

The Effect of Managers' Mindset on their Employees' Performance Appraisal

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ABSTRACT

The world of business is constantly changing and experiencing a continuous expansion path due to globalization. This urges business people to look for and get new opportunities, but also confronts them to a serious challenge from competitors. The assessment of their efficiency goes through some various performances checks like market shares from outputs sold or provided, net profit earned or return on investments. Among those criteria of performance, there is also the non-negligible human capital performance without which the previous could not be possible. This is usually the responsibility of managers and supervisors to assess the employees' effectiveness. However there is an issue of objectivity and accuracy in the process of the performance appraisal and it is worthy to explore on it.

The present study investigates on how a manager's mindset can influence his appraisal effectiveness. Mindset is a personal belief about the fixedness or malleability of human attributes. Thus holding either a fixed or a growth mindset may be a factor in causing inconsistencies in the perception, judgment and evaluation of a performance. The current study proposed some satisfactorily empirical results and thus contribute to the existing literature of related topics and made some implications for managers, policy makers as well as the society in general.

Keywords: managers, mindset, performance appraisal, I/O psychology, human resource management.

ÖZ

İş dünyası küreselleşmenin de etkisiyle sürekli bir değişim içerisinde. Bu değişim iş insanlarını hem yeni fırsatlar arama hem de rekabet üstünlüğü aramak zorunda bırakmıştır. Performanslarını değerlendirmek için pazar payı, karlılık, ve yatırımların geri dönüşü gibi faktörleri takip etmek durumundadırlar. Performans kriterleri arasında ihmal edilmemesi gereken bir faktör de insan sermayesinin performansı yer almalıdır. Yöneticilerin en önemli sorumluluklarında biri de çalışanların performanslarının değerlendirilmesidir ancak bu konuda tarafsızlık, tutarlılık ve geçerlilik çok önemlidir ve incelenmelidir.

Mevcut çalışma yöneticinin zihniyetinin performans değerlemede etkisini incelemektedir. Zihniyet insan özelliklerinin ne ölçüde değişebilir veya değişmez olduğuna yönelik kişisel inançlarla ilgilidir. İnsanların değişebileceği veya değişmez olduğu ile ilgili yönetici inançları yöneticinin performans değerlendirmelerini etkileyebilecektir. Çalışma sonucunda ampirik olarak bu ilişki ortaya konulmuştur. Bulgular sonucunda yöneticilere, karar vericilere ve topluma yönelik tavsiyeler yapılmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: yöneticiler, zihniyet, performans değerlendirme, endüstriyel/örgütsel psikoloji, insan kaynakları yönetimi.

”The greatest glory in living lies not in never falling, but in rising every time you fall.”

“Hayattaki en büyük zafer hiçbir zaman düşmemekte değil, her düştüğünde ayağa kalkmakta yatar.”

Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit statistics
BARS	Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale
BOS	Behavioral Observation Scale
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
FDS	Forced Distribution System
FM	Fixed mindset
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit statistic
GM	Growth Mindset
I/O Psychology	Industrial/Organizational Psychology
IPT	Implicit Person Theory
MBO	Management by Objectives
PA	Performance Appraisal
RMR	Root Mean square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximate
SMART	Specific Measurable Attainable Realistic and Timely
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The corporate environment requires organizations to constantly self-monitor whether they are effective and meet their stated goals, to satisfy stakeholders and sustainably withstand the competition. Especially at the time of the globalization of business world where companies find the need to expand their operational activities. (Kono, Ehrhart, Ehrhart, & Schultze, 2012). Most companies used to measure their effectiveness in terms of the achievement of some “ultimate criterion” or cost-related variables like net profit, productivity, mission completed or growth and stability (Steers, 1975), products or services quantity and quality, and return on investment (Latham & Wexley, 1977).

