WHAT ABOUT THE SUPERVISOR?
THE ROLE OF SUPERVISOR IMPLICIT PERSON THEORY
AND BEHAVIORS IN APPRAISAL INTERVIEWS

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ABSTRACT

Supervisors are the primary drivers of performance management; however, little is known about factors that influence their implementation of these systems. The purpose of this study was to investigate how a supervisor individual difference—implicit person theory (IPT)—differentially predicts supervisor behaviors during, as well as both supervisor and employee reactions to appraisal interviews. In Study 1, MBA students reported their supervisors’ behaviors during their most recent performance appraisal interview (Time 1) as well as their subsequent reactions (i.e., perceived satisfaction, utility, success, supervisor support; Time 2). Their supervisors completed a measure assessing their own IPT (Time 3). Findings suggest that supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors predicted perceived satisfaction, utility, and success of the appraisal interviews, while supervisor’ relational-oriented behaviors predicted perceived supervisor support. In Study 2, supervisors recruited via MTurk completed all measures from Study 1 except perceived success. Results suggest that IPT was positively related to task-oriented behaviors and perceived utility, task-oriented behaviors mediated the relationship between IPT and all three reaction measures (i.e., perceived satisfaction, utility, and supervisor support), and relational-oriented behaviors significantly predicted supervisors’ perceived support. Overall, findings suggest that supervisors who believe people can change (hold a more incremental IPT) display more task-oriented behaviors during and see more utility in appraisal interviews. Additionally, task-oriented behaviors emerged as the key mechanism linking supervisors’ IPT
and reactions to appraisal interviews. These findings demonstrate that supervisor individual differences, such as IPT, can influence performance appraisal and management outcomes.
INTRODUCTION

Strategically managing employee performance is the most difficult aspect of human capital management (Pulakos, 2009). In fact, establishing best methods for doing so has challenged scientists and practitioners for decades, beginning with the issue of how to best evaluate performance (Byrne, 2015; DeNisi & Murphy, 2017). While the establishment of performance ratings can be traced back to the 19th century, serious psychological research in this area did not emerge until the 1920s and has since flourished. Traditionally, the focus of this research has mainly been on performance appraisal ratings (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017). However, research in this area in the past few decades has expanded from working toward perfecting the evaluation of employee performance to also finding the best system and social context for managing employee performance (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017; Levy & Williams, 2004; Pulakos & O’Leary, 2011).

Performance management is a relatively new term that encompasses “the wide variety of activities, policies, procedures, and interventions designed to help employees to improve their performance” (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017, p. 421). Traditionally, fundamental to these programs are performance appraisal (PA) ratings—the numeric evaluation given by a judge (i.e., supervisor) regarding an employee’s performance on specified dimensions that is later communicated to the employee and often used for the basis of a variety of decisions such as promotions and salary raises (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017; Meinecke, Lehmann-Willenbrock, & Kauffeld, 2017). Appraisal interviews are the meetings when supervisors provide feedback to employees and when supervisors and employees discuss the ratings and set future goals (Meinecke et al., 2017). Usually conducted annually, these appraisal interviews are critical
elements of performance management systems because they provide the opportunity for employees to receive valuable feedback regarding how well they are meeting job expectations and what steps they can take to improve (Byrne, 2015).

In a review of literature published over the last century, DeNisi and Murphy (2017) noted that 1970-2000 was the ‘heyday’ of research on PAs and performance management, but publication in this area has since tapered off. One may infer that this drop-off occurred because performance management systems were refined enough to no longer require thorough examination; however, practitioners and scholars alike have recently expressed unhappiness with the current state of performance management (Levy, Tseng, Rosen, & Lueke, 2017; Levy, Cavanaugh, Frantz, Borden, & Roberts, 2018; Pulakos & O’Leary, 2011). Some companies such as Adobe and Juniper have dropped performance ratings altogether, while other organizations and researchers are pushing to ‘revolutionize’ performance management (Levy et al., 2017). In fact, as noted by Levy et al. (2017), members of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology voted “The Changing Nature of PM [Performance Management]” as the number one work trend for 2017 (SIOP, 2016), when performance management was not even mentioned in the top 10 work trends just two years prior (SIOP, 2014).

There appears to be some consensus that formal performance management systems have not been optimally effective, and the methods used to implement these systems may be where the problem lies (Levy et al., 2018; Pulakos, Mueller Hanson, Arad, & Moye, 2015; Pulakos & O’Leary, 2011). For instance, practitioners Pulakos and O’Leary (2011) argued that across four of the popular performance management practices (i.e., cascading organizational goals to individual employees, setting SMART performance goals, rating competencies, and gathering performance information from multiple sources), there is a stark disconnect between the way
performance practices *should* work and how they *actually* work. However, Pulakos and O’Leary argued that because many attempts at modifying performance management systems themselves have been relatively ineffective, more focus should be placed on improving how performance management is implemented. Specifically, Pulakos and O’Leary called for a focus on supervisor-employee communications and relationships, as these are highly influential drivers of employee performance. Further, Schleicher, Baumann, Sullivan, and Yim (2019) recently called for research highlighting the importance of supervisors in performance management. We seek to answer these calls by critically examining the role of the supervisor in PA interviews.

**Current Study**

Within organizations, supervisors are the primary implementation agents of performance management practices and therefore, have a strong influence on the context and effectiveness of PA interviews (Levy & Williams, 2004). In fact, two supervisors utilizing the same performance management system may evoke starkly different reactions and outcomes. Although there is vast literature investigating employee reactions to how supervisors implement appraisals (e.g., Burke, Weitzel, & Weir, 1978; Jawahar, 2010; Wexley, Singh, and Yukl, 1973), little is known about factors that influence supervisors’ implementation of performance appraisal interviews. Therefore, it is critical to evaluate supervisor individual differences and their influence on appraisal interview behaviors and performance appraisal outcomes in order to generate more effective execution of performance management systems. Consequently, we aim to examine antecedents, behaviors, and outcomes associated with PA interviews. Specifically, we propose that supervisors’ implicit person theory (IPT) may predict the way supervisors behave within appraisal interviews. In turn, these behaviors may help explain the observed variability in PA interview outcomes. Our logic aligns with a portion of the comprehensive multilevel leadership

The structure of this paper is as follows. We begin by providing a summary of both some commonly investigated and newly suggested PA outcomes. Next, we introduce supervisor factors that influence PAs and propose that supervisors’ IPT is a key predictor of employees’ reactions to their appraisal interview. Subsequently, we discuss how two supervisor behavioral orientations—task and relational—displayed within the appraisal interview, may help explain the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employee reactions. Finally, we offer conclusions, practical implications, and future research directions that can enhance our understanding of the supervisors’ role in PA interview effectiveness.

**Literature Review**

**Performance Appraisal Interview Outcomes**

PA interviews are not isolated events but are nested within a social context that inevitably influences outcomes of the PA. Therefore, it is essential to take the social context into consideration when examining PA effectiveness (Levy et al., 2018). Levy and Williams (2004) recognized the significance of the social context and proposed a model of PA effectiveness that incorporated *employee reactions* as another important criterion in addition to traditional measurement outcomes. They argued that there are contextual factors that play into interactions within the appraisal interview, such as organizational climate and culture, which can influence subsequent employee reactions and behaviors (Levy & Williams, 2004). As they succinctly put it, “Performance appraisals are no longer just about accuracy, but are about much more including development, ownership, input, perceptions of being valued, and being a part of an
organizational team” (Levy & Williams, 2004, p. 889). The current study will examine how supervisor characteristics and behaviors predict these important outcomes.

**Employee Reactions**

Employee reactions are defined as “individual-level attitudinal evaluations of and responses to the performance appraisal process” (Pichler, 2012, p. 710). They are critical outcomes to investigate because they have been theoretically linked to the degree to which employees accept the appraisal interview feedback and subsequently change their behavior (Keeping & Levy, 2000). In addition, favorable reactions to PA feedback have been linked to subsequent increases in performance (Levy et al., 2018).

An initial review by Keeping and Levy (2000) looked at employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal session and the overall performance management system, fairness as comprised by distributive and procedural justice, perceived utility, and perceived accuracy. More recently, Levy and colleagues (2018) grouped employee reactions to PAs into three categories: (1) satisfaction and utility, (2) fairness and justice, and (3) accuracy, acceptability, and motivation to improve performance. Because the focus of the current study is on the appraisal interview, we are limiting the traditionally investigated employee reaction outcomes to only those in the first category—satisfaction with and perceived utility of the appraisal interview—because they are within the scope of the appraisal interview itself. Additionally, we seek to investigate two under-researched employee reactions as direct outcomes of the appraisal interview: perceived supervisor support and perceived success of the appraisal interview.
**Satisfaction with Session.** A consistent operational definition of satisfaction has remained elusive. Scholars have generally focused on three satisfaction outcomes: satisfaction with the PA system, satisfaction with the PA ratings themselves, and satisfaction with the PA interview (Keeping & Levy, 2000). Because we are narrowly focused on the interview itself, we will be limiting ourselves to examining satisfaction with the appraisal interview. Giles and Mossholder (1990) conceptualized satisfaction with session as: employees’ overall satisfaction with the session, how good they felt about the procedure, and how effective they thought the manager was at having a performance review discussion.

Satisfaction with the appraisal interview is essential to the long-term effectiveness of performance management systems (Dobbins, Cardy, & Platz-Vieno, 1990). Satisfaction is one of the most commonly researched appraisal interview outcomes and has been empirically linked to PA effectiveness and subsequent changes in attitudes and behavior (Jawahar, 2006, 2010; Levy et al., 2018). For instance, employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal interview was shown to positively predict employees’ organizational commitment as well as negatively predict their intentions to quit (Jawahar, 2006). Other studies have also linked employees’ satisfaction with the performance appraisal to their subsequent motivation and productivity (Cawley, Keeping, & Levy, 1998). Consequently, employees’ satisfaction with their appraisal interview is an essential appraisal interview outcome to examine.

Researchers have identified many predictors of employee satisfaction with the appraisal interview. For instance, discussing plans and objectives (Dipboye & de Pontebriand, 1981) and developing action plans to reduce performance deficits (Dobbins et al., 1990) have been found to positively predict employees’ satisfaction with their appraisal interview session. Further, in a study conducted by Burke and colleagues (1978), employees were satisfied with the appraisal
interview when job problems were cleared up and when future objectives and targets were set within the appraisal interview. Extant research has also repeatedly shown that goal-setting is positively related to employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal session (Giles & Mossholder, 1990; Greller, 1975; Nemeroff & Wexley, 1979).

Perhaps the most researched supervisor behavior within the appraisal interview is consulting employees or allowing employees’ voice. Such participation in the appraisal interview has consistently been linked to employees’ satisfaction with the interview (Burke et al., 1978; Cawley et al., 1998; Dobbins et al., 1990; Giles & Mossholder, 1990; Greller, 1975; Nemeroff & Wexley, 1979). For instance, in a series of studies, Greller (1975) found a significant positive relationship between ‘boss asks for opinion’ in the appraisal interview and satisfaction with the appraisal session (Study 1; Greller, 1975). An invitation to participate has also been found to significantly predict satisfaction with the appraisal (Study 2; Greller, 1975; Nemeroff & Wexley, 1979). Nemeroff and Wexley (1979) also found that subordinates were satisfied when supervisors specifically gave employees an opportunity to share their point of view, asked employees for input regarding their own performance, and asked employees for input about particular job problems. Further, Nemeroff and Wexley (1979) found a strong positive relationship \((r = .78)\) between supportive supervisor behaviors (i.e., when the supervisor tried to be friendly, scheduled a follow-up meeting, praised the employee for what he or she did well, and ended the interview on a positive note) and employee satisfaction with the feedback interview. Lastly, Burke et al. (1978) found that employees were satisfied with the interview when they had influence in planning self-development and when the supervisor was helpful and constructive.
**Perceived Utility.** Perceived utility is often operationalized as perceptions regarding the usefulness of the appraisal interview session and received feedback (Keeping & Levy, 2000; Levy et al., 2018) and is a “more specific, cognitively oriented criteria” than satisfaction with the session (Giles & Mossholder, 1990, p. 372). This reaction is often measured by asking employees how much they learned from their appraisal interview overall, and specifically how much they learned about their mistakes, about how to do their job better, and about what their manager expects from them (Greller, 1978). Because a main purpose of appraisal interviews is to provide employees with useful feedback about their performance (Byrne, 2015), perceived utility is an important employee reaction to examine.

