between performance and rewards has been the basis for the expectancy and path-goal models of motivation and leadership models (Arnold, 1981; Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen, 1973; Keller, 1989). Equally important, recent studies have begun to explicitly investigate the motivational impact of a leader's spoken language on employee performance, affect, and career advancement (Conger, 1991; Fairhurst & Chandler, 1989; & Waldron, 1991).

The relationship between leader verbal skills and outcomes is clearly embodied within the motivating language model (Sullivan, 1988). In brief, this theory predicts that strategic applications of leader oral communication have positive measurable effects on subordinate performance and job satisfaction.

These suppositions are credible and could pave the way to important insights about leader behavior. Our test of Sullivan's predictions also satisfies the dual criteria for relevant research in organizational communication—specifically, relating current theory to pragmatic organizational issues and responding to the needs of business practitioners (Smeltzer, 1993). Unfortunately, the model has not yet been satisfactorily operationalized. For these reasons, this article presents a study conducted to test the motivating language model. First, we define motivating language theory more explicitly. Then we discuss measures used to collect relevant data. Next, a model is introduced to test the theory's core hypotheses. Finally, results and future implications are discussed.

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Theory and Hypotheses

Management and social sciences literatures have often discussed the hypothesized link between a leader's language and key outcomes. To date, the majority of this work is theoretical. Within this stream, Daft and Wiginton (1979) observed that high variety, verbal language is a tool for managerial control. In addition, Gronn (1983) presented an instructive ethnographic language analysis of how a school principal maintained dominance through the deliberate use of talk.

While Gronn's study tested more than communication theory, it also succeeded in operationalizing a number of underlying premises about the language of leaders. Based on a coding system for recorded talk, Gronn observed that educational administrators deliberately chose words to both tighten and loosen the grip of control on subordinates—a direct reference to Weick's loosely coupled systems (Weick, 1979a; 1979b). Furthermore, Gronn speculated that leaders could improve their performance by analyzing recorded conversations with subordinates.

Language has not been described as merely a mechanism for leadership control. Conger (1991) saw language as a means of motivating and conveying strategic vision to subordinates. In addition, oral communication has been modeled as both a form of managerial influence and mitigation (Drake & Moberg, 1986).

Management literature does not assume that these linguistic skills are innate. Prior studies suggest that leaders can be trained to improve their language with significantly and positively related changes in such subordinate outcomes as productivity, overall job satisfaction, loyalty to one's superior, and reduction in job stress variables (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen, Scandura, & Graen, 1986; Graen & Scandura, 1987). Specific interventions included conversational training objectives in (1) performance and goal clarification and, (2) empathy, in the forms of active listening and attempts to respond to the subordinate's experience while sharing one's own (the leader's, in this case). Clearly, these objectives reflected the consideration and initiating structure constructs from the Ohio State studies and related theoretical perspec-

tives (Daft, 1988; Yukl, 1989). Moreover, spoken language was the critical transmission of behavioral intent despite the important role that relational context (the leader-member exchange model [Graen & Cashman, 1975]) played in these studies.

Building from similar insights, Sullivan (1988) conceptualized motivating language, a model of effective leadership speech. This "strategic talk" has the goal of bridging the distance between leader intent and employee understanding to favorably influence employee outcomes. Motivating language is relatively simple yet firmly based in widely accepted leadership and communication theories. In brief, motivating language theory (ML) hypothesizes that deliberate variance in leader speech can be used as a motivational tool to help employees meet desired organizational and personal objectives. The strategic variance in leader language is rooted with three universal types of speech acts or "the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication . . . where language takes the form of 'rules governed, intentional behavior'" (Searle, 1969, p. 16). It is important to note that ML only explains subordinate responses to superior-initiated language and not the counterpart (i.e., comparable superior responses to subordinate-initiated language).

In defining the ML model, the three types of speech acts were conceptualized by Sullivan (1988) as the following:

1. *Perlocutionary* language is *direction-giving* and uncertainty reducing. Sullivan (1988) hypothesized that when language minimized worker role and task ambiguity, performance and job satisfaction would increase. This type of speech act is similar to the structure dimension of the Ohio State and path-goal theories (Yukl, 1989). A form of direction-giving speech occurs when a boss clarifies tasks, goals, and rewards to an employee.
2. *Illocutionary* language occurs when a leader is willing to share his or her affect with a subordinate. Unlike assignment clarification, illocutionary language is an expression of humanity. This form of speech act occurs when a manager compliments a

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worker for a job well done. In some respects, this form of speech act parallels the consideration dimension of a number of major leadership theories including the previously cited path-goal and Ohio State studies (Daft, 1988; Yukl, 1989).