These variables are very good in indicating a company’s effectiveness, but not appropriate when dealing with employees’ performance appraisal which is one of the human resource functions playing also a critical role for the firm’s overall success (Dechev, 2010). An important utility of appraisals is to encourage, lead and improve employees (Latham & Wexley K.N., 1994) based on their actual performance. Rewards, recognition, pay increase, recommendation and promotion are usually provided or proposed by direct supervisors in light of the employee’s displayed performance.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The issue raised in this study is the potential rater-biases going along with the process. In fact, performance appraisals do not always reflect the objectivity required. Managers consciously or not tend to be subjective in their rating task, influenced by their own perception of the employee's performance (Schyns, 2006). In fact, as an integral part of social perception, over-evaluative processing is likely to lead to stereotypes and prejudice (Esses, Haddock, & Zanna, 1993). This can be dual-sensitive for the organizational effectiveness on one side, and on the other side the employee's professional life and career. This can impede the whole validity of the process and credibility of the managers, and enhance the employee's perception of injustice, antipathy, frustration or departure. It is important to shed light upon what generates managers' potential inefficiency during their performance evaluation.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The aim of this study is therefore to investigate the effect of a manager's mindset on the rating of an employee's performance. The Implicit Person Theory (IPT) or one's mindset is a subjective assumption that a person holds about the flexibility of other people's attributes inducing their attitudes or behaviors (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011; Dweck, 1986). Individuals who have a fixed mindset advocate that human characteristics are rigid and immutable. On the other hand, those who believe these characteristics are rather flexible and can be modified over time are said to have a growth mindset (Dweck, 2006; Dweck et al., 1995).

Given that a manager mindset will pertain the acknowledgment of a change in the employee performance, the research questions raised upon the study purpose were the following:

- When provided a prior poor performance information, to which extend the fixed mindset will influence the recognition of a good performance?
- How will the growth mindset affect the rating of a good performance within the same circumstance?
- Does any demographic factor influence one of these two variables or the causal relationship among the two?

The answers for these questions will be found in an experimental method using scenarios. Empirical results will consist the base of managerial implications.

1.4 Contribution of the present research

This study will extend the I/O psychology, human resource management and organizational behavior literature in providing understanding of factors affecting ineffective performance appraisal in the management process which could lead to mismanagement, employee frustration and to some extend turnover. Furthermore, it will be of first benefit for managers to know how the can avoid or reduce their subjectivity when conducting the appraisal process. In this, they can learn more about their idiosyncratic psychology and how to get rid of their potential problematic personal attributes when managing people or leading a business.

1.5 Organizational structure

This thesis is made up of six chapters and its structure is composed as follow:

Chapter one consists of the introductory section of the research. Information regarding the background of the study, the statement of the problem, and the purpose and contribution of the study will be therein discussed.

Chapter two focuses on the relevant literature review. A synthesis of studies conducted by academicians and practitioners around the globe about implicit person theory and performance appraisals is drawn in this section.

Chapter three is the theoretical model and hypotheses section. Here, theory and theoretical evidence are explained to support the research hypotheses.

Chapter four deals with the methodology used to carry out the study. In this section, information about data collection through the sample population, method and procedure, and confidentiality and ethical issues are discussed.

Chapter five presents the research data analysis and empirical results for the hypotheses.

Chapter six lastly presents a summary and discussion about findings, managerial implications, policy recommendations and conclusion of the thesis.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Implicit person theory

2.1.1 Definition

Implicit theory or implicit person theory (IPT) is an idiosyncratic assumption about the flexibility of a person attributes inducing his or her behavior (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011; Dweck, 1986). In other words, it is a personal and subjective belief that an individual's characteristics such as abilities, personality and intelligence rest within a continuum between fixed and malleable (Kam et al., 2014; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). That is, some people believe human qualities are static or rigid and not subject to an incremental change. Individuals who hold such beliefs are called entity theorist. However, some others think they are changeable and can be improved. Those people are called incremental theorists (Dweck, 1999; Dweck et al., 1995b). Later, a new terminology is defined by Dweck (2006) to define or characterize the IPT, the mindset. Following that research and VandeWalle (2012), we use specifically the expression fixed mindset to label entity implicit theory and growth mindset for incremental implicit theory.