Many studies have examined predictors of perceived utility or perceived value of the appraisal session. For instance, researchers have found that when pre-interview expectations of the PA system are consistent with post-interview perceptions, the employee views the PA system as more useful (Whiting, Kline, & Sulsky, 2008). Additionally, Burke et al. (1978) found a positive relationship between job problems being resolved and value of the appraisal session, as well as future objectives and targets being set and value of the appraisal session. Jawahar (2010) also found that supervisors suggesting ways to improve performance positively predicted employees’ perceived utility of the appraisal interview feedback. Employees even find criticism of their performance valuable (Greller, 1978; Jawahar, 2010).

Furthermore, developmental discussions and enhancing the supervisor-subordinate relationship may also be seen as helpful by employees. For instance, after controlling for interpersonal context before the appraisal and favorability of recalled ratings, the presence of career discussions (i.e., discussing career development, specific career development goals, and personal development) significantly predicted perceived utility of the performance appraisal
review (Nathan, Mohrman, & Milliman, 1991). Additionally, charismatic leadership, an aspect of transformational leadership that focuses on the relationship between the leader and the subordinate, was also found to positively predict feedback utility. This relationship was partially mediated by procedural justice (Tuytens & Devos, 2012).

Employees also perceive appraisal interviews as more useful when they have voice and participate (Elicker, Levy, & Hall, 2006; Nathan et al., 1991), such as when they have the opportunity to state their own side of the issues (Greller 1975; Study 1). Specifically, a meta-analysis by Cawley et al. (1998) found a significant positive relationship between instrumental participation (participating to influence the PA) and utility ($r = .53$), as well as between value expressive participation (participating to voice one’s opinion) and utility ($r = .61$). Additionally, managerial feedback strategies that involve both voice (i.e., self-appraisal and subordinate reply) and consideration (i.e., combination of positive and negative feedback) are rated as most effective (Lizzio, Wilson, & McKay, 2008). When supervisors consult their employees for input, the employees may be able to steer the conversation in a direction that provides them with the most useful feedback such as bringing up an impediment to their skill development or task efficiency.

**Perceived Supervisor Support.** Over time, employees form beliefs and attitudes about the amount of social support they receive from the organization they are employed by, the supervisor they work under, and the coworkers they work with. Each of these forms of support can have considerable influence on employees’ well-being and have been found to be interrelated (Ng & Sorensen, 2008). Research suggests, however, that perceived supervisor support—employees’ perception regarding the extent to which their supervisor values their input and is concerned about their general well-being—may be the most influential type of social
support (Ng & Sorensen, 2008; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Interestingly, however, there appears to be a dearth of performance appraisal research that utilizes perceived supervisor support as an outcome variable (see Meinecke et al., 2017 for an exception).

We seek to add to this body of literature by examining this under-investigated employee reaction. Following the practice of Meinecke et al. (2017), we conceptualize perceived supervisor support as a direct outcome of the conversation with one’s supervisor within the appraisal interview. Specifically, perceived supervisor support within the appraisal interview can be defined as the extent to which employees feel the supervisor: is supportive of their goals, actively listens without bias, values problem-solving over criticizing, agrees with them on a strategy to resolve performance issues, and encourages them when struggling to reach their goal. Of note, perceived supervisor support within the appraisal interview is tied to and expected to capture employee voice.

Because performance appraisal interviews are often regarded as unpleasant, supervisors actively fostering a supportive atmosphere at the conversational level may be helpful to attenuate employees’ negative feelings (Meinecke et al., 2017). Along these lines, some researchers have suggested that an integral way supervisors can show support is through coaching their employees—“helping them plan their work, highlighting potential difficulties, and offering advice and emotional support” (Gruman & Saks, 2011, p. 130). These coaching behaviors can be implemented within an appraisal interview, and supervisors who do so may enhance employees’ perceived supervisor support resulting from interactions in the appraisal interview. Supporting
this notion, Meinecke et al. (2017) found a marginally significant relationship between positive relational-oriented statements and perceived supervisor support ($r = .27, p < .10$).

**Perceived Success.** Subordinates’ perception of success of the appraisal interview is a more global reaction that appears to have been introduced by Meinecke et al. (2017) and may be conceptualized as the overall reaction toward the appraisal interview process. These researchers stressed the importance of supervisor-employee communication patterns in influencing how both parties experience and subsequently evaluate the appraisal interview. They found that relational-oriented statements evoked active participation from employees, and these patterns of communication positively predicted employees’ perceptions of success of the appraisal interview. While this appears to be a solitary finding, it may also be appropriate to draw from literature that similarly takes a broader approach to examining employees’ reactions as an outcome of performance appraisal interviews to examine possible predictors of this employee reaction. For instance, Dipboye and de Pontbriand (1981) investigated “opinions of the appraisal” as an outcome, which was a composite measure of satisfaction with effectiveness of current appraisal, understanding of reasons for evaluation, and effect of evaluation on motivation. These researchers found that discussions of plans and objectives, as well as the opportunity to participate significantly predicted opinion of appraisal; however, goal-setting did not.

**Supervisor Factors Influencing the Appraisal Process**

Historically, when investigating PA effectiveness, research has focused on appraisal processes, structures, and contextual factors (Giles & Mossholder, 1990; Levy & Williams, 2004). For instance, researchers have often investigated the effectiveness of multi-rater feedback
(Campion, Campion, & Campion, 2015) and due-process systems (Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995). Others have examined the influence of interpersonal factors such as leader-member exchange relationships (Elicker et al., 2006; Pichler et al., 2016), interpersonal relations (Nathan et al., 1991), supervisors’ perceived similarity between themselves and their subordinates (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983), supervisors’ theory of employee motivation (DeVoe & Iyengar, 2004), trust (i.e., does the supervisor act in ways that are trustworthy?) (O'Reilly & Anderson, 1980; Reinke, 2003), and supervisor support (Pichler, 2012). Interestingly, less research has focused on the characteristics or individual differences of the supervisor that impact the appraisal interview. As such, this study seeks to investigate IPT as a supervisor factor that has the potential to explain variance in appraisal interview effectiveness.

**Implicit Person Theory**

Research has shown that when individuals interpret human behavior, they tend to utilize a framework to make assumptions about the malleability of human attributes. Individuals believe that personal characteristics, such as personality and intelligence, are both fixed and nonmalleable (*entity*) or non-fixed, changeable, and malleable (*incremental*) (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). However, these beliefs are seldom explicitly verbalized or explicitly known by individuals; yet, they can have a strong impact on behavior (Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1997b). Studies have shown that most people adopt either an incremental or entity theory, that the distribution of these two theories is roughly equal, and that neither theory is empirically tied to the person’s own ability, education level, or cognitive complexity (Dweck & Molden, 2008; Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011).

The idea of implicit person theories is derived from Dweck’s (1986) early work examining intelligence theories in children. This early research on IPT took a within-person
perspective, focusing on how an individual’s IPT impacted their own self-judgments and behaviors, such as intelligence (Henderson & Dweck, 1990), achievement goals, (Dweck & Legget, 1988), and reactions to achievement setbacks (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck et al., 1995; Henderson & Dweck, 1990). However, in the mid-1990s, research on IPT began shifting from a solely within-person perspective to a between-person perspective—evaluating how IPT influences judgments of others (Dweck et al., 1995; Heyman & Dweck, 1998). This new line of research suggests that those who hold an entity theory are more likely to make inferences about others’ behaviors as functions of individual traits, and they believe that knowing a person’s traits allows for the accurate prediction of their behavior in a subsequent novel situation. On the other hand, incremental theorists tend to not put such weight on traits when making inferences about people and their behaviors, but instead focus on psychological factors such as affect and goals to explain behavior (Chiu et al., 1997b; Dweck et al., 1995). More recently, researchers have started to examine the influence of IPT in an organizational context, especially in regard to feedback, coaching, and performance appraisals (e.g., Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle, & Latham, 2006; Sue-Chan, Wood, & Latham, 2012).

**IPT and Development Assistance.** IPT has been shown to differentially predict the extent to which individuals assist by giving feedback and advice to others. Because those who hold entity beliefs fundamentally believe that people cannot change (Dweck et al., 1995; Latham, 2007), they appear to have little concern for actively investing in the development of others. For instance, in a series of studies, Heyman and Dweck (1998) found that students who endorsed an entity theory view of sociomoral stability (i.e., the belief that one’s “goodness” or “badness” is stable) provided less extensive advice to help other students succeed (Study 1) and were less likely to advise a child to try again after making an error (Study 2). In contrast, students who
held an incremental view of sociomoral stability gave more extensive and elaborated feedback (Study 1) and were more likely to view failure as a result of process-related factors such as effort rather than inherent ability, leading them to be more likely to recommend a child to try again after failure.

Within an organizational context, IPT has been shown to influence the extent to which supervisors are inclined to coach their employees. In one study, Heslin et al. (2006) asked 45 managers in an MBA program to complete an IPT measure four weeks before beginning a class on organizational change and then had them ask 3-10 of their subordinates to complete measures assessing their coaching behaviors—broadly operationalized as guidance, facilitation, and inspiration—six weeks later. This longitudinal study found that incrementalism accounted for significant variance in managers’ coaching behaviors when controlling for management experience and supervisor age, such that the more incremental a manager was, the more coaching behaviors they implemented. These researchers were able to replicate this finding in a second study with a non-student sample of managers. Heslin and colleagues proposed that if managers hold entity beliefs that people cannot change, they may be less likely to coach because they may not believe their efforts will pay off in performance improvement. In contrast, incremental managers are perhaps more likely to coach their employees because they see developmental value in coaching.

Supporting this notion, Kam, Risavy, Perunovic, and Plant (2014) recently found that supervisors’ incrementalism was strongly related to their transformational leadership behaviors. They asserted that transformational leaders have a growth mindset that is similar to incremental beliefs and therefore, encourage their employees and attend to their individual needs more than a non-transformational leader. Further analysis showed that IPT and transformational leadership
had separate nomological networks, suggesting that while highly correlated, they are separate constructs. Incrementalism and this related growth mindset may also be influential in shaping specific interactions such as those within the performance appraisal context.

IPT and Performance Appraisals. Heslin et al. (2005) found that generally, supervisors who hold a more incremental theory focus more on situational and personal influences of behavior, leading these supervisors to be more open to revising initial character or performance judgments. Specifically, supervisors higher in incrementalism were more willing to acknowledge performance change over time. On the other hand, entity theorists are at risk of making quick judgments and anchoring their future ratings to this initial judgment. In fact, managers who held entity theory beliefs were found to anchor subsequent performance ratings on irrelevant past performance information (Study 1; Heslin et al., 2005).

Additionally, supervisors with an incremental IPT may also be more likely than those with an entity IPT to consult and ask for input from employees. For instance, one study found that supervisors’ IPT was linked to the extent to which they consulted their employees for feedback and opinions. Specifically, supervisor incrementalism positively predicted employee ratings of supervisors’ negative feedback-seeking behaviors (Study 1; Heslin & VandeWalle, 2005). Another study found that perceived cost and perceived value of feedback mediated the relationship between IPT and feedback-seeking behaviors, such that incremental individuals sought more feedback because they perceived lower costs and higher value in seeking feedback (Study 2; Heslin & VandeWalle, 2005). These findings suggest that incremental supervisors may be more likely to seek input and opinions from employees within the appraisal interview because they may view this employee participation and feedback as valuable for enhancing the quality of the PA.
More recently, Heslin and VandeWalle (2011) proposed that IPT could serve to explain why some supervisors are perceived as more procedurally just than others. Specifically, they posited that entity supervisors would be perceived as less procedurally just in the appraisal interview process because they tend to anchor their ratings on initial impressions of employee performance, give less feedback, and coach less to provide employees with ways to reach explicit performance standards. In contrast, they proposed that incremental supervisors would be seen as more procedurally just because they tend to give less biased and more correctable ratings, coach employees more, and give employees an opportunity to provide input. Results of their study indicated that supervisors’ IPT did differentially predict levels of perceived procedural justice by employees. Even when controlling for manager’s age and management experience as well as distributive justice, supervisors’ incrementalism positively predicted employees’ perceived procedural justice of the appraisal interview. In fact, incrementalism was significantly related to all procedural justice components—consistency, accuracy, correctability, voice, and lower bias (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011).