3. *Locutionary or meaning-making* language happens when a leader explains the organization's cultural environment to a worker, including its structure, rules, and values. Locutionary language also alerts worker sense-making to incorporate cultural norms (Sullivan, 1988). Frequently, meaning-making language is indirectly transmitted with metaphorical stories and rumors (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). For instance, the advice that "Even the President started in the mailroom" could be interpreted as "Everyone is expected to pay his or her dues here." Management researchers have tied the importance of cultural transmission with key process and performance outcomes (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Deal & Kennedy, 1982).

In sum, cultural meaning-making in combination with direction-giving and empathetic speech are the principal components of ML. Furthermore, the presence of meaning-making language within this combination distinguishes ML from most leader speech theories.

Motivating language theory draws from a few more primary assumptions. First, the three basic speech acts represent most verbal expressions that can occur in leader-worker talk. Second, leader behavior strongly influences the effect of motivating language on subordinate outcomes (Sullivan, 1988; J. Sullivan, personal communication, March 3, 1992). Subordinates rely more on behavioral messages than speech when the two are incongruent (Dulek & Fielden, 1990; Goffman, 1959; Ober, 1992). Talk is viewed as cheap when it conflicts with actions. Subordinates view the leader's speech as part of a behavioral framework, and motivating language is only a part of this framework.

Motivating language's third basic assump-

tion is linked to the expectation that workers give actions greater credence than they do verbal communications. Leader communication is a dyadic process. Consistent with the interpretive perspective (Putnam, 1983), worker perceptions determine whether the leader's language is in fact motivating. A worker must understand the leader's intended message to achieve ML's inferred goal of mutual sense-making between boss and employee.

The theory's fourth assumption is that all three types of speech form an integral whole. Sullivan makes this aspect of motivating language clear when he states that leaders must use a combination of all three speech acts in order to gain the full benefit of motivating language. Under this assumption, motivating language use cannot be piecemeal. The full power of motivating language will only be realized by managers adept in all three speech acts. As such, the three types of speech can be seen as reflecting an underlying construct of leader motivating language ability (Sullivan, 1988; J. Sullivan, personal communication, March 3, 1992). Sullivan's theory is also supported by such work as Pincus' (1986) study, which shows strong empirical relationships between different aspects of leader communication.

Hypotheses

As stated earlier, ML is important because it links strategic leader communication with the key employee outcomes of performance and job satisfaction. These predictions lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant and positive relationship between a leader's use of motivating language and a subordinate's performance.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant and positive relationship between a leader's use of motivating language and a subordinate's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The latent motivating language variable is significantly reflected through the measures of direction giving, empathetic, and meaning-making language.

Talk is viewed as cheap when it conflicts with actions.

Methods

Procedures and Sample

The sample used for this initial test of ML outcomes consisted of the nursing staff in a large government health care facility located in the southeastern United States. This organization has a stated objective to improve worker satisfaction and efficiency through an ongoing commitment to continuous quality improvement. The organization also has decided that improving communication throughout the facility and especially within the nursing staff is a major means of achieving this goal, which is in line with Barbour's (1996) work with improving health care facilities.

We surveyed workers through a written questionnaire distributed at the worksite. Each subordinate rated his or her supervisor's use of motivating language and his or her own level of job satisfaction. In turn, the superiors rated subordinates' job performance. We then matched superior and subordinate responses through identifying codes given by the workers. We provided all necessary information through both written and oral instructions.

First, we met personally with all supervisors and available subordinates to give verbal instructions and answer any subsequent questions about the survey. In addition, we provided all respondents with written directions included with their surveys. We took special care to assure all subjects of strict response confidentiality. Respondents returned their surveys to a designated secure central location.