2.1.2 Mindset and self-insight

Research made by Dweck & Leggett (1988) and Dweck & Molden (2005) has concentrated on human attributions and implicit person theory. A fixed mindset holder—or incremental implicit theorist—believes that his or her abilities are engraved on the rock (Dweck, 2006) and this convey their thoughts that it is the cause of the

performance. Such an individual is more prompt to rely on his permanent dispositional abilities to either explain or forecast his behavior and overlook situational causes (Levontin, Halperin, & Dweck, 2013; Chiu, Dweck, Tong, & Fu, 1997; Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1997; Erdley & Dweck, 1993). For instance, if a student with a fixed mindset gets a low rated performance, he will most likely consider it as something usual and will keep believing either he is not smart or intelligent enough or he just deserve low grades. Contrariwise, the growth mindset is established on the idea that despite individual dissimilarities regarding primary talents skills or character, the basic qualities are subject to change.

For this reason, potentials can be refined and developed throughout efforts, practice and experience (Dweck, 2006). In this mindset, both dispositions and situations are variable. People holding such a mindset foster much more non-dispositional factors to challenge himself. They thrive when they are confronted with challenges and use their performances to evaluate and regulate their efforts and strategies (Levontin, Halperin, & Dweck, 2013; Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). Dweck (2006, p. 15) also emphasizes that an individual real potential is “*unknown*” and “*unknowable*”, that is, possible achievements cannot be predicted with years of training. In addition to studies related to the mindset and its impact to individual self-insight, an incremental research field by Dweck and colleagues (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995a) was found and explored. They hypothesized that a person's mindset is susceptible to affect his or her interpersonal judgments and feedbacks to others.

2.1.3 Mindset and judgment of others

As we focus on the influence of mindset in interpersonal judgments and decision, it is of first importance to analyze the cognitive process taking place in every individual. In other words, with respect to prior research, there is a need to examine and understand how information is processed by a person when dealing with his or her alter ego.

2.1.3.1 Mindset and Halo Effect

First of all, people holding a fixed mindset are more inclined to experience the halo effect bias (Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1997). The halo effect is defined as the propensity to formulate an overall impression about someone based on a singular characteristic (Robbins & Judge, 2013) such as appearance, intelligence or sociability (Oh, Wang, & Mount, 2011; Connelly & Ones, 2010). Recalling that fixed mindset people tend to experience on the halo effect bias. This specifically means that as they observe or are given information about a lambda individual's dispositional-based comportment, they are more prone to look forward a quite identical behavior or performance even for any dissimilar and unrelated upcoming context (VandeWalle, 2012). Specifically, they keep in mind and maintain strong and resilient first feelings or opinions and consider these as predictors of next outcomes (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011; Erdley & Dweck, 1993). However contrary to fixed mindset, as found by Levy, Stroessner, & Dweck (1998) people with growth mindset more tend to be situational driven when finding stimuli and reason for other's behavior. Following this stream, another significant bias is most often occurring when dealing with mindset.

2.1.3.2 Mindset and stereotypes

Research by Gervy, Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, (1999) found that when interpreting someone's behavior, a fixed mindset individual is more prone to make use of stereotypes than the one holding a growth mindset. Hong, Chiu, Dweck, & Sacks (1997) found that individual holding a fixed mindset prey to focus more on the evaluative significance of an information and link an evaluative tags such as "good" or "bad", "competent" or "incompetent" to it. Precisely, in fixed mindset the person or circumstances is sturdily labelled either positively or negatively, with regard to the primary impression or given information. In addition, they also found that growth mindset holders are less likely to segregate an information by its valence. That is, they focus mainly on the dynamic of the processes pertaining one's behavior rather than fixed mindset holders who converge the attention to someone's static qualities or defects (Chiu, 1994; Hong, 1994; Dweck, Hong, & Chiu, 1993).

Furthermore, Dweck and colleagues (see Levy et al. 1998) hypothesized that variances in degree of social stereotyping can be prognosticated by people beliefs about the flexibility or invariability of human characteristics. Specifically, they found that individuals with a fixed mindset were more likely to make stereotypical characteristic opinions of occupational and ethnic groups, or formulate extreme trait thoughts about new groups. Subsequently, they demonstrated a certain high reliance in the narrow set of information they had and considered these as strong predictors of behaviors. Later, Dweck (1999) asserted that these toughly encoded beliefs or labels might operate as resilient-to-change anchors in a fixed mindset. However, growth mindset people are more opened in soliciting incremental data (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Gervy et al. 1999) and finally, are contrarily to those with fixed mindset, they do not

focus on elements confirming their stereotypes (Plaks, Stroessner, Dweck, & Sherman, 2001).