Overall, results from studies examining supervisors’ IPT in the PA process suggest that incremental managers may evoke more positive reactions from their employees within the appraisal interview context. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

_H1: Supervisors’ IPT will be positively related to employee’ reactions (i.e., perceived satisfaction, utility, supervisor support, and success) to the appraisal interview. In other words, employees with supervisors who report higher levels of incremental beliefs will report more positive appraisal reactions._

While Heslin and VandeWalle (2011) found that incrementalism of supervisors predicted the perceived fairness and justice of appraisal interviews, they did not specifically investigate an
explanatory mechanism for why IPT led to more positive reactions by employees. We want to extend this body of research by examining supervisor behaviors within the appraisal interview as a potential mediator of the relationship between IPT and employee reactions. Specifically, the current study will examine how supervisors’ IPT influences employees’ perceived satisfaction, utility, supervisor support, and success through the supervisors’ appraisal interview behaviors.

**Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors**

A review of the literature shows that researchers have investigated outcomes related to leader behaviors within the performance appraisal context for decades (e.g., Dorfman, Stephan, & Loveland, 1986; Waldman, Bass, & Epstein, 1987). However, few researchers have investigated what actually happens during appraisal interviews (Meinecke et al., 2017). Kay and Meyer (1965) were perhaps the first to attempt this type of in-depth investigation, using observation and interviews to examine threats to employees’ perceptions of self-esteem that occur when a manager pointed out performance improvement needs. Two decades later, Dorfman and colleagues (1986) utilized questionnaires given after the appraisal interview to tap into content discussed in an effort to investigate predictors and employee outcomes of performance appraisals.

In a new line of research utilizing fine-grained analyses to examine conversational dynamics within appraisal interviews (e.g., Asmuß, 2008; Clifton, 2012), Meinecke et al. (2017) drew from existing leadership theory to examine supervisor-employee conversational patterns. To code supervisor statements, these researchers specifically drew from relational leadership theory (Uhl-Bien, 2006), the Ohio State leadership tradition (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Schriesheim & Bird, 1979), and Yukl, Gordon, and Taber’s (2002) hierarchical leadership behavior taxonomy to categorize leader statements within the appraisal interview as task-
oriented or relational-oriented. These two meta-categories were selected because they emerged after a large synthesis of leadership behavior theories (Yukl et al., 2002).

Similar to Meinecke et al. (2017), we utilize the meta-categories of relational and task behaviors set forth by Yukl et al. (2002) as a framework for examining supervisor behaviors within the appraisal interview. A third meta-category of leader behaviors, labeled change behaviors, emerged in Yukl and colleagues’ study; however, we did not include this category because these types of leader behaviors (e.g., monitoring the environment external to the company, casting a new vision, taking risks to promote change) generally have organizational-level goals and thus, are not likely to occur within the scope of a performance appraisal interview. Rather, we opt to focus on task and relational leader behaviors and posit that supervisors will engage in both of these types of behaviors in PA interviews, but their IPT will differentially predict the extent to which they display these behaviors. We further posit that these categories of behaviors will be differentially related to employee reactions.

**Task-Oriented Behaviors.** According to Yukl et al. (2002), the meta-category of task-oriented leader behaviors encompasses previously defined behavior classifications such as initiating structure (Fleishman, 1953), concern for production (Blake & Mouton, 1982), and transactional leader behaviors (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). These behaviors have the primary objective of optimizing efficiency of employees and resources, and ensuring reliability of services, products, and operations (Yukl et al., 2002). Task-oriented leader behaviors include short-term planning, monitoring employee performance and general operations, and clarifying employee responsibilities and task objectives (Meinecke et al., 2017; see Yukl et al., 2002 for an in-depth outline of these behaviors). Examples of task-oriented behaviors within the appraisal interview at a conversational level include evaluating and discussing past performance, sharing
organizational knowledge, assigning goals, clarifying objectives by asking for task-related information, and problem-solving to increase task effectiveness (Meinecke et al., 2017).

We contend that supervisors who adhere to incremental beliefs will engage in task-oriented behaviors more than those who adhere to entity beliefs because they are likely to believe that providing such task-focused feedback can help employees improve their performance. Furthermore, research has also linked task-oriented behaviors such as addressing job problems, developing action plans, and discussing ways to improve performance to employee reactions (Burke et al., 1978; Dobbins et al., 1990; Jawahar, 2010). Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

**H2:** Supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors will mediate the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employee reactions to the appraisal interview. In other words, supervisors who report higher levels of incremental beliefs will also have employees who report that they display higher levels task-oriented behaviors and in turn, the employees will report more positive appraisal reactions.

**Relational-Oriented Behaviors.** According to Yukl et al. (2002), the meta-category of relational-oriented leader behaviors encompasses previously defined behavior classifications such as consideration (Fleishman, 1953), concern for people (Blake & Mouton, 1982), and transformational leader behaviors (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). These behaviors have the primary objective of enhancing commitment to the company (team) and its mission, as well as enhancing trust and cooperation among employees in the company (team). Relational-oriented leader behaviors include recognizing, supporting, developing, consulting, and empowering (See Yukl et al., 2002 for an in-depth outline of these behaviors). Examples of relational-oriented behaviors within the appraisal interview at a conversational level include praising employees, providing
support for contribution, encouraging contribution to the discussion, asking for employees’ feedback and opinion, and actively listening (Meinecke et al., 2017). Because relational-oriented behaviors seek to develop interpersonal relationships and the individual holistically, we contend that this category also includes behaviors such as goal-setting, coaching, and allowing employees’ voice.

We posit that supervisors who adhere to incremental beliefs will engage in relational-oriented behaviors more than those who adhere to entity beliefs because they believe that these behaviors can help employees develop and improve their performance. Furthermore, research has linked behaviors such as allowing employees’ voice, supportive supervisor behaviors such as praise, and relational-oriented statements to employee reactions (Cawley et al., 1998; Meinecke et al., 2017; Nemeroff & Wexley, 1979). Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

**H3:** Supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors will mediate the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employee reactions to the appraisal interview. In other words, supervisors who report higher levels of incremental beliefs will also have employees who report that they display higher levels of relational-oriented behaviors and in turn, the employees will report more positive appraisal reactions.

Furthermore, some evidence suggests that supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors may be more strongly related to employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal interview than supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors. Research has shown that overall, people tend to be more satisfied with relational-oriented leaders than task-oriented leaders. For instance, a meta-analysis by Judge and colleagues (2004) found that leader consideration was more strongly related to overall follower job satisfaction (.46) than was initiating structure (.22). Furthermore, these researchers found that leader consideration was also more strongly related to follower satisfaction with leader (.78) than
initiating structure (.33). Of note, both types of leader behaviors were positively related to these satisfaction outcomes, but there seems to be a pattern of stronger positive relationships between relational-oriented leader behaviors and satisfaction than between task-oriented leader behaviors and satisfaction.

This same pattern has also been seen in research examining the appraisal interview context. For instance, Greller (1975; Study 2) found that when controlling for supervisors’ invitation to participate in the appraisal interview, discussing job goals and objectives at some length was only a marginally significant predictor of employees’ satisfaction with the session. Perhaps the most salient evidence for this pattern is seen in a study by Wexley and colleagues (1973) which compared appraisal interviews that were comprised of three combinations of leader behaviors. In this study, employees were the least satisfied when (1) supervisors allowed minimal participation, rather electing to highlight positive and negatives regarding employee performance and persuading the employee to utilize their feedback to improve performance. Employees were significantly more satisfied in both the conditions when (2) the supervisor discussed performance and then allowed for the employee to express their feelings about the appraisal and when (3) the supervisors used open ended questions to collaboratively problem-solve and set goals with the employee (Wexley et al., 1973). The first condition clearly aligns with task-oriented behaviors, while the latter two include more relational-oriented behaviors. Together, these findings suggest that the relational-oriented behaviors (e.g., inviting participation, supporting, consulting, collaborating, and being friendly) may be more strongly related to employee’ satisfaction with the appraisal interview than task-oriented behaviors (e.g., discussing past performance, clarifying job objectives, focusing on performance improvement). Therefore, we propose that:
H4: Supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors will be a stronger mediator of the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal interview than supervisor’s task-oriented behaviors.

Contrarily, research suggests that task-oriented supervisor behaviors may more strongly mediate the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employees’ perceived utility of the appraisal interview. A handful of studies have examined the influence of a variety of supervisor behaviors with utility as an outcome, allowing for easy comparison of effects within studies. For instance, Burke et al. (1978) found that opportunity to present ideas and feelings was positively related to employees’ perceived value of the appraisal session ($r = .37$), but influence in planning self-development was not significantly related. This pattern of mixed results for relational-oriented behaviors was not present for task-oriented behaviors. Particularly, task-oriented behaviors such as clearing up job problems ($r = .37$) and setting future performance objectives and targets ($r = .49$) were overall more strongly related to employees’ perceptions of the value of their appraisal interview (Burke et al., 1978). In another study, goal-setting was positively related to perceived utility of feedback ($r = .17$) and opportunity to participate was not significantly related to perceived utility; however, suggesting ways to improve, a task-oriented behavior, was most strongly related to perceived utility of feedback ($r = .38$; Jawahar, 2010). Results such as these suggest that supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors may be more strongly related to employees’ perceptions of utility than their relational-oriented behaviors. Perhaps employees see more instrumental value resulting from task-oriented behaviors than relational-oriented behaviors. Therefore, we propose:
H5: Supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors will be a stronger mediator of the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employees’ perceived utility of the appraisal interview than supervisor’ relational-oriented behaviors.

Because there is little research examining perceived supervisor support and perceived success of the appraisal interview as PA outcomes, we will not propose formal hypotheses regarding which behavioral orientation more strongly mediates these IPT-reaction relationships; rather, we will take an exploratory approach.

In summary, the current study seeks to make multiple meaningful contributions to the current performance management literature. We aim to examine two traditionally researched (perceived satisfaction and utility) and two under-researched (perceived supervisor support and success) employee reactions as appraisal interview outcomes. Inclusion of the latter two outcomes provides a replication component, as these outcome measures were utilized by Meinecke et al. (2017). Further, we seek to contribute to the body of literature on employee reactions by also examining an under-researched supervisor individual difference that could have a profound impact on employees’ reactions to their appraisal interviews: IPT. In fact, to our knowledge, this study is only the second to examine the influence of supervisors’ IPT on employees’ reactions to their appraisal interview (see Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011). It is, however, the first to examine how IPT influences supervisor behaviors within these performance conversations. Finally, as depicted in Figure 1, we anticipate that these relationships will be mediated by appraisal interview behaviors (e.g., conversation content). Overall, this model bridges and expands upon the relationships found between IPT and employee reactions (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011) and the relationships found between supervisor behaviors and employee reactions (Meinecke et al., 2017).
We conducted three studies. First, we conducted a pilot study via MTurk to collect data in order to validate measures (e.g., translated and newly-developed measures) that we intended to use in the subsequent studies. Study 1 was our focal study, which utilized a dyadic sample of MBA students and their supervisors to test our five proposed hypotheses. Given that our sample was smaller than expected and that we were unable to incentivize the supervisors to complete our study, we had low power to find significant effects in Study 1. Thus, we collected more data from only supervisors via MTurk (Study 2), which enabled us to test our hypotheses using supervisors’ reactions as our dependent variables. Overall, this allowed us to gain insight into both employees’ and supervisors’ reports of supervisor behaviors during appraisal interviews, as well as both employees’ and supervisors’ reactions to their performance appraisal interviews.
PILOT

A pilot study was conducted with a two-fold purpose. First, the aim was to assess the reliability of the translated perceived supervisor support and perceived interview success measures used by Meinecke and colleagues (2017). Second, this pilot helped validate a newly created, two-dimensional measure of supervisor appraisal interview behaviors (construction of this measure is discussed in the Study 1 measures section).

Methods

For this pilot, we recruited 101 participants through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk platform. An online panel was utilized to collect data because it provides a quick, convenient, and cost-effective way to gather data from samples relatively representative of average working adults, especially when compared to student samples. Mechanical Turk was chosen over other online panel platforms because there is a general consensus that this platform is more diverse relative to other platforms (Porter, Outlaw, Gale, & Cho, 2018). Further, it was specifically chosen because of the availability of a qualification that allows for screening of participants to ensure they are currently employed full-time.

On Mechanical Turk, the survey was advertised as a study examining perceptions of performance appraisals, and participants were compensated $0.50 for their participation. Qualifiers were in place to ensure that the sample consisted of individuals who are residents of the United States, were a minimum of 18 years of age, and were currently employed full-time. These qualifiers increased the likelihood that the sample consisted of individuals who were likely to have had a past performance appraisal interview that they could reference to complete the survey. Three participants were excluded for failing the qualifying question, “Are you currently
employed full-time (35+ hours a week)?” Two participants were removed for failing one of the two attention checks (e.g., “If you are paying attention, please select moderately disagree”). Lastly, another question regarding employment was asked as a demographic question, and two participants were excluded for selecting “self-employed,” as it is uncertain whether they had a direct supervisor.