Our response rate compared favorably to the norm for self-administered questionnaires, approximately 44 percent (Cooper & Emory, 1995; Edwards, Thomas, Rosenfeld, & Booth-Kewley, 1997). The total sample group consisted of approximately 450 nurses. These workers returned 198 surveys. From these surveys, we were forced to discard 34 due to insufficient information, leaving 164 usable surveys. Within this group, 151 are worker surveys and 13 (out of 25) are supervisor surveys. Our final response rate was 34 percent of the superior-subordinate dyads.

We next met with top organizational officials (the head of nurses and the human resources vice president) to see if our sample appeared to be representative of the institu-

tion as a whole. After we discussed the sample's demographic and performance characteristics, these officials determined that there were no apparent differences between our sample and the hospital's population. We were not able to make direct comparisons between motivating language use and job satisfaction since these characteristics are not generally surveyed at the institution.

Our sample's demographic breakdown seems to be consistent with most nursing organizations. The majority of respondents were women, with 68.9 percent of the subordinates and 84.6 percent of the superiors classifying themselves as female. Most respondents classified themselves as caucasian, with 64.4% and 69.2 percent of the subordinates and superiors choosing this category. Also, the majority of both superiors (92.3 percent) and subordinates (71.9 percent) had at least a college education.

Model

We tested our hypotheses using a structural equation model analysis (Hair, Anderson, & Tatham, 1987). We based model specifications on our preceding hypotheses and motivating language theory, as conceptualized by Sullivan (1988), and further developed by Mayfield (1993) and Mayfield, Mayfield, and Kopf (1994; 1995). **Figure 1** gives a graphic representation of this model.

Sullivan hypothesized a single latent factor representing a superior's individualized use of motivating language. Sullivan also theorized that the latent motivating language factor could be wholly captured through the measurement of three observable factors; namely, the indicants of direction-giving, empathetic, and meaning-making language. The body of literature associated with motivating language clearly states that a leader's use of motivating language should affect worker performance and satisfaction outcomes. If these suppositions are true, the latent motivating language factor should be significantly and positively linked with measures of a worker's performance and job satisfaction.

Measures

All measures of motivating language showed

The organization also has decided that improving communication throughout the facility and especially within the nursing staff is a major means of achieving this goal.

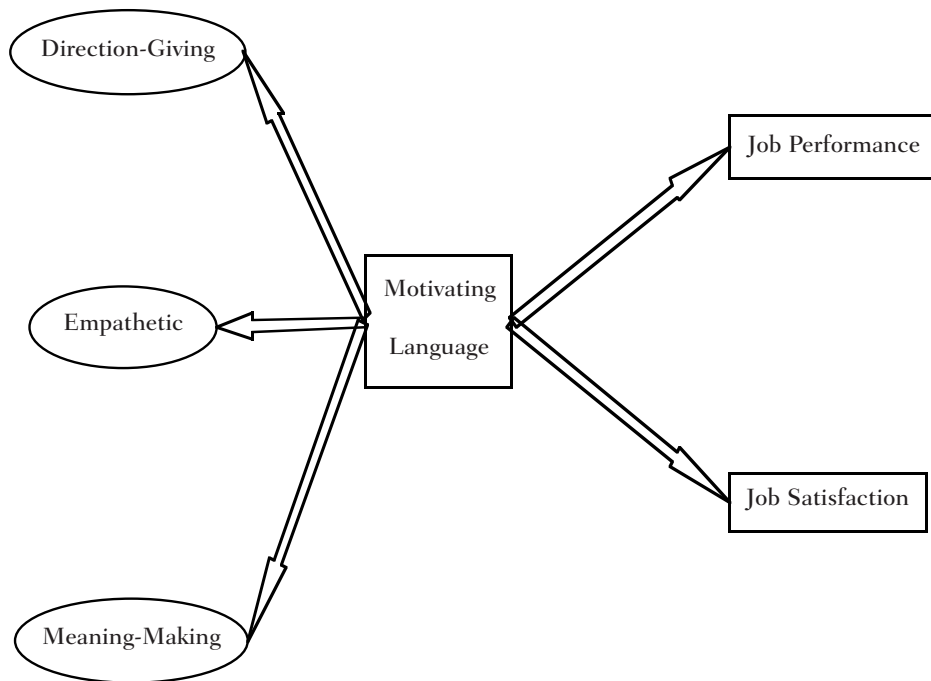


FIGURE 1. Hypothesized motivating language model with outcomes.