2.1.4 Implicit person theories and other streams of implicit theories researches

Consistent with (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008), the concept of implicit theories hereby addressed should be dissociated from two other antithetical streams of study. Though they are basically analogous to the findings of Dweck and her colleagues (Dweck et al., 1993; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) pertaining the assumption of fixedness and malleability of attributes.

2.1.4.1 Implicit Personality Theory

The first one, “*Implicit Personality Theory*”, discusses people’s implicit belief about the personality characteristics. In the literature, it is defined as clusters or groups of traits which constitute cognitive representation symbolizing distinct prototypes or model of personality types (Grant & Holmes, 1981). That is, individual’s subjective assumptions concerning the kinds of personality features inclining to coincide (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2008). People tend therefore to expect some traits and behavior to manifest together with other. For example, a talkative individual will be also expected to be sociable person (Borkenau, 1992).

2.1.4.2 Implicit Leadership Theory

Another dichotomous part of implicit theories to shed light on is “*Implicit Leadership Theory*”. Implicit Leadership Theories are a person’s cognitive representations of a leader’s attitudes, attributes or traits which generates some expectancies pertaining the most possible traits or characteristics to be exhibited (Schyns, 2006). These expectancies are usually yielded when the person faces up with or is opposed to a leader (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996). The images, beliefs and assumptions affiliated with leadership behavior (Schyns, 2006) and what is expected

of leaders (Eden & Leviathan, 1975) are fostered throughout socialization and experience (Nye & Forsyth, 1991). Based on these images and cognitive categorizations, people will be docketed as effective or ineffective [leader] (Reithel, 2006) or leader or non-leader (Nichols & Erakovich, 2013; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). These been said, it appears now clear about the stream of implicit theory we expose in this study and the ones which may lead to confusion and misperception. We can therefore have a look into the two theories mutual relationship.

2.1.5 Causal relation between Fixed and Growth Mindset

We stated above that people hold either fixed mindset pertaining fixedness of individual traits or growth mindset pertaining malleability of these traits. As pioneered and developed by Dweck and her colleague (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Elliott, 1983), the two antipodes of the model evoke contradictory purposes with perceptions and reaction to circumstances. However, concerns had been addressed about the duality of the two mindset holding. In other words, can a person have both a fixed and a growth mindset? Dweck et al., (1995b) claimed that the model consists of two reciprocally exclusive choices, that is, there is one possible compliance to a mindset among the two possible. However, they did agree that an individual can potentially hold both, even though the theory proposes abidance for only one of the two mindsets. In other words, a person can exhibit one mindset because it is the prevailing one. But the other still is available even although it is latent. It can eventually become manifest under certain situations or conditions.

Claiming the duality nature of holding predominantly one mindset over the other one is not in any way, asserting the rightness and appropriateness of fixed or growth mindset. In fact, research in implicit person theories emphasizes and fosters the repercussion that bearing any one of the two mindset may have within thyself (Dweck,

1986), on the interaction between an individual towards his surrounding environment (Heslin et al., 2005; Levy et al., 1998; Dweck et al. 1995a) or the retroactive effect from other people that might be caused by a person's mindset (Kam, Risavy, Perunovic, & Plant, 2014; Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011). Hence, as mindset influences one's interaction with and evaluation of his alter ego, we can make an inference about the mindset of managers and its influence on their subordinates. Specifically, when coming to evaluation, what effect a manager's growth or fixed mindset will have on his or her appraisal of the employee performance.

2.2 Performance appraisal

2.2.1 Definition and nature of the performance appraisal concept

Performance Appraisal (PA) is an evaluative procedure by which a supervisor assesses the individual performances of the subordinate he or she is responsible for (DeNisi & Smith, 2014), and provides accordingly a subsequent feedback (Spence & Keeping, 2011). More specifically, Carroll & Schneier (1982) defined it as the process pertaining the identification, observation, measurement and development of human performance in organization.