After excluding these participants, there was a final sample of 95 individuals: 57 Male (60.0%) and 38 Female (40.0%); 75 White/Caucasian (78.9%), 6 East Asian (6.3%), 4 Hispanic (4.2%), 2 Black/African American (2.1%), 1 South Asian (1.1%), 1 Native American/American Indian (1.1%), 1 Other (1.1%), and 5 were multiracial (5.3%). The average age of participants was 36.5 (SD = 10.3). Participants were asked to recall their most recent performance appraisal interview and then completed the supervisor appraisal interview behaviors, perceived supervisor support, and perceived interview success measures (see Study 1 measures for more details) in randomized order.

Results

To examine the factor structure of the newly developed supervisor appraisal interview behaviors measure, we employed exploratory factor analysis (EFA) following the pilot study for the 39 original items written in the scale development phase. Specifically, we utilized principal axis factoring with a promax rotation which allows for correlation among factors. Items with low factor loadings (e.g., < .40) were removed. Cross-loading items were also removed unless they were considered crucial to upholding the definitions of task and relational behaviors outlined by Yukl et al. (2002; i.e., “My supervisor empowered me to take initiative at work”). Notably, items 8 (“My supervisor provided suggestions regarding my professional development”) and 10 (“My supervisor worked with me to set future goals”) conceptually align with the “developing”
category that falls under relational behaviors outlined by Yukl et al. (2002), but were found to
highly load onto the latent task behaviors factor and thus, were moved to the task-oriented
behaviors subscale. After scale refinement, the final scale consisted of 18 items that loaded
adequately onto the two factors, each of which had good internal reliability (See Table 1).
STUDY 1

Methods

Participants

We aimed to recruit 100 supervisor-employee dyads through a large Midwestern university, consisting of MBA students in a summer course at the university and their respective supervisors. An advantage of this sample over Meinecke et al. (2017) is that this sample spanned many occupations and fields rather than examining a single organization. To ensure independence within the sample, supervisors were only matched with one employee. Supervisor and employees must have been matched in dyads to be included in the final sample. The sample size was determined by examining the procedures used in prior literature (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011; Meinecke et al., 2017).

We had a total of 94 MBA students complete at least part of our survey. However, 9 students selected, “I haven’t had one with my current supervisor,” when asked the approximate time since their most recent performance appraisal interview and therefore, were excluded from the final sample. Of the remaining participants, 85 completed the measures at Time 1; however, only 74 also completed all measures at Time 2. Thus, our final employee sample was 74 MBA students: 46 male (62.2%), 6 females (8.1%), 22 Unreported (29.7%); 33 White/European American (44.6%), 15 Asian/Asian American (20.3%), 3 Latino/Hispanic (4.1%), 1 Black/African American (1.4%), and 22 Unreported (29.7%). Additionally, the average age of the MBA students was 31.3 ($SD = 4.50$). This sample reported having worked full-time for an average of 7.8 years ($SD = 3.6$).
Our response rate for supervisors was lower than expected—42. However, the employees of 4 of these supervisors reported never having an appraisal interview with that supervisor; thus, our final supervisor sample included only 38 supervisors: 21 males (55.3%), 4 females (10.5%), and 13 unreported (34.2%); 22 White/European American (57.9%), 1 Black/African American (2.6%), and 1 Latino/Hispanic (2.6%), and 14 Unreported (36.8%). Additionally, the average age of the supervisors was 45.9 ($SD = 8.9$), and the average tenure was 17.5 ($SD = 10.3$). Overall, we were able to match 36 supervisor-employee dyads for use in subsequent parallel mediation analyses.

**Procedure**

In Study 1, we utilized a longitudinal survey design. After validating the measures in the pilot study, another sample of participants was recruited as supervisor-employee dyads through the business school of a large Midwestern University. Measures were included as part of a larger online longitudinal survey of MBA students and their supervisors that is required of MBA students to receive course credit. This longitudinal survey had three time points. During the first time point, the MBA students were asked to recall their most recent performance appraisal interview and complete a survey that included measures of supervisor behaviors in the appraisal interview and demographic variables. Because the survey was required for the course, we gave participants the option to not complete our measures or share their demographic information with the researchers. The second time point occurred two weeks later when the MBA students were again asked to recall their most recent performance appraisal interview and complete a survey that included measures of reactions to the appraisal interview—satisfaction with session, perceived utility, perceived supervisor support, and perceived success. The presentation order of these reaction measures was randomized. During the third time point, which was two weeks
following the second time point, supervisors were asked to complete a measure of their IPT and answer some demographic questions. These survey responses were matched to form supervisor-employee dyads to be used in analyses.

Measures

Implicit Person Theory. The “Kind-of-Person” scale developed by Levy and Dweck (1997) was used to assess supervisors’ implicit person theory. This measure was selected because it is not domain-specific (e.g., does not solely assess theories of intelligence), but rather, cuts across domains of personality, behavior, and attributes—all of which are potentially relevant to supervisors’ judgments of employees. This measure has four items that assess entity beliefs and four items that assess incremental beliefs. These items are rated on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A sample entity item is: “People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.” A sample incremental item is: “Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.” Consistent with Levy, Stroessner, and Dweck (1998) and Heslin et al. (2006, 2011), we reverse scored the entity items, then averaged all eight items such that higher scores indicated an incremental IPT. Reverse scoring entity items is a procedure consistently done and based on evidence that IPT is a unidimensional construct with incremental and entity beliefs at opposite ends of a continuum (Chiu, Dweck, Tong, & Fu, 1997a; Dweck, 1999). This notion has been supported by findings showing that this unidimensional scale is internally
reliable ($\alpha = .93$; Levy et al., 1998). Internal consistency reliability was found to be similar in Study 1 ($\alpha = .87; M = 4.10, SD = 0.98$; See Appendix for full measure.)

**Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors.** A two-dimensional measure of supervisor appraisal interview behaviors was constructed and validated in the pilot study. During measure development, 39 items were written based upon the Yukl et al., (2002) leader behavior meta-categories, the examples of how these behaviors manifest in appraisal interviews as outlined in Meinecke et al. (2017), and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (The Ohio State University, 1962). After EFA and measure refinement (see Pilot results for more details), the final scale consisted of 18 items rated on a 6-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). Eleven of these items assess task-oriented supervisor behaviors. A sample task item is: “My supervisor provided suggestions to improve my performance.” Seven items assess relational-oriented supervisor behaviors. A sample relational item is: “My supervisor asked me for my opinion” (See Appendix for the final measure). Both the task-oriented behaviors subscale ($\alpha = .95; M = 4.16, SD = 1.11$) and the relational-oriented behaviors subscale ($\alpha = .91; M = 4.68, SD = 1.00$) had high internal consistency reliability.

**Satisfaction with Session.** Giles and Mossholders’ (1990) three-item measure was used to assess employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal interview session. This measure was selected because unlike some other measures of satisfaction that have inconsistent foci and appear to highly overlap with other appraisal reactions, this three-item measure was developed to specifically measure satisfaction with the appraisal session (Keeping & Levy, 2000). Additionally, an in-depth investigation of PA reaction measures found that this measure is internally reliable ($\alpha = .90$; Keeping & Levy, 2000), which aligns with our findings in Study 1 ($\alpha = .94; M = 4.29, SD = 1.21$). Participants indicated their ratings on a 6-point Likert scale from 1
(\textit{strongly disagree}) to 6 (\textit{strongly agree}). A sample item is: "I felt quite satisfied with my last review discussion." (See Appendix for full measure.)

\textbf{Perceived Utility.} Greller's (1978) four-item measure was used to assess perceived utility of the appraisal interview. This measure was selected because it assesses utility specifically in terms of the appraisal interview session (Keeping & Levy, 2000) and has been used and adapted by many other researchers (Dusterhoff, Cunningham, & MacGregor, 2014; Nathan et al., 1991; Prince & Lawler, 1986). Furthermore, this measure was found to have adequate internal consistency when initially developed ($\alpha = .87$; Greller, 1978) and more recently, when an in-depth investigation of performance appraisal reaction measures was conducted by Keeping and Levy (2000; $\alpha = .91$). Internal consistency reliability was found to be similar in Study 1 ($\alpha = .93; M = 2.36, SD = 0.81$). Participants indicated their responses on a 4-point scale from 1 (\textit{I do not feel this way, not at all}) to 4 (\textit{I feel exactly this way, completely}). A sample item is: “The performance review helped me learn how I can do my job better.” (See Appendix for full measure.)

\textbf{Perceived Supervisor Support.} To assess perceived supervisor support, we utilized a translated version of a German subscale taken from a goal-setting questionnaire, developed by Putz and Lehner (2002). This perceived supervisor support measure has five items that were rated on a five-point scale (1 = \textit{nearly never} to 5 = \textit{nearly always}). An example item translated to English is: “My supervisor is supportive with respect to encouraging me to reach my goals.” To avoid negatively worded questions, the fifth item was adjusted from, “My supervisor lets me down when I have trouble reaching a goal” to, “My supervisor encourages me when I have trouble reaching a goal.” This five-item subscale was also used by Meinecke et al. (2017), who found that it was internally reliable in its original German form ($\alpha = .89$). The newly translated
English version had not previously been validated; therefore, internal consistency reliability was assessed in the pilot study (α = .92; M = 3.73, SD = 1.08) and also found to be adequate in Study 1 (α = .91; M = 3.82, SD = 0.86). (See Appendix for translated and adjusted versions of this measure.

**Perceived Interview Success.** We utilized a translated version of the scale Meinecke et al. (2017) used to measure perceived interview success from both the supervisors’ and employees’ perspective. These researchers adapted a German measure of training success (Kauffeld, Brennecke, & Strack, 2009) to reflect perceived interview success. This perceived interview success measure has six items that were answered on a five-point scale (1 = not at all to 5 = very much so). An example item translated to English is, “Due to the appraisal interview, I feel better suited to fulfill my job requirements.” Some items were adjusted because their translation from German to English made their meaning unclear. This six-item subscale was also used by Meinecke et al. (2017), who found that it was internally reliable in its original German form (α = .89). The newly translated English version had not previously been validated; therefore, internal consistency reliability was assessed in both the pilot study (α = .92; M = 3.50, SD = 1.06) and Study 1 (α = .94; M = 3.11, SD = 1.05) and was found to be adequate. (See Appendix for translated and adjusted versions of this measure.)

**Control Variables.** We collected supervisors’ job tenure, as experience may be a confounding variable; however, we did not include this covariate in our final analyses for Study 1 because it further restricted an already small sample. We did, however, control for employees’ overall performance ratings and time since the appraisal interview. Because rating procedures likely differ across organizations, we asked the MBA students to indicate the favorability (1 = fails to perform to 5 = outstanding) of the last performance rating(s)/feedback they received,
similar to the procedure used by Russell and Goode (1988). These ratings could potentially explain variance in employee reactions to their appraisal interview and therefore, it is appropriate to treat them as a covariate. Furthermore, we included a single-item measure asking employees to indicate the approximate time since their last performance appraisal interview \( 0 = I \text{ haven’t had one with my current supervisor}; 1 = 0-2 \text{ months}; 7 = 12+ \text{ months} \) to use as another covariate.

**Results**

Exploratory factor analysis with a promax rotation was also conducted with the supervisor-employee data from Study 1 to reexamine the factor structure of the supervisor appraisal interview behaviors measure. Items 8 and 10 again loaded on the supervisor task-oriented behaviors latent factor, which provides more evidence that these items tap into the dimension of supervisor task-oriented behaviors. Overall, we observed similar factor loadings to the results from the pilot EFA (See Table 2).

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlation coefficients, and Cronbach’s alphas for each measure are reported in Table 3. To test our hypothesized parallel mediation models, we utilized Hayes’ (2018) Process Macro Model 4 and 10,000 bootstrap samples. We inputted supervisors’ IPT as a predictor variable, the various employee reactions as the outcome variables, and task- and relational-oriented supervisor appraisal interview behaviors as mediators of these relationships. Additionally, we included employees’ reported favorability of the rating(s)/feedback and time since the appraisal interview as covariates. Because supervisor tenure was not significantly correlated with any other variables in our study and was only reported by two-thirds of our supervisor sample (resulting in a valid sample of 24 with the listwise deletion used by PROCESS), this variable was not included in the models as a covariate.
We ran four separate parallel mediation models (see Figures 2-5)—one for each outcome variable—and tied these together using the seed function in PROCESS, which ensured that we were using the same bootstrap samples across testing the models. We also compared the indirect effects of supervisors’ IPT on employees’ satisfaction with and perceived utility of the appraisal interview via relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors to determine whether one mediator is a significantly stronger predictor of each employee reaction than the other (Hypotheses 4 and 5), which was done using Hayes’ (2018) Process Macro.