high levels of reliability (Churchill, 1979). Direction-giving language had a reliability of .95; empathetic language had a reliability of .97; and meaning-making language had a reliability of .93. We used the Employee Rating Scale to measure worker performance (Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1976), and the Hoppock scale (Hoppock, 1935) to measure job satisfaction. Both of these scales are widely adopted to measure worker performance and satisfaction in leader/subordinate research (Cashman, et al., 1976; Robbins, 1993). These scales had reliabilities of .96 and .71, respectively, in our study. Further information on the study measures is presented in **Table I**.

Results

We tested our model using covariance analysis techniques, also known as structural equation modeling. This strategy assesses both how well our model fits our data and the strength of the variable's relations. We used the statistical software package PC LISREL 7.16 to perform the actual analysis. This software package provides three widely accepted tests

of a model's overall fit. The package also calculates estimates of the variable relationships.

We tested the overall fit of the model through a general goodness-of-fit index, a chi-square analysis, and the root mean residual analysis. The goodness-of-fit index ranges between a low of 0 and a high of 1. Joreskog and Sorbom (1989) suggest that a good fit is indicated by an index above .90. In LISREL analysis, there are two ways of interpreting the chi-square analysis. The traditional way is that a significant result indicates a model that differs from the observed data (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). Alternately, Wheaton and his colleagues suggest that the chi-square test indicates a good model-to-data fit when the ratio of the chi-square statistic to its degrees of freedom is five or less (Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin, & Summers, 1977). Finally, the root mean residual should be less than .05 to indicate a good fit between model and data (Fulk, 1993; Hughes, Price, & Marrs, 1986; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989).

Results show a good fit between the hypothesized model and the data. There is an overall adjusted goodness-of-fit index of .975

TABLE I Descriptive Measures and Correlations of Analysis Scales.*

	<i>Job Sat</i>	<i>Perf</i>	<i>Dir</i>	<i>Emp</i>	<i>Mean</i>
Job Satisfaction	.71				
Worker Performance	.13	.96			
Direction-Giving Language	.43	.16	.95		
Empathetic Language	.44	.22	.85	.97	
Meaning-Making Language	.34	.13	.64	.62	.93
Scale Mean	4.19	3.81	3.54	3.61	2.19
Standard Deviation	.84	1.02	1.00	1.05	1.11
Questions in Scale	4	6	5	5	4

*Reliabilities on the diagonals.

and an unadjusted goodness-of-fit index of .993. The chi-square test shows no significant difference in the predicted model and the model derived from the data. The chi-square result is 2.55 with 4 degrees of freedom for a *p-value* of .636. The ratio of chi-square value to degrees of freedom also falls within the acceptable range for a good model of the data. Finally, the root mean square residual of .013 indicates a good fit of data to model.

We also tested hypotheses about individual model parameters using LISREL. Specifically, we used *t-tests* of the links between the model's parameters and examined the standardized path coefficients of these links. We used the *t-tests* to test for significant relationships between the latent and observable measures. Examining path coefficients helps us determine the relative effect of each variable.

Our analysis supports the hypotheses about the relationships between the individual variables and the predictive power of motivating language theory. *T-tests* indicate significant relationships between the latent ML factor and subordinates' job performance and satisfaction. The results presented in **Table II** support predictions that a leader's motivating language use significantly improves a worker's performance and job satisfaction.

Further insights arise from examination of the standardized path coefficients (presented in **Figure 2**). A leader's use of motivating language appears to very strongly influence a worker's job satisfaction (with a path coefficient of .67) and less strongly, though signifi-

cantly, a worker's performance (with a path coefficient of .22). In practical terms, for every 10% increase in a leader's motivating language use we can expect an approximate 7% increase in worker job satisfaction and a 2% increase in worker performance.

We should, however, view the relationship between ML and job satisfaction with some caution. This relationship may be somewhat inflated due to common methods variance. Although we do not expect such inflation to be great, we must wait until further studies are performed before fixing the exact relationship.