The performance can be a current or a previous one (Karabat & Calis, 2014) and its evaluation will enable the effective attainment of the organization's objectives in one way, and allows the employee to get accordingly appreciations as well as work and career guidance the other way (Seniwoliba, 2014). Other scholars and practitioners in the human resource management literature (Abu-Doleh & Weir, 2007; Moulder, 2001; Young, 1996; Devries, Morrison, Shillman, & Gerlach, 1981) also asserted that performance appraisal is a managerial task pertaining the evaluation of a time bounded period employee's achievements and behavior, which outlines the job expectancies and assesses the degree to which these expectancies are attained.

2.2.2 Performance Appraisal and Performance Management

Performance appraisal is progressively being considered as one of the most significant human resource practices (Boswell & Boudreau, 2002, cited by Mooney (2009) and a crucial component if not the utmost significant step in performance management system (Karabat & Calis, 2014; Maley, 2013; Suutari & Tahvanainen, 2002). Performance management (PM) on itself contrasts from performance appraisal (PA) in that, it embraces all the actions undertaken by the organization in the perspective

of enhancing employee's performance. It (PM) is defined by Armstrong (2000) as: *“Performance management is a strategic and integrated process that delivers sustained success to organizations by improving the performance of people who work in them, and by developing the capabilities of individuals and teams”*.

So companies make use of this to improve their employees in-job performances and capabilities by defining standards and evaluating their performance accordingly, providing the related and consequent feedback, and finally training and rewarding employees (DeNisi & Smith, 2014). The emphasis of this individual or group performance improvement is to fit and meet the corporate goals so that the organization will sustain its success and withstand external issues its might encounter. Thus, PA appears to be among the most crucial requisites for the success of the business and the human resource policy. Thus, the good results a company records is usually the reflection of its personnel efforts and achievement (Seniwoliba, 2014).

2.2.3 The purpose of PA

In their study, Boice and Kleiner (1997) proposed a unilateral dimension of PA. They claimed that overall, PA general purpose is to inform the worker about his or her performance and compare it with the expectations of the supervisor (Mooney, 2009).

Practically, PA seems to encompass four purposes according to Cleveland and her colleagues (Cleveland, Mohammed, Skattebo, & Sin, 2003; Cleveland, Murphy, & William, 1989). In fact, they asserted that these purposes were namely the distinction making among employees, the distinction of an individual strength from his or her weaknesses, the evaluation and implementation of organizations human resource systems and the documentation pertaining workers decisions (Youngcourt, Leiva, & Robert, 2007).

However, Youngcourt et al. (2007) claimed that whilst most PA traditional purposes are inclined to be individual centered, that is *developmental* and *administrative* purposes as generally clustered (Cleveland et al. 2003; 1989), this might be insufficient. Instead, they proposed a third purpose more position-related than individual-centered, namely, *role definition* purpose.

2.2.3.1 The administrative purpose

This purpose refers to the ways the organizations make assessment of the appraisal outcomes to make decisions about salary, bonuses and recognitions programs (Palaiologos et al. 2011). The PA can also assist employers in making decisions whether to maintain or stop an employee for poor behavior, or even hiring, downsizings (Noe et al., 2011, pp. 260-261) or retirements (Palaiologos et al., 2011). The administrative impact of PA information can hence have a critical consequence on an employee's future in the company.

2.2.3.2 Developmental purpose

PA also supports managers in improving an individual's knowledge, skills and competencies as well as his or her personal development (Palaiologos et al., 2011). Besides, the key element at this stage is the feedback. An effective feedback of an employee performance is more likely to notify him or her about the strengths and potential weaknesses demonstrated. Therefore, he or she will find means, together with the supervisor, to disclose the roots of existing problems and tackle them accordingly (Noe et al., 2011, p. 261).