In Hypothesis 1, we predicted that supervisors’ IPT would be positively related to employees’ reactions to their appraisal interview, such that employees whose supervisors held more incremental views would report more positive reactions to the appraisal session than those whose supervisors held more entity views. To test this hypothesis, we examined the bivariate correlation coefficients between supervisors’ IPT and our four outcome variables. Unexpectedly, IPT was not significantly related to satisfaction with the session ($r = -.02, p = .911$), perceived utility ($r = -.05, p = .779$), perceived supervisor support ($r = .14, p = .415$), or perceived success ($r = -.06, p = .713$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Interestingly, the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and perceived supervisor support was the only one trending in the hypothesized direction.

In Hypothesis 2, we predicted that supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors would mediate the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and the four employee reactions to the appraisal interview. There was not a significant indirect effect (i.e., the 95% confidence interval crossed 0) of supervisors’ IPT, via their reported task-oriented behaviors, on satisfaction with the session (-.07; 95%CI [-.305, .185]), perceived utility (-.05; 95%CI [-.234, .111]), perceived supervisor support (-.01; 95%CI [-.096, .062]), or perceived success (-.05; 95%CI [-.241, .114]). Thus,
Hypothesis 2 was not supported. However, even when controlling for supervisors’ IPT and relational-oriented behaviors, as well as favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since the appraisal interview, task-oriented behaviors significantly predicted employees’ satisfaction with their performance appraisal session \((b = .78, p < .001)\), perceived utility \((b = .56, p < .001)\), and perceived success \((b = .57, p < .001)\), but not perceived supervisor support \((b = .12, p = .330)\).

In Hypothesis 3, predicted that supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors would mediate the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and the four employee reactions to the appraisal interview. There was not a significant indirect effect (i.e., the 95% confidence interval crossed 0) of supervisors’ IPT, via their reported relational-oriented behaviors, on satisfaction with the session \((-0.02; 95\%CI [-.203, .066])\), perceived utility \((-0.00; 95\%CI [-.099, .038])\), perceived supervisor support \((-0.03; 95\%CI [-.234, .072])\), or perceived success \((-0.02; 95\%CI [-.226, .048])\). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was also not supported. However, even when controlling for supervisors’ IPT and task-oriented behaviors, as well as favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since the appraisal interview, relational-oriented behaviors significantly predicted employees’ supervisor support \((b = .44, p = .022)\), but not perceived success \((b = .29, p = .157)\), satisfaction with their performance appraisal session \((b = .22, p = .347)\), or perceived utility \((b = .05, p = .729)\).

In Hypothesis 4, we predicted that supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors would be a stronger mediator of the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employees’ satisfaction with the appraisal interview than supervisor’ task-oriented behaviors. There was not a significant pairwise comparison between specific indirect effects, such that the indirect effect via supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors was significantly higher than the indirect effect via supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors, \(.06; 95\%CI [-.216, .284]\). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was also not supported. In fact, supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors were significantly and more strongly
predictive of employees’ satisfaction with the session ($b = .78, p < .001$) than relational-oriented behaviors and satisfaction ($b = .22, p = .347$).

In Hypothesis 5, we predicted that supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors would be a stronger mediator of the relationship between supervisors’ IPT and employees’ perceived utility of the appraisal interview than supervisor’ relational-oriented behaviors. Again, there was not a significant pairwise comparison between specific indirect effects, such that the indirect effect via supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors was significantly higher than the indirect effect via supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors, .05; 95%CI [-.135, .229]. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported. However, supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors were significantly and more strongly predictive of employees’ perceived utility of the appraisal interview ($b = .55, p < .001$) than relational-oriented behaviors and perceived utility ($b = .05, p = .729$).

**Discussion**

Contrary to our hypotheses, supervisors’ IPT was not related to any of the employee reactions. Furthermore, the relationships between supervisors’ IPT and both task- and relational-oriented supervisor behaviors were also not significant. This suggests that supervisors’ beliefs about whether people can change may not manifest within performance appraisals interviews, perhaps because they are so narrow in scope and often follow a pre-determined structure.

Interestingly, favorability of the rating(s)/feedback was a strong predictor of relational-oriented behaviors, ($b = .77, p < .001$). This finding suggests that employees’ perception of how their supervisor behaved interpersonally may have been interpreted by employees through a lens determined by whether they received positive or negative feedback. It also may be possible, however, that supervisors allotted less time during the appraisal interview to engage in relational-
oriented behaviors toward employees who were lower performers, opting to maximize the time
to provide these low-performers with task-related feedback to improve future performance.

Supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors did not mediate the relationship between
supervisors’ IPT and employee reactions; however, task-oriented behaviors was significantly
related to satisfaction, as well as perceived utility and success, but not perceived supervisor
support within the appraisal interview. The positive predictive relationships between task-
oriented behaviors and satisfaction, utility, and success were expected. Because the main purpose
of performance appraisal interviews is often to provide job-related performance feedback, clarify
roles, and set future goals, it follows that employees would be most satisfied and view the
appraisal interview as most useful and successful when their supervisors engaged more in
behaviors that align with the purpose of these feedback sessions to a higher degree. Contrary to
our prediction, however, task-oriented behaviors was not related to perceived supervisor support.
It appears that even if supervisors display high levels of task-oriented behaviors such as working
with employees to set goals and professional development plans, this still does not necessarily
demonstrate to employees that their supervisor is supportive. In fact, supervisors’ relational-
oriented behaviors was the only significant predictor of perceived supervisor support, which
suggests that only supervisor behaviors such as interpersonally encouraging employees and
allowing them voice in appraisal interviews seem to show employees that their supervisor is
supporting them in these feedback sessions.

Additionally, task-oriented behaviors was also a significant and strong predictor of
perceived utility, while relational-oriented behaviors was not. This finding suggests that
employees find their performance appraisal interviews more useful when their supervisors
provide them with task-related feedback, but behaviors such as encouragement to participate in
the conversation and empowering employees to take initiative are seen as less useful within appraisal interviews. Contrary to our fourth hypothesis, the same pattern was observed for the relationship between task-oriented behaviors and satisfaction. It appears that employees are also most satisfied with their performance appraisal interview when they receive task-related feedback that aligns with the main purpose of these feedback sessions. Although not reaching significance with this small sample when controlling for task-oriented behaviors and covariates, relational-oriented behaviors do appear to have at least some impact on employees’ satisfaction, \((b = .22, p = .347)\). Overall, we found that supervisors’ task-oriented and relational-oriented behaviors differentially predicted relationships with the employee reaction outcomes.


STUDY 2

Because we had a small usable sample of supervisors-employee dyads in Study 1, which likely resulted in low power to find significant effects, we recruited a secondary convenience sample of supervisors to examine our proposed hypotheses. We again assessed supervisors’ IPT but had the supervisors indicate the extent to which they engaged in task-oriented and relational-oriented behaviors within their last set of performance appraisal interviews with their employees, as well as report their reactions to this last set of appraisal interviews (i.e., satisfaction with session, perceived utility, and supervisor perceived support). We included all but one of the outcomes measures from Study 1 in this second study. Specifically, we dropped the outcome of perceived success because it appeared to be confounded with satisfaction and perceived utility (e.g., $r = .75$ and $0.83$, respectively, in Study 1). While this procedure does not perfectly map onto our hypotheses and is not without limitations, we believe that it provides an important glimpse into the perspective and attitudes supervisors have in regard to performance appraisal interviews. Specifically, this procedure allows us to answers a recent call by researchers for a focus on supervisor reactions to performance management, as they have been studied much less than employee reactions but have been linked to important performance management outcomes such as supervisor transfer and learning (Schleicher et al., 2019). Overall, this second study’s purpose was to examine the relationships between supervisors’ IPT and how they recall behaving across appraisal interviews, as well as how they react to their sets of appraisal interviews more generally.
Methods

Participants

We recruited 209 participants through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk platform. The same logic for utilizing an online panel, specifically Mechanical Turk, was the rationale for utilizing this platform for Study 2. Additionally, Mechanical Turk was specifically chosen because of the availability of a qualification that allows for screening of participants to ensure they are currently employed full-time and a supervisor at their organization. We utilized three attention checks to ensure the quality of the data (e.g., “If you are paying attention, please select strongly agree”). Twelve participants were excluded for failing one or more attention check. Additionally, 15 participants were excluded because they indicated that they worked full-time in our initial qualifying questions, but indicated they worked part-time in our question about employment status near the end of the survey. Overall, 27 participants were excluded for a final sample of 182 supervisors: 106 males (58.2%) and 76 females (41.8%); 127 White/Caucasian (69.83%), 19 Black/African American (10.4%), 12 East Asian (6.6%), 6 Hispanic (3.3%), 4 South Asian (2.2%), 1 Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (.5%), 2 Other (1.1), and 11 were Multiracial (6.0%). The average age of the sample was 38.8 (SD = 10.3), and the average tenure was 8.4 years (SD = 6.3).

Procedure

For Study 2, we utilized a cross-sectional survey design. On Mechanical Turk, the survey was advertised as a study examining supervisors’ perceptions of performance appraisals, and participants were compensated $1.00 for their participation. Qualifiers were in place to ensure that the sample consisted of individuals who were residents of the United States, were a
minimum of 18 years of age, were currently employed full time, and were currently employed as a supervisor/manager. After answering these qualifying questions, participants completed the following measures in random order: IPT, relational-oriented appraisal interview behaviors, task-oriented appraisal interview behaviors, satisfaction with session, perceived utility of appraisal interviews, and supervisor perceived support. All items were reworded slightly to be applicable to supervisors instead of employees. Perceived success of the appraisal interviews was not included because it was found to be highly related to the other reaction measures in Study 1 and appears to be particularly confounded with the satisfaction with session and perceived utility measures. For every set of items besides those assessing IPT, participants were asked to recall their most recent set of performance appraisal interviews with their employees.

Measures

**Implicit Person Theory.** The eight-item, “Kind-of-Person” scale developed by Levy and Dweck (1997) was used again to assess supervisors’ implicit person theory. Because this is a general measure of IPT, no items needed to be reworded to be relevant to supervisors. Internal consistency reliability was similar to Study 1 ($\alpha = .93; M = 3.87, SD = 1.10$).

**Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors.** The same two-dimensional measure of supervisor appraisal interview behaviors that was used in Study 1 was used for Study 2. Eleven items assessed task-oriented supervisor behaviors, while seven items assessed relational-oriented supervisor behaviors. Items were reworded to be relevant to supervisors. For instance, the task-oriented item, “My supervisor provided suggestions to improve my performance,” was changed to, “I provided suggestions to improve my employees’ performance.” Internal consistency
reliability was similar to the pilot and Study 1 for both the task-oriented subscale \( (\alpha = .90; M = 5.12, SD = 0.70) \) and the relational-oriented subscale \( (\alpha = .89; M = 5.22, SD = 0.71) \).

**Satisfaction with Session.** Giles and Mossholders’ (1990) three-item measure was used again to assess supervisors’ satisfaction with their last set of appraisal interviews. Items were reworded to be relevant to supervisors. For instance, the item, “I felt quite satisfied with my last review discussion,” was changed to, “I felt quite satisfied with my last set of review discussions.” Internal consistency reliability was similar to Study 1 \( (\alpha = .87; M = 5.07, SD = 0.82) \).

**Perceived Utility.** Greller’s (1978) four-item measure was used again to assess supervisors’ perceived utility of their last set of appraisal interviews. Items were reworded to be relevant to supervisors. For instance, the item, “The performance review helped me learn how I can do my job better,” was changed to, “The performance reviews helped my employees learn how they can do their jobs better.” Internal consistency reliability was found to be similar in Study 1 \( (\alpha = .88; M = 3.12, SD = 0.68) \).