Motivating language itself appears to be most strongly affected by a leader's direction-giving language (with a path coefficient of .93) and empathetic factors (with a path coefficient of .92), and slightly less strongly represented

TABLE II Results from Lisrel Analysis Lisrel Estimates of Path Coefficients and *t-tests*.

	<i>Exogenous Variable</i>	<i>Path Coefficient to Latent Variable</i>	<i>t-test*</i>
<i>Independent</i>	Direction-Giving	.93	14.16
	Empathetic	.92	14.05
	Meaning-Making	.68	9.25
<i>Dependent</i>	Performance	.22	2.48
	Job Satisfaction	.67	5.92

*All *t-tests* are significant at the .05 level.

The results presented in **Table II** support predictions that a leader's motivating language use significantly improves a worker's performance and job satisfaction.

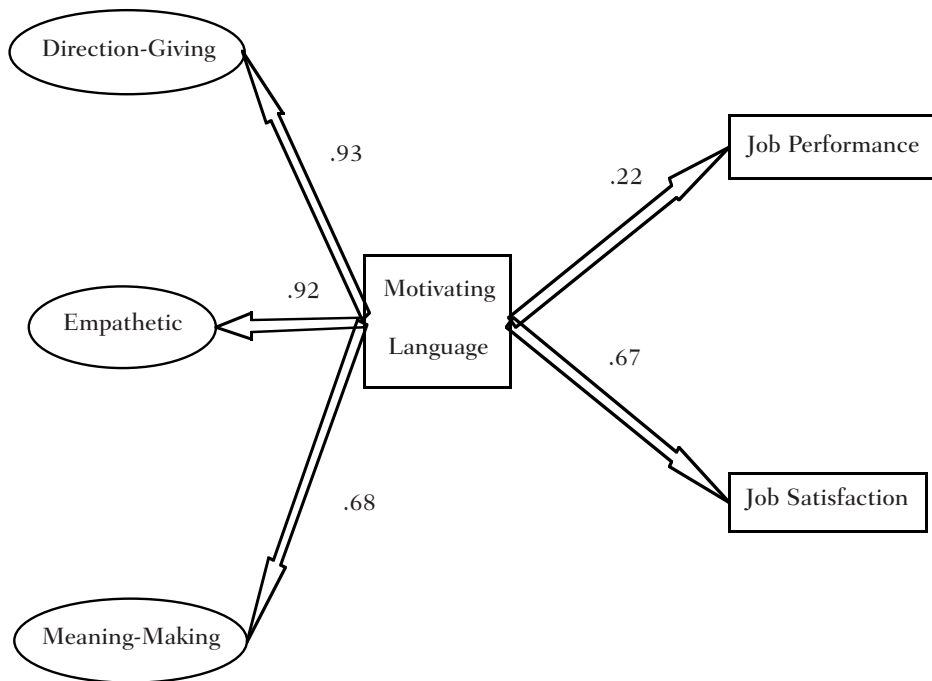


FIGURE 2. Motivating language model with standardized path coefficients.

by the meaning-making factor, with a path coefficient of .68. One possible limitation in these findings is that meaning-making language use may be most prevalent during the early phase of the leader-worker relationship and times of cultural change. If so, we may not be fully capturing meaning-making language’s full strength. Future research should explore this relationship through longitudinal methods.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study found that motivating language theory (Sullivan, 1988) appears to be significantly and positively related to better worker outcomes, specifically in measures of worker performance and job satisfaction. These results give rise to important management and theoretical implications. This section will explore these inferences and conclude with suggestions for future research in ML. Implications for human resource managers are also summarized in Table III.

First, motivating language shows poten-

tial as a diagnostic and remedial training tool. The need for leader training in communications is well documented throughout management literature. Graen and Scandura (1986; 1987) found that leader conversational training interventions were followed by improved subordinate ratings of productivity, overall job satisfaction, loyalty to immediate supervisor, and reduced stress levels. Similar findings were reported again by Graen, Scandura, and Graen (1986). Leader-subordinate communication studies also reveal that distinct forms of leader communication, such as informational, have strong positive effects on subordinate job satisfaction and performance outcomes (Pettit, Goris, & Vaught, 1997; Pincus, 1986).

Training in these particular forms of language should support managers’ ability to guide employees toward goal attainment. Motivating language may expand this contribution since it adds a third dimension, cultural sense-making, to previous dual factor models for leader communication-uncertainty reducing and people-oriented language (Sullivan, 1988).