2.2.3.3 Role definition purpose

Also named by Youngcourt et al. (2007) as Position-Focused purpose, it aims generally at job positions reengineering and reorganization decisions. Specifically, the data gathered from the appraisal can indicate the extent to which a specific position is

amplifying or declining in role magnitude. As a result of this, managers can have an idea on the areas appropriate to few or more resources allocations. It can also lead them to know and select the position's side they might apply incremental training and development programs. The authors further asserted that a position-focused evaluation is much more worthwhile when changes in a job is not promptly obvious. It is so, more than for the job with readily apparent modifications like progressive use of technology or needed skills to perform a task or job. Consequently, the position adjustments resulting from this will be helpworthy for the organizational performance.

The first two purposes are more individual-focused and the third one position-focused. The PA broadly aims at boosting the effectiveness of not only an individual or group of employees, but for the position (DeNisi A., 2000).

2.2.4 The types of Performance Appraisals

Depending on their size and/or their organizational culture, companies do refer to different approaches or methods in assessing their employees. Some are group-oriented in that they are made within or among all employees, others are more individual oriented in that they focus only on a singular worker. Noe et al. (2011) has clustered them as follow:

2.2.4.1 Comparison method

2.2.4.1.1 Simple ranking method

This method consist of ranking a group of employees from the top to the last. The supervisor will have to rate employees from the first, second, third and so on, until the last. The authors suggested a variant to this method, the *alternation ranking*. This method suggest that from a list of workers names, the supervisor will sequentially cross the top performer then worst performer from the list. After the second best and second worst employees names will be crossed. The manager will carry on the process

until all the employees are ordered. The drawback of this method is the fairness of the appraisal. It neither pulls out the assets an employee provides to the organization, nor shows what is bad or good between ranked employees.

2.2.4.1.2 Forced-distribution method

It is also known as forced distribution system (FDS). It is an assessment type where among a set of groups, a proportion of employees are classified in a single group (Noe et al., 2011). This method compels the supervisor to differentiate top and worst performers (Chattopadhyay & Ghosh, 2012) and integrate them into pre-established groups with pre-set quotas or to position them into relative top and poor performance (Guralnik, Rozmarin, & So, 2004). In fact, the FDS was fostered in order to tackle managers issues in their performance evaluation's of lack of discernment or clemency (McBriarty, 1988). Noe et al. (2011) mentioned a sample FDS as follow:

Table 1. Forced-Distribution System (FDS) clusters example

Exceptional	5%
Exceeds standards	25%
Meets standards	55%
Room for improvement	10%
Not acceptable	5%

In this example, the manager will have to place every of his subordinates in one category in such a way to totality of employees will be distributed to the given proportions. A drawback of this method is the issue of clustering some employees to the lowest groups which might be offensive, especially if the manager is skilled at hiring, encouraging and training his subordinates. He or she might have a set of well performing personnel and it will be demanding to tell some of them their performance is not acceptable or can be improved.

2.2.4.1.3 Paired-Comparison method

This method consist of paired comparison among the number of employees to make ranking. In other words, the supervisor will form couples between a single employee and each other of the group and compare that employee in every pair he or she is involved in. Then the relative best among the two will receive a point. At the end the supervisor will count the cumulative points of each worker to make the ranking Noe et al. (2011). The downside of this method is that it is time costly. When the number of employee gets higher, so does the number of comparisons required. Jafari, Bourouni, & Amiri, (2009) mentioned in their study a formula to find the amount of comparisons needed. It is as follow: $\frac{N*(N-1)}{2}$ with N=number of employees. For example a 20 employees' paired-comparison method will impose 190 comparison to the manager.

General disadvantages of ranking methods concern the relative inaccuracy in term of individual evaluation. In addition, they do not focus on meeting the organization objectives. Rather than partially ranking the personnel, other approaches pertaining individual rating are used to reduce inaccuracies and foster individual and organizational-level performance.

2.2.4.2 Individual rating methods

These approaches serve in evaluating an employee's desired attributes or behaviors. The supervisor will then rate those across a scale with each of the antipodes expressing the best and the worst performance.

2.2.4.2.1 The graphic rating scale

It is the most broadly applied technique in assessing attributes and it enumerates some traits and give a scale to rate each of them (Noe et al., 2011; Mondy & Noe, 2008).