**Supervisor Perceived Support.** To assess the extent to which supervisors believed they showed support to their employees within their last set of appraisal interviews, we utilized the same perceived supervisor support measure from Study 1 [i.e., a translated version of a German subscale taken from a goal-setting questionnaire, developed by Putz and Lehner (2002)]. Items were reworded to be relevant to supervisors; thus, we refer to this construct as ‘supervisor perceived support’ for Study 2. For instance, the item, “My supervisor encourages me when I have trouble reaching a goal,” was changed to, “I encouraged my employees when they had
trouble reaching a goal.” Internal consistency reliability was assessed and to be found similar to the pilot and Study 1 (\(\alpha = .82; M = 4.27, SD = .60\)).

**Control Variables.** We controlled for supervisors’ job tenure, as experience may be a confounding variable. Additionally, we again included a single-item measure asking supervisors to indicate the approximate time since their last set of performance appraisal interviews \([0 = I haven’t had any with my current employees (not selected by any participant); 1 = 0-2 months; 7 = 12+ months]\) to use as another covariate.

**Results**

We utilized confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to compare alternative theoretical models for the supervisor appraisal interview behaviors measure. Given that the dimensions of task-oriented supervisor behaviors and relational-oriented supervisor behaviors were highly correlated in Study 1 \((r = .71, p < .001)\), CFA allowed us to test whether a more parsimonious one-factor model or the hypothesized two-factor model of supervisor appraisal interview behaviors had better model fit. The two-factor model demonstrated adequate fit: \(\chi^2 (134) = 285.66, p < .001, CFI = .912\) (recommended cut-off \(\geq .95\)), and RMSEA = .08 (recommended cut-off \(\leq .06\)). Further, the hypothesized two-factor model demonstrated better model fit than a one-factor model of supervisor appraisal interview behaviors (See Tables 4-5).

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlation coefficients, and Cronbach’s alphas for each measure are reported in Table 6. To test our hypothesized parallel mediation models, we again utilized Hayes’ (2018) Process Macro Model 4 and 10,000 bootstrap samples. We inputted supervisors’ IPT as a predictor variable, the three supervisor reactions as the outcome variables, and task- and relational-oriented supervisor appraisal interview behaviors as mediators of these
relationships. Additionally, we included supervisor tenure and time since the set of appraisal interviews as covariates. We ran three separate parallel mediation models (see Figures 6-8)—one for each outcome variable—and tied these together using the seed function in PROCESS, which ensured that we are using the same bootstrap samples across testing the models. We also compared the indirect effects of supervisors’ IPT on their satisfaction with and perceived utility of the appraisal interview via relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors to determine whether one mediator is a significantly stronger predictor of each supervisor reaction than the other (Hypotheses 4 and 5), which was done using Hayes’ (2018) Process Macro.

In Hypothesis 1, we predicted that supervisors’ IPT would be positively related to their reactions to their last set of appraisal interviews, such that supervisors who held more incremental views would report more positive reactions to their last set of appraisal interviews than supervisors who held more entity views. To test this hypothesis, we examined the bivariate correlation coefficients between supervisors’ IPT and our three supervisor reaction variables. IPT was significantly related to perceived utility ($r = .20, p < .001$), but not significantly related to satisfaction with the session ($r = .04, p = .630$) or supervisor perceived support ($r = .08, p = .309$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported. Unlike in Study 1, all relationships between supervisors’ IPT and reactions were positive.

In Hypothesis 2, we predicted that supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors would mediate the relationship between their IPT and the three supervisor reactions to their last set of appraisal interviews. Results suggest that there was a significant indirect effect (i.e., the 95% confidence interval did not cross 0) of supervisors’ IPT, via their reported task-oriented behaviors, on their satisfaction (.06; 95%CI [.002, .142]), perceived utility (.05; 95%CI [.002, .118]), and perceived
amount of supervisor support they showed their employee (.03; 95%CI [.001, .062]) in their last set of performance appraisal interviews. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

In Hypothesis 3, we predicted that supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors would mediate the relationship between their IPT and the three supervisor reactions to their last set of appraisal interviews. There was not a significant indirect effect (i.e., the 95% confidence interval crossed 0) of supervisors’ IPT, via their reported relational-oriented behaviors, on their reported satisfaction (.01; 95%CI [-.011, .041]), perceived utility (-.00; 95%CI [-.019, .019]), or perceived support (.03; 95%CI [-.001, .073]). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported. However, even when controlling for supervisors’ IPT and task-oriented behaviors, as well as favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since the appraisal interview, relational-oriented behaviors significantly predicted supervisor perceived support ($b = .41, p < .001$).

In Hypothesis 4, we predicted that supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors would be a stronger mediator of the relationship between their IPT and satisfaction with their last set of appraisal interviews than task-oriented behaviors. There was not a significant pairwise comparison between specific indirect effects, such that the indirect effect via supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors was significantly higher than the indirect effect via supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors, -.05; 95%CI [-.141, .006]. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported. In fact, supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors were significantly and more strongly predictive of their satisfaction with their last set of appraisal interviews ($b = .67, p < .001$) than relational-oriented behaviors and satisfaction ($b = .11, p = .255$). Further, task-oriented behaviors was a significant mediator of the IPT-satisfaction relationship, while relational-oriented behaviors was not.

In Hypothesis 5, we predicted that supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors would be a stronger mediator of the relationship between their IPT and perceived utility of their last set of
appraisal interviews than relational-oriented behaviors. Again, there was not a significant pairwise comparison between specific indirect effects, such that the indirect effect via supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors was significantly higher than the indirect effect via supervisors’ relational-oriented behaviors, -.05; 95%CI [-.130, .001]. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was also not supported. However, supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors were significantly and more strongly predictive of their perceived utility of their last set of appraisal interviews ($b = .57, p < .001$) than relational-oriented behaviors and perceived utility ($b = -.00, p = .970$).

**Discussion**

In Study 2, supervisors’ IPT was found to be positively and significantly related to perceived utility, but not significantly related to satisfaction with the session or supervisor perceived support. While not reaching significance, the latter two relationships were positively trending. These findings suggest that supervisors with more incremental beliefs also believe performance appraisal interviews are more useful than those with more entity beliefs. However, these IPT beliefs do not appear to directly impact satisfaction or the perceived extent of support they show their employees during the appraisal interview. Further, supervisors’ IPT was significantly related to their reported task-oriented behaviors ($r = .15, p = .046$), suggesting that supervisors with more incremental beliefs report engaging in more task-oriented behaviors, perhaps because they believe people can change and actively work with their employees to give task-related feedback to improve performance.

Results also suggest that there was a significant indirect effect of supervisors’ IPT, via their reported task-oriented behaviors, on their satisfaction, perceived utility, and perceived amount of supervisor support they showed their employees in their last set of performance appraisal interviews. These results suggest that task-oriented behaviors may be the explanatory
mechanism for the correlation between supervisors’ IPT and their perceptions of utility of their last set of appraisal interviews. On the other hand, supervisors’ IPT was not correlated with satisfaction and support, but the indirect relationships observed with task-oriented behaviors as the mediator suggests that the way supervisors engage in task behaviors may be the important mechanism by which supervisors’ IPT works to influence these reactions.

Contrarily, relational-oriented supervisor behaviors in the appraisal interview did not mediate the relationships between supervisors’ IPT and any of the supervisor reaction outcomes—satisfaction, utility, or supervisor perceived support. However, the confidence interval for the indirect effect of supervisors’ IPT on supervisor perceived support via relational-oriented behaviors did approach significance. Furthermore, there was a significant predictive relationship between relational-oriented behaviors and support, as well as between task-oriented behaviors and support. Interestingly, these findings suggest that while supervisors view relational-oriented behaviors as relatively more supportive, they seem to view displaying higher levels of both types of behaviors as showing support to their employees within these feedback sessions.
GENERAL DISCUSSION

With the recent resurgence of research in the area of performance management and the general agreement that the current state of performance management is not optimally effective, practitioners (e.g., Pulakos & O’Leary, 2011) and scholars (e.g., Levy et al., 2018; Schleicher et al., 2019) alike have begun to dissuade future researchers from continuing to test how incremental changes to performance management systems impact effectiveness. Rather, they argue for a shift in research to focus on the social context of performance management, interpersonal processes nested within performance management, and how exactly supervisors implement performance management practices. Extant research has largely ignored the impact supervisor factors can have on performance management effectiveness; thus, we investigated how supervisor individual differences impact the way they implement performance management practices (e.g., performance appraisal interviews). In particular, the aim of these studies was to examine how supervisors’ IPT impacts the way they behave in performance appraisal interviews and in turn, impacts reactions to these appraisal interviews. To our knowledge, this is only the second study (see Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011) to link supervisors’ IPT to subsequent reactions to performance appraisal interviews and one of few studies to investigate the role of IPT in organizational contexts more broadly. We were also able to partially replicate findings of Meinecke and colleagues (2017) by incorporating the framework of task- and relational-oriented behaviors and the reaction measures utilized by these researchers. Further, we extended their model by examining supervisors’ IPT as an antecedent to their behaviors within appraisal interviews.
Similar to Heslin and VandeWalle (2011), we were able to link supervisors’ IPT to appraisal interview reactions. In particular, we were able to demonstrate that supervisors’ IPT impacts supervisors’ own reactions toward appraisal interviews through their task-oriented and relational-oriented behaviors as outlined in Yukl et al. (2002) and used as a framework in Meinecke et al. (2017). In both of our studies, we observed similar patterns of results in regard to which type of supervisor behavior category was predictive of each reaction to the appraisal interviews. However, supervisors’ IPT was only found to be directly related to supervisor behaviors and reactions in Study 2, where we only collected data from a larger sample of supervisors, which increased power to find smaller effects but may have simultaneously increased common method bias. Specifically, while supervisors’ IPT was not significantly related to any outcome or behavioral category measured in Study 1, supervisors’ IPT was significantly related to supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors and perceived utility of appraisal interviews in Study 2.

These relationships suggest that incremental supervisors who believe people can change and develop report engaging in more task-oriented behaviors, likely because they hold beliefs that their employees’ performance can improve over time and actively work to provide their employees with task-related feedback to facilitate such performance improvement. This finding aligns with past literature that has shown that incremental individuals give more and further elaborated feedback (Heyman & Dweck, 1998), engage in more coaching behaviors (Heslin et al., 2006), and have growth mindsets associated with transformational leadership (Kam et al., 2014). Further, it supports our argument that incremental supervisors see more value in performance appraisal interviews, just as they have been found to perceive lower costs and higher value in feedback-seeking than entity individuals (Study 2; Heslin & VandeWalle, 2005).
Specifically, appraisal interviews provide a normative and structured context in which supervisors can provide this valuable task-oriented feedback to help improve employee performance, while also inciting relatively low interpersonal costs because feedback is expected to be given in these supervisor-employee meetings.

Moreover, in our parallel mediations models controlling for covariates, supervisors’ IPT was also marginally significantly predictive of relational-oriented behaviors. This finding aligns with research that shows incremental supervisors tend to ask for more input and feedback from their subordinates, as well as see the value of employee participation for enhancing the quality of the appraisal interview (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2005), which are the voice elements captured by relational-oriented behaviors. Interestingly, favorability of rating(s)/feedback was a stronger predictor of relational-oriented behaviors than supervisors’ IPT when included as a covariate in Study 1. It seems that employees differentially reported the extent to which their supervisors engaged in relational-oriented behaviors based on whether they received more positive or more negative feedback. This may be a way that employees who receive less favorable rating(s)/feedback justify their negative feedback—by believing or reporting that their supervisor is less relational. Essentially, they may work to alleviate the dissonance associated with receiving negative feedback when they may have been expecting more average or positive feedback. On the other hand, it is certainly possible that supervisors engage in less relational-oriented behaviors during appraisal interviews with low-performers because they utilize the time to focus on providing these employees with a high amount of task-related feedback to maximize performance improvement.