Leader-subordinate communication studies also reveal that distinct forms of leader communication, such as informational, have strong positive effects on subordinate job satisfaction and performance outcomes

TABLE III Implications for HR.

1. Our study shows the important role that leader communication plays in a worker's performance and job satisfaction. It also provides a framework for diagnosing and improving leader communications.
2. The motivating language framework categorizes all leader-worker communications into three practical and all-inclusive categories. These three categories are direction-giving, relationship-building (empathetic language), and cultural transmission (meaning-making language).
3. Each type of communication has its role, but leaders should be able to appropriately use all three forms of communication to maximize worker outcomes.
4. The first two types of language, direction-giving and relationship-building, will most often be used in day-to-day leader-worker interactions. Cultural transmission language plays its greatest role during times of organizational entry, change, and uncertainty.
5. Direction-giving language is used to reduce worker uncertainty over work role expectations.
6. Relationship building language is used to develop interpersonal bonds between a leader and a worker.
7. Cultural transmission language is used to help a worker understand why activities are done in an organization as well as how to do the activities. This type of language also helps workers to understand acceptable work behaviors in an organization.
8. The motivating-language scale can be used as a powerful and simple diagnostic tool to analyze a leader's communication skills. Organizations can develop appropriate training programs to improve desired outcomes after a leader's language skill levels are assessed.

Second, the training potential for motivating language may be increased with future research about ML theory applications. ML research is still in the preliminary stages and new multidimensional research designs could adopt the two purposes of testing the model's influence over time as well as its effectiveness as a training intervention. A longitudinal design could advance research on ML and its relationship to key dependent variables. In this setting, ML interventions could be measured among comparison groups. These comparison groups could be drawn from managers trained in all three types of motivating language, managers trained in only one or two types of motivating language, and those who have not been trained (i.e., the control group).

Sullivan (1988) proposed this type of research as a means of scale refinement and of identifying the most effective levels of motivating language. In addition, these results could be compared with findings from similar studies that are dual-factor based, such as the relational/informational dimensions in Pincus (1986), to determine if the three-dimensional structure of ML is unique. Moreover, this research may better define ML by clarifying whether the model has one underlying factor, as hypothesized by Sullivan (1988), or three.

The preceding tests for more effective applications of motivating language can open the path to diagnostic use. This research can help to pinpoint organizational settings that

stand to gain the most benefit from ML training and practice. A large body of organizational communication literature treats the role of language meaning in context (Putnam & Pacanowsky, 1983). Future research can refine the ML scale and promote its utility to target communication deficiencies in organizations as management development feedback.

This tool could be especially valuable to an organization in the throes of cultural change. Leaders in change settings may realize benefits in both worker performance and job satisfaction from using greater proportions of meaning-making language. Similarly, meaning-making language may be recommended for broader use during organizational entry and cross-cultural training programs.

Potential applications of ML also depend on generalizability and whether the rewards found with leader-subordinate communications translate to group and organizational levels. To date, tests have relied on predominantly white female professional employees. Additional samples that represent a more diverse work force will be required to advocate widespread ML applications. Correspondingly, initial research supports ML's value in dyadic relations. More studies will be needed to measure ML's benefits in group and organizational contexts. Nevertheless, researchers can gain meaningful insights and potential new applications for managers from tests in these settings, particularly in today's team-oriented work place.

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In addition, ML theory raises possible training and feedback applications in emerging fields such as telecommuting and network-based communications. Reinsch's research (1997) suggests that manager-subordinate relational quality tends to deteriorate over time with telecommuting arrangements. Managers in these settings must place greater reliance on the written word. Likewise, telecommuting employees do not have as many behavioral cues with which to build trust in their supervisors. ML has the potential to mediate these

problems if it can be applied effectively in electronic communications.

In conclusion, all suggestions for future directions must be tempered with the situational factors in which ML is used. ML will be most beneficial when it is strategically integrated with a compatible set of leader behaviors, organizational objectives, and culture. Communication will only get leaders so far, and communication that is sustained by individual and organizational behavior (including rewards) will get leaders farther.