The employer will hence allocate a score according to the level of occurrence. This method is less time-consuming, however it is not reliable enough in that it depends on the supervisor relative definition of the extent of a “good” or “poor” attribute. An example of a graphic rating scale is shown on the following figure.

The following areas of performance are significant to most positions. Indicate your assessment of performance on each dimension by circling the appropriate rating.					
PERFORMANCE DIMENSION	RATING				
	DISTINGUISHED	EXCELLENT	COMMENDABLE	ADEQUATE	POOR
Knowledge	5	4	3	2	1
Communication	5	4	3	2	1
Judgment	5	4	3	2	1
Managerial skill	5	4	3	2	1
Quality performance	5	4	3	2	1
Teamwork	5	4	3	2	1
Interpersonal skills	5	4	3	2	1
Initiative	5	4	3	2	1
Creativity	5	4	3	2	1
Problem solving	5	4	3	2	1

Figure 1. Graphic rating scale. © Noe et al. (2011)

2.2.4.2.2 Mixed-standard scale

This method consist of set of assertions related to a trait. The manager will evaluate the subordinate across those statement and provide a rating according to the extent to which he believes this subordinate is close to. The scale displays as the example below performance levels like “high”, “medium” and “low”. The rater will assign a mark to the performance of the worker describing if it is below (-), meets (0) or beyond (+) the level designated. Noe et al., (2011) proposed the following example designating a mixed-standard scale.

Three traits being assessed:			Levels of performance in statements:			
Initiative (INTV)			High (H)			
Intelligence (INTG)			Medium (M)			
Relations with others (RWO)			Low (L)			
Instructions: Please indicate next to each statement whether the employee's performance is above (+), equal to (0), or below (–) the statement.						
INTV	H	1. This employee is a real self-starter. The employee always takes the initiative and his/her superior never has to prod this individual.		+		
INTG	M	2. While perhaps this employee is not a genius, s/he is a lot more intelligent than many people I know.		+		
RWO	L	3. This employee has a tendency to get into unnecessary conflicts with other people.		0		
INTV	M	4. While generally this employee shows initiative, occasionally his/her superior must prod him/her to complete work.		+		
INTG	L	5. Although this employee is slower than some in understanding things, and may take a bit longer in learning new things, s/he is of average intelligence.		+		
RWO	H	6. This employee is on good terms with everyone. S/he can get along with people even when s/he does not agree with them.		–		
INTV	L	7. This employee has a bit of a tendency to sit around and wait for directions.		+		
INTG	H	8. This employee is extremely intelligent, and s/he learns very rapidly.		–		
RWO	M	9. This employee gets along with most people. Only very occasionally does s/he have conflicts with others on the job, and these are likely to be minor.		–		
Scoring Key:						
			STATEMENTS	SCORE		
			HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	
			+	+	+	7
			0	+	+	6
			–	+	+	5
			–	0	+	4
			–	–	+	3
			–	–	0	2
			–	–	–	1
Example score from preceding ratings:						
			STATEMENTS	SCORE		
			HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	
Initiative			+	+	+	7
Intelligence			0	+	+	6
Relations with others			–	–	0	2

Figure 2. Mixed-Standard Scale (c) © Noe et al., (2011)

Noe et al., (2011) affirmed that though attributes rating is commonly used in most organization because of their development simplicity and application flexibility, it is however not associated to the organizational corporate strategy.

2.2.4.3 Behaviors ratings

These rating were issued to tackle the concerns and limitations pointed against the attribute ratings. They aims at defining behaviors which enhance success in the job completion. As a result, the supervisor will assess the rate according to the displayed behavior and the ones expected.

2.2.4.3.1 The Critical Incident Approach

As a pioneer of this technique, (Flanagan, 1954) explained it as a mean of gathering behavior-related information of and individual, in order to be used later in resolving problems (Edvarsson & Roos, 2001). He (Flanagan, 1954) explained these behaviors as follow:

By an incident is meant any observable human activity that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act. To be critical, an incident must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and where its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects (Flanagan, 1954, p. 327).