Further, we observed that supervisors’ task- and relational-oriented behaviors differentially predicted appraisal interview reactions and that the strongest relationships were
between supervisors’ task-oriented behaviors and reactions to appraisal interviews. In particular, we observed similar patterns in both studies where higher displays of task-oriented behaviors significantly predicted higher satisfaction with and higher perceived utility of performance appraisal interviews. A significant relationship between task-oriented behaviors and satisfaction with session was expected because it aligns with previous literature showing that behaviors such as discussing plans and objectives (Dipboye & de Pontebriand, 1981) clearing up job problems (Burke et al., 1978) and goal-setting (Giles & Mossholder, 1990; Greller, 1975; Nemeroff & Wexley, 1979) are related to high satisfaction with appraisal interviews. However, we predicted that relational-oriented behaviors would have a stronger relationship with satisfaction than task-oriented behaviors—a hypothesis not confirmed in either of our studies—because people tend to like and be satisfied with relational and considerate leaders more than those who initiate structure (Judge et al., 2004). In particular, we were surprised that participation and voice, which was captured by our relational-oriented behaviors measure, did not play a stronger role in impacting satisfaction with the appraisal interview because of the numerous studies linking voice with satisfaction with the appraisal session (e.g., Burke et al., 1978; Cawley et al., 1998; Dobbin et al., 1990; Greller, 1975; Nemeroff & Wexley, 1979). In particular, our findings seem to contrast Wexley and colleagues’ (1973) findings that employees were least satisfied with supervisors who allowed minimal participation and instead, provided employees with positive and negative feedback regarding their performance and persuaded them to utilize this feedback to improve performance. It is possible that in Study 1, using MBA students as a sample could explain our findings, as these students are likely high performers in the workplace who are focused on gathering valuable task-related feedback. Additionally, within the context of performance appraisal interviews, which have the main purpose of providing valuable performance feedback
(Byrne, 2015), it does make sense that employees and supervisors would be most satisfied when high levels of task-oriented behaviors were displayed and thus, the main purpose of the feedback session was met.

The strong positive relationship between task-oriented behaviors and perceived utility was predicted because the main purpose of appraisal interviews is to provide employees with useful feedback about their task performance (Byrne, 2015), and multiple past studies support this relationship. In fact, there is much literature to support the notion that task-oriented behaviors such as resolving job problems and setting future goals (Burke et al., 1978), discussing career development (Nathan et al., 1991), and suggesting performance improvement strategies (Jawahar, 2010) are related to perceived utility of the performance appraisal interview. Thus, this strong relationship between task-oriented behaviors and utility was expected and aligns with previous literature. However, the non-significant predictive relationships between relational-oriented behaviors and perceived utility in both Study 1 and Study 2 contradict previous research suggesting that performance appraisals and feedback conversations are more effective and useful when employees participate and have voice (Cawley et al., 1998; Elicker et al., 2006; Lizzio et al., 2008; Nathan et al., 1991). It seems that from both the employee and supervisor perspective, task-oriented behaviors may be seen as more useful than relational-oriented behaviors within the appraisal interview context.

Unexpectedly, the indirect effect of supervisors’ IPT on perceived supervisor support through relational-oriented behaviors was not significant in either study, although it approached significance in Study 2. As expected, however, relational-oriented behaviors directly predicted perceived supervisor support in both studies. These findings align with previous literature, which found that relational-oriented supervisor statements predicted employees’ perceived supervisor
support within the context of the appraisal interview (Meinecke et al., 2017). In particular, it seems that employees feel most supported when encouraged and given voice during their appraisal interviews, and supervisors may feel that they are being supportive of their employees when they engage in these relational-oriented behaviors. Interestingly, task-oriented behaviors also significantly predicted perceived support, but only from the supervisors’ perspective. It appears that while supervisors believe displaying high levels of both task- and relational-oriented behaviors is showing support to their employees within performance appraisal interviews, employees seem to interpret and view relational-oriented behaviors as most supportive.

Although perceived success was only included in Study 1 due to construct overlap with the other reaction measures, perceived success of the appraisal interview also was predicted by task-oriented behaviors. This does not align with Meinecke et al. (2017), who found that task-oriented supervisor statements did not predict perceived success of the appraisal interview, but rather found that relational-oriented supervisor statements positively predict employees’ perceived success. Further, it only partially aligns with Dipboye and de Pontbriand’s (1981) findings that discussion of plans and objectives, as well as the opportunity to participate predicted a similarly broad reaction construct, “opinion of the appraisal,” but goal-setting did not. Overall, the relationships between supervisors’ task- and relational-oriented statements and behaviors with “perceived success” as a reaction to appraisal interviews appear to contradict past literature and may warrant further research to establish the exact nature of these relationships. However, the broad nature of the “perceived success” construct may be problematic and confounded by more specific reaction measures, which may warrant use of the more traditional and narrow reaction measures (i.e., satisfaction and utility) in future research.
Implications

Past research has relatively ignored the role of supervisor individual differences in the performance appraisal interview process. However, the results of this study show that supervisor’ IPT is an individual difference that can help explain uneven performance management outcomes. Specifically, we were able to expand IPT’s nomological network by demonstrating that supervisors’ IPT impacts the way they behave and implement their formal appraisal interviews, which can influence reactions and subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Overall, it seems that some of the variance in reactions and overall effectiveness of performance appraisals may be attributable to supervisors’ IPT and their behaviors.

The results of this study have practical implications as well. Extant literature has shown that IPT can be manipulated (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999; Levy et al., 1998) and that this manipulation can last up to six weeks (Heslin et al., 2005). Therefore, because incrementalism was connected to displaying higher levels of task- and relational-oriented behaviors by supervisors, which predicted more positive reactions and outcomes for both employees and supervisors, it may be desirable to induce incrementalism in managers before they have these appraisal interview conversations. However, because supervisors’ IPT was a relatively weak predictor of behaviors and reactions but supervisor behaviors were strongly predictive of positive reactions from both employees and supervisors, companies may want to target the behaviors themselves. Specifically, organizations could opt to train supervisors to actively engage in both task- and relational-oriented behaviors because they lead to more positive PA outcomes. Furthermore, since task-oriented supervisor behaviors were more strongly related to positive reactions, organizations may want to specifically focus on training supervisors to display these behaviors within appraisal interviews. Overall, although transformational and
relational leadership are often touted as superior to transactional and task-oriented leadership, ensuring supervisors display higher levels of task-oriented behaviors when conducting PA interviews appears to be especially beneficial for performance management effectiveness.

Limitations

We attempted to gain permission to record appraisal interviews, similar to the procedure of Meinecke et al. (2017), to objectively measure supervisor appraisal interview behaviors but were not able to because of privacy concerns. Therefore, we must rely on self-report measures that are fallible. Further, this limitation may have been exacerbated by the distance between the time of the appraisal interview and the time we collected our data. The longer the period between the appraisal interview and survey administration, the less accurate the data may be. While we aimed to control for the time between the appraisal interview and data collection, we are again relying on self-report for this covariate and may not be able to perfectly control for this time gap. Additionally, supervisors’ IPT may have changed slightly between the appraisal interview and the time they reported their IPT; however, past literature has found that IPT is relatively stable over one year ($r = .72$) and over three years ($r = .64$; Robins & Pals, 2002), so this is not a major concern.

Further, we had a small sample size in Study 1 because of the nature of the data, requiring dyads to participate. We aimed to collect data from 100 supervisor-employee dyads, but we did not meet this desired sample size to achieve adequate power. Thus, we recruited another sample to test our hypotheses; however, this second study also has limitations such as being cross-sectional and having supervisors report their own behaviors and reactions to their most recent set of performance appraisal interviews. With this procedure, there is concern about common method bias and whether supervisors accurately reflected on their own behaviors. However, we
did observe variability in supervisors’ reports regarding the extent to which they engaged in task- and relational-oriented behaviors in their last set of performance appraisal interviews, which reduces our concerns about social desirability bias and ceiling effects.

Additionally, while the newly developed supervisor appraisal interview behaviors measure worked relatively well to capture these types of behaviors, the subscales were highly correlated. Further, two items related to goal-setting and development that conceptually aligned with Yukl and colleagues’ (2002) relational-oriented behaviors meta-category loaded onto the task-oriented behavior factor. Therefore, the factor structure of this measure may be a point of refinement in future studies, or perhaps there is a better way to categorize supervisor behaviors that may be influenced by IPT (i.e., focal and discretionary behaviors).

Lastly, another potential limitation may be high correlations among our appraisal reaction measures, which would raise concerns that we are essentially measuring the same or similar constructs with our outcome measures. However, Keeping and Levy (2000) tested measurement models for appraisal reactions and found that while correlated, appraisal reactions are still distinct. Further, they found good model fit with a hierarchical model that included “appraisal reactions” as a higher order factor. Thus, it appears appraisal reactions are similar, yet distinct and comprise the broader construct of appraisal reactions. Of note, perceived supervisor support and perceived success were not tested in these models, as they are relatively newer appraisal reaction measures and were utilized in this study to replicate previous findings. Perceived success of the interview, in particular, considerably overlapped with the other three reaction measures, likely due to its more general and broad nature; thus, it was not included as an outcome measure in Study 2. Overall, we expected our appraisal reaction measures to be
correlated and reflective of appraisal reactions, which is considered analogous to the ultimate criterion of appraisal effectiveness (Keeping & Levy, 2000).

**Future Research**

Future research could aim to replicate Study 1 with a larger sample, as this would increase power to find smaller effects and the utilized methodology was an ideal way to identify the relationships between supervisors’ IPT, supervisor behaviors, and employee reactions. Additionally, future research could investigate how manipulating IPT influences supervisor behaviors in the appraisal interview. Utilizing an experimental design to test an IPT intervention in this way could further establish the nature of the relationship between these variables and allow for more causal inferences.

Another stream of study may be to examine supervisor-employee IPT congruence. It is possible that both types of supervisor appraisal interview behaviors may be of little perceived value to either party if both supervisor and employee are entity theorists and can still result in relatively positive employee reactions. IPT may influence the type of feedback one gives and wants to receive, so IPT congruence could potentially be more important for achieving desired performance outcomes in comparison to supervisors’ showing both task- and relational-oriented behaviors. Further investigation into this possibility is warranted.

Because IPT is such a high-level and broad construct, differences in IPT may not fully manifest within performance appraisal interviews because these feedback sessions are generally infrequent and relatively structured. Instead, future researchers may want to investigate how IPT manifests within performance management more holistically and over time, such as in organizations that utilize continuous feedback structures. Furthermore, supervisors’ IPT may predict another individual difference of supervisors—commitment to performance management.
Incremental supervisors may see more value in and thus, be more affectively committed to performance management than entity supervisors. In turn, supervisors more affectively committed to performance management may engage more in both task- and relational-oriented behaviors. However, since performance management is a process rather than a single event (i.e., an appraisal interview), it may be helpful to investigate how supervisors’ IPT and commitment to performance management impacts the extent to which they engage in required performance management practices (e.g., focal behaviors) and extra-role behaviors (e.g., discretionary behaviors).
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Table 1. Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Factor Loadings for Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors Measure from Pilot Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task-Oriented Behaviors (α = .95)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My supervisor clarified my responsibilities.</td>
<td>4.22 (1.46)</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>-.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My supervisor defined my role in the organization.</td>
<td>4.25 (1.44)</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My supervisor made sure I understood their role in relation to my own.</td>
<td>4.31 (1.54)</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My supervisor provided suggestions to improve my performance.</td>
<td>4.18 (1.47)</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>-.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. My supervisor clarified task objectives.</td>
<td>4.39 (1.36)</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My supervisor engaged in problem-solving behavior to aid in task-efficiency.</td>
<td>4.02 (1.52)</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My supervisor clearly stated organizational expectations.</td>
<td>4.41 (1.40)</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. My supervisor provided suggestions regarding my professional development.</td>
<td>4.12 (1.63)</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. My supervisor encouraged me to/helped me to create a short-term plan.</td>
<td>3.78 (1.57)</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. My supervisor worked with me to set future goals.</td>
<td>4.17 (1.51)</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. My supervisor explained their ratings.</td>
<td>4.59 (1.45)</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relational-Oriented Behaviors (α = .93)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My supervisor showed appreciation for my contribution at work.</td>
<td>4.61 (1.50)</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My supervisor encouraged me personally.</td>
<td>4.51 (1.49)</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. My supervisor supported my contribution to the conversation.</td>
<td>4.56 (1.50)</td>
<td>-.00</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. My supervisor encouraged me to participate in the conversation.</td>
<td>4.59 (1.36)</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. My supervisor asked me for my opinion.</td>
<td>4.37 (1.52)</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. My supervisor showed concern for my personal welfare.</td>
<td>4.29 (1.58)</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. My supervisor empowered me to take initiative at work.</td>
<td>4.32 (1.49)</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 95*
Table 2. Descriptive Statistics, Reliabilities, and Factor Loadings for Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors Measure from Study 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task-Oriented Behaviors (α = .95)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>My supervisor:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) Encouraged me to/helped me to create a short-term plan.</td>
<td>4.00 (1.34)</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>-.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Provided suggestions to improve my performance.</td>
<td>4.23 (1.41)</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) Clarified task objectives.</td>
<td>4.15 (1.28)</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) Clearly stated organizational expectations.</td>
<td>4.10 (1.49)</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Clarified my responsibilities.</td>
<td>4.05 (1.30)</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) Provided suggestions regarding my professional development</td>
<td>4.42 (1.35)</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Made sure I understood their role in relation to my own.</td>
<td>4.05 (1.41)</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) Worked with me to set future goals.</td>
<td>4.27 (1.40)</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Engaged in problem-solving behavior to aid in task-efficiency</td>
<td>3.90 (1.44)</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Defined my role in the organization.</td>
<td>3.96 (1.29)</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11) Explained their ratings.</td>
<td>4.49 (1.38)</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relational-Oriented Behaviors (α = .91)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>My supervisor:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) Supported my contribution to the conversation.</td>
<td>4.74 (1.12)</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12) Showed appreciation for my contribution at work.</td>
<td>5.02 (1.22)</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(15) Encouraged me to participate in the conversation.</td>
<td>4.67 (1.28)</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13) Encouraged me personally.</td>
<td>4.62 (1.20)</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(17) Showed concern for my personal welfare.</td>
<td>4.30 (1.40)</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(16) Asked me for my opinion.</td>
<td>4.67 (1.31)</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18) Empowered me to take initiative at work.</td>
<td>4.69 (1.40)</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 84; Numbers in parentheses represent item numbers from Table 1*
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations among Measures in Study 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M (SD)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervisor Implicit Person Theory</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4.10 (0.98)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Relational-Oriented Behavior</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>4.68 (1.00)</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td>(.91)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Task-Oriented Behavior</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>4.16 (1.11)</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.71***</td>
<td>(.95)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Satisfaction with Session</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>4.29 (1.21)</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.52***</td>
<td>.66***</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived Utility</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2.36 (0.81)</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.68***</td>
<td>.68***</td>
<td>(.93)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Perceived Supervisor Support</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>3.82 (0.86)</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.54***</td>
<td>.50***</td>
<td>.59***</td>
<td>.51***</td>
<td>(.91)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Perceived Success</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>3.11 (1.05)</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.47***</td>
<td>.64***</td>
<td>.75***</td>
<td>.83***</td>
<td>.64***</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Supervisor Tenure</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17.52 (10.34)</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.35^</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Favorability of Rating(s)/Feedback</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>4.04 (0.79)</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.22^</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.22^</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Time Since PA</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>4.08 (1.50)</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>-.21^</td>
<td>-.25*</td>
<td>-.23^</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-.26*</td>
<td>-.36^</td>
<td>-.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ^p < .10, *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001; values in parentheses along the diagonal denote internal consistency reliabilities (α)
Table 4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for Comparing a 1-Factor and 2-Factor Model of Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors in Study 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/df</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>RMSEA CI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2-factor</td>
<td>285.66</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>(.066, .092)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-factor</td>
<td>395.95</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.848</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td>(.091, .115)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $N = 182$; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