Appendix

Scales Used in Study

A. Motivating Language Scale

The examples below show different ways that your boss might talk to you. Please choose the answer that best matches your perceptions. Be sure to mark only one answer for each question.

A Whole Lot	(WL)
A Lot	(A)
Some	(S)
Little	(L)
Very Little	(VL)

DIRECTION-GIVING/UNCERTAINTY REDUCING LANGUAGE

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 1. Gives me useful explanations of what needs to be done in my work. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 2. Offers me helpful directions on how to do my job. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 3. Provides me with easily understandable instructions about my work. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 4. Offers me helpful advice on how to improve my work. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 5. Gives me good definitions of what I must do in order to receive rewards. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 6. Gives me clear instructions about solving job-related problems. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 7. Offers me specific information on how I am evaluated. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 8. Provides me with helpful information about forthcoming changes affecting my work. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 9. Provides me with helpful information about past changes affecting my work. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 10. Shares news with me about organizational achievements and financial status. | VL | L | S | A | WL |

EMPATHETIC LANGUAGE

- | | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|----|
| 11. Gives me praise for my good work. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 12. Shows me encouragement for my work efforts. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 13. Shows concern about my job satisfaction. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 14. Expresses his/her support for my professional development. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 15. Asks me about my professional well-being. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 16. Shows trust in me. | VL | L | S | A | WL |

MEANING-MAKING LANGUAGE

- | | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 17. Tells me stories about key events in the organization's past. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 18. Gives me useful information that I couldn't get through official channels. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 19. Tells me stories about people who are admired in my organization. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 20. Tells me stories about people who have worked hard in this organization. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 21. Offers me advice about how to behave at the organization's social gatherings. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 22. Offers me advice about how to "fit in" with other members of this organization. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 23. Tells me stories about people who have been rewarded by this organization. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
| 24. Tells me stories about people who have left this organization. | VL | L | S | A | WL |
-

B. Job Satisfaction

For each question please check the response you feel is most appropriate.

1. Choose the ONE statement which best tells how well you like your job. Place check mark in front of that statement:
 - I hate it
 - I dislike it
 - I don't like it
 - I am indifferent to it
 - I like it
 - I am enthusiastic about it
 - I love it

 2. Check one of the following to show HOW MUCH OF THE TIME you feel satisfied with your job:
 - All the time
 - Most of the time
 - A good deal of the time
 - About half of the time
 - Occasionally
 - Seldom
 - Never

 3. Check the ONE statement which best tells how you feel about changing your job:
 - I would quit this job at once if I could get anything else to do
 - I would take almost any other job in which I could earn as much as I am earning now
 - I would like to change both my job and my occupation
 - I would like to exchange my present job for another job in the same line of work
 - I am not eager to change my job, but I would do so if I could get a better job
 - I cannot think of any jobs for which I would exchange mine
 - I would not exchange my job for any other

 4. Check one of the following statements to show how you think you compare with other people:
 - No one likes their work better than I like mine
 - I like my work much better than most people like theirs
 - I like my work better than most people like theirs
 - I like my work about as well as most people like theirs
 - I dislike my work more than most people dislike theirs
 - I dislike my work much more than most people dislike theirs
 - No one dislikes his work more than I dislike mine
-

C. Employee Rating Scale

The scale below gives a list of adjectives related to how well workers perform their jobs. Please rate each of your workers in each of the following six categories.

All of your responses will remain confidential, so please answer all questions as accurately as possible.

Subordinate's name: _____

Satisfactory = 1
 Fair = 2
 Good = 3
 Very Good = 4
 Outstanding = 5

	Satisfactory	Fair	Good	Very Good	Outstanding
1. Dependability	1	2	3	4	5
2. Alertness	1	2	3	4	5
3. Planning	1	2	3	4	5
4. Know-how and Judgement	1	2	3	4	5
5. Overall Present Performance	1	2	3	4	5
6. Expected Future Performance	1	2	3	4	5

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ENDNOTE

We thank two anonymous reviewers for their insights and work commenting on our paper. Their assistance helped us clarify our ideas and provided new ways of looking at our work. We also thank Dr. James Cashman and Dr. Ron Dulek for their help during this work's formative stages. A note of special thanks must also be given to Dr. Jerrimiah Sullivan who developed the original theory on which motivating language is based.