Table 5. Chi-Square Difference Test for Comparing a 1-Factor and 2-Factor Model of Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behaviors in Study 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>AIC</th>
<th>BIC</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>$\chi^2$ diff</th>
<th>df diff</th>
<th>Pr (&gt;Chisq)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2-factor</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>7454.5</td>
<td>7473.1</td>
<td>285.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-factor</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>7562.8</td>
<td>7678.2</td>
<td>395.95</td>
<td>110.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt; 2.2e-16 ***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $N = 182$; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion
*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001
### Table 6. Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations among Measures in Study 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M (SD)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervisors’ Implicit Person Theory</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>3.87 (1.10)</td>
<td>(.92)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Relational-Oriented Behavior</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>5.22 (0.71)</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>(.89)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Task-Oriented Behavior</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>5.12 (0.70)</td>
<td>.15*</td>
<td>.72***</td>
<td>(.90)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Satisfaction with Session</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>5.07 (0.82)</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.51***</td>
<td>.63***</td>
<td>(.87)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Perceived Utility</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>3.12 (0.68)</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.44***</td>
<td>.61***</td>
<td>.62***</td>
<td>(.88)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Supervisor Perceived Support</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>4.27 (0.60)</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.69***</td>
<td>.62***</td>
<td>.60***</td>
<td>.41***</td>
<td>(.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Supervisor Tenure</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>8.38 (6.27)</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Time Since PA</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>3.46 (1.46)</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>-.15*</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .10, **p < .05, ***p < .01; values in parentheses along the diagonal denote internal consistency reliabilities (α)
Figure 1. Theoretical Model Depicting Proposed Parallel Mediation
Figure 2. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Employees’ Satisfaction with Session via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 1

$b = \text{the unstandardized regression coefficient.}$  
$^+ = p < .10$  $^* = p < .05$,  $^{**} = p < .01$,  $^{***} = p < .001$

Note: Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on employees’ satisfaction with session through both supervisors’ relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for employees’ perceived favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since most recent performance appraisal interview). The total effect of implicit person theory on satisfaction with session is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
Figure 3. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Employees’ Perceived Utility with Session via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 1

$b = \text{the unstandardized regression coefficient.}$

$\dagger = p < .10 \quad * = p < .05, \quad ** = p < .01, \quad *** = p < .001$

Note: Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on employees’ perceived utility of the appraisal interview through both supervisors’ relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for employees’ perceived favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since most recent performance appraisal interview). The total effect of implicit person theory on perceived utility is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
Figure 4. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Employees’ Perceived Supervisor Support via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 1

\[ b = \text{the unstandardized regression coefficient.} \]
\[ ^+ = p < .10 \quad ^* = p < .05, \quad ^{**} = p < .01, \quad ^{***} = p < .001 \]

Note: Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on employees’ perceptions of supervisor support within the appraisal interview through both supervisors’ relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for employees’ perceived favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since most recent performance appraisal interview). The total effect of implicit person theory on perceptions of supervisor support is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
Figure 5. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Employees’ Perceived Interview Success via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 1

\[ b = \text{the unstandardized regression coefficient.} \]

\[ + = p < .10 \quad * = p < .05 \quad ** = p < .01 \quad *** = p < .001 \]

Note: Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on employees’ perceived interview success through both supervisors’ relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for employees’ perceived favorability of rating(s)/feedback and time since most recent performance appraisal interview). The total effect of implicit person theory on perceived interview success is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
Figure 6. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Supervisor’s Satisfaction with Sessions via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 2

$b = \text{the unstandardized regression coefficient.}$

$^+ = p < .10^* = p < .05, ^{**} = p < .01, ^{***} = p < .001$

Note: Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on their satisfaction with their last set of performance appraisal interviews through both their reported relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for the supervisors’ tenure and time since most recent set of performance appraisal interviews). The total effect of implicit person theory on satisfaction with sessions is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
Figure 7. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Supervisor’ Perceived Utility via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 2

\[ b = \text{the unstandardized regression coefficient.} \]
\[ + = p < .10 \quad * = p < .05, \quad ** = p < .01, \quad *** = p < .001 \]

\textbf{Relational-Oriented Behaviors}
Indirect effect = -.00; 95%CI [-.019, .019]

\[ b = .08^+ \]
\[ b = .07^+, p = .072 \]
\[ (b = .12^{**}) \]
\[ b = .00 \]

\[ b = .10^* \]

\textbf{Task-Oriented Behaviors}
Indirect effect = .05; 95%CI [.002, .118]

\[ b = .57^{***} \]

\textbf{Note:} Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on the perceived utility of their last set of performance appraisal interviews through both their reported relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for the supervisors’ tenure and time since most recent set of performance appraisal interviews). The total effect of implicit person theory on perceived utility is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
Figure 8. Mediated Effect of Supervisors’ IPT on Supervisor’ Perceived Support via Supervisors’ Task and Relational Behaviors, Study 2

\[ b = .08^+ \]
\[ b = .10^* \]
\[ b = .02, p = .602 \] (\( b = .04 \))
\[ b = .41^{***} \]
\[ b = .26^{***} \]

Note: Parallel mediational model testing the indirect effect of supervisors’ implicit person theory on their perceptions regarding the extent to which they were supportive of their employees in their last set of performance appraisal interviews through both their reported relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors (controlling for the supervisors’ tenure and time since most recent set of performance appraisal interviews). The total effect of implicit person theory on supervisor perceived support is shown in parenthesis, and the direct effect (i.e., the effect of implicit person theory controlling for relational-oriented and task-oriented behaviors) is shown without parenthesis.
APPENDIX

“Kind-of-Person” Scale (IPT Measure; Levy & Dweck, 1997)

Scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Moderately Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>Moderately Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Entity Items (reverse score):

1. As much as I hate to admit it, you can’t teach an old dog new tricks. People can’t really change their deepest attributes.
2. Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much they can really change about that.
3. The kind of person someone is, is something basic about them, and it can't be changed very much.
4. People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.

Incremental Items:

5. Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.
6. People can substantially change the kind of person they are.
7. No matter what kind of person someone is, they can always change very much.
8. People can change even their most basic qualities.
Supervisor Appraisal Interview Behavior Measure

Scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Moderately Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>Moderately Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task-Oriented Behavior Items:

My Supervisor:

1. Clarified my responsibilities.
2. Defined my role in the organization.
3. Made sure I understood their role in relation to my own.
4. Clarified task objectives.
5. Provided suggestions to improve my performance.
7. Clearly stated organizational expectations.
8. Provided me with suggestions regarding my professional development.
9. Encouraged me to/helped me to create a short-term plan.
10. Worked with me to set future goals.
11. Explained their ratings.

Relational-Oriented Behavior Items:

My Supervisor:

12. Showed appreciation for my contribution at work.
13. Encouraged me personally.
14. Supported my contribution to the conversation.
15. Encouraged me to participate in the conversation.
16. Asked me for my opinion.
17. Showed concern for my personal welfare.
18. Empowered me to take initiative at work.
Satisfaction with Session (Giles & Mossholder, 1990)

Scale:

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Moderately Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Disagree</td>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
<td>Moderately Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items:

1. I felt quite satisfied with my last review discussion.
2. I feel good about the way the last review discussion was conducted.
3. My manager conducts a very effective review discussion with me.
Perceived Utility (Greller, 1978)

Scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I do not feel this way at all, not at all</td>
<td>I feel somewhat like this, a little</td>
<td>I feel generally like this, pretty much</td>
<td>I feel exactly this way, completely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items:

1. The performance review helped me learn how I can do my job better.
2. I learned a lot from the performance review.
3. The performance review helped me understand my mistakes.
4. I have a clearer idea of what my manager expects from me because of the performance review.
Perceived Supervisor Support

An adapted version of a subscale of the German goal-setting questionnaire (Putz & Lehner, 2002; used in Meinecke et al., 2017)

Scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nearly Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>About half the time</th>
<th>Most of the Time</th>
<th>Nearly Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Translated German Items:

1. My supervisor is supportive with respect to encouraging me to reach my goals.
2. In conversations with my supervisor about my performance, solving problems is more important to him/her than criticizing.
3. In conversations with my supervisor about my performance, my supervisor listens to my explanations and concerns about performance issues without bias.
4. In conversations with my supervisor about my performance, my supervisor and I come to an agreement on how to progressively resolve performance issues.
5. My supervisor lets me down when I have trouble reaching a goal. (r)

Final Measure:

1. My supervisor is supportive with respect to encouraging me to reach my goals.
2. In conversations with my supervisor about my performance, solving problems is more important to him/her than criticizing.
3. In conversations with my supervisor about my performance, my supervisor listens to my explanations and concerns about performance issues without bias.
4. In conversations with my supervisor about my performance, my supervisor and I come to an agreement on how to progressively resolve performance issues.
5. My supervisor encourages me when I have trouble reaching a goal.
**Perceived Interview Success**

An adapted version of a German scale developed to measure training success (Kauffeld, Brennecke, & Strack, 2009; used in Meinecke et al., 2017)

**Scale:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>A little bit</td>
<td>Somewhat</td>
<td>Quite a bit</td>
<td>Very Much So</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Translated German Items:**

1. I will keep the appraisal interview in good memory.
2. I enjoyed the appraisal interview very much.
3. The appraisal interview is very beneficial to my work.
4. Participation in the appraisal interview is very useful for my work.
5. Due to the appraisal interview, I have more ideas on how to deal with problems at work.
6. Due to the appraisal interview, I feel better suited to fulfill my job requirements.

**Final Measure:**

1. Overall, I believe the appraisal interview went well.
2. I enjoyed the appraisal interview.
3. The appraisal interview is beneficial to my work.
4. Participation in the appraisal interview is useful for my work.
5. Due to the appraisal interview, I have more ideas about how to deal with problems at work.
6. Due to the appraisal interview, I feel better suited to fulfill my job requirement.