The Critical-Incident method emphasizes on essential conducts which my lead to an efficient or inefficient job performance (Jafari et al., 2009). These authors stated that it aims at evaluating a performance based upon happenings or incidents, *critical incidents*, which occurred during the accomplishment of job. It involves efforts in holding quotidian or weekly records of incidents though, and are unique for each employee and not subject to comparison.

2.2.4.3.2 Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale (BARS)

Inspired from the critical-incident method, the BARS is a scale including some statements of prototypic real work behaviors describing diffrent echelons of job peformance (Jafari et al., 2009; Smith & Kendall, 1963). These statements works as anchors of the quality of the performance (Noe et al., 2011) and are made up from assemblage of some specific critical incidents (Wiese & Buckley, 1998). Specifically

as mentioned by Noe et al. (2011), the company records and collect previous information exhibiting some level of efficient and inefficient performance and list these from worst to top level. These levels will become performance ratings anchors point as soon as job experts agree on these. Among advantages of using BARS, research (Ohland, et al., 2012; Ohland, Layton, Loughry, & Yuhasz, 2005) proposed an improved interrater reliability and less leniency errors. However, Noe et al. (2011) asserted that this method is likely to bias the memory of the supervisor. In fact, he or she will be more prone to recall behaviors analogous to anchor statements instead of authentic critical incidents. The authors proposed the following figure displaying a sample BARS for the “*preparing for duty*” behavior of a patrol officer.

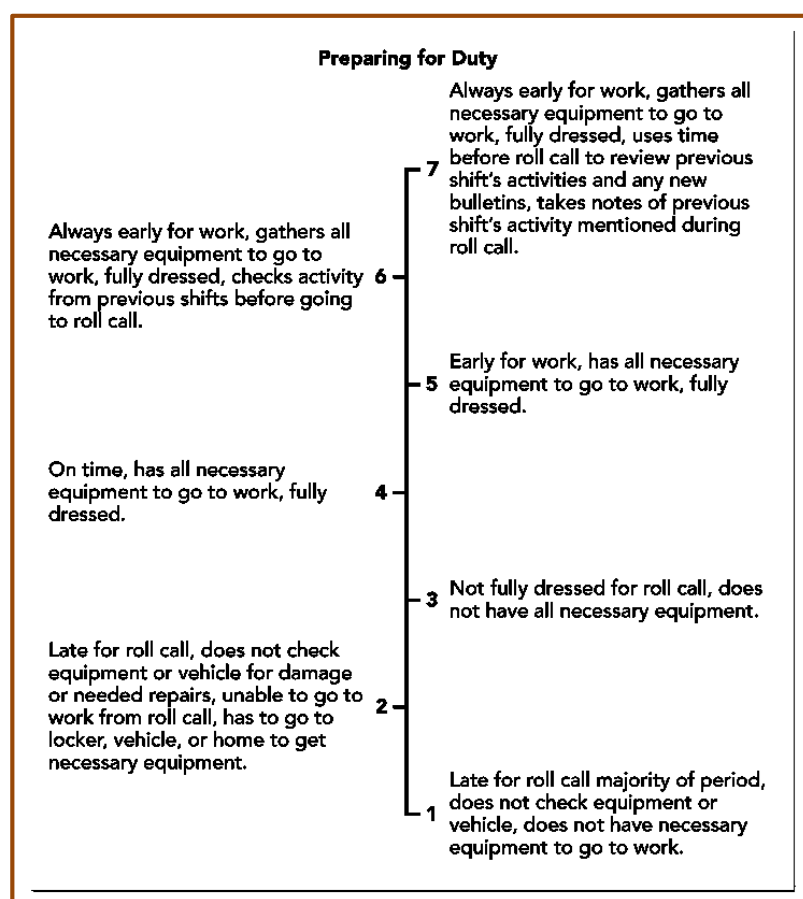


Figure 3. A Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale. Adapted from Harvey (1991, p. 138)

2.2.4.3.3 Behavioral Observation Scale (BOS)

The BOS is a variation of the BARS and is also made up of critical incidents (Latham & Wexley, 1981). It however differs from the BARS in that, it does not discard some elements in constructing the rating scale. Besides, it uses all of these to determine all potential behaviors indicating either an efficient or inefficient performance (Noe et al., 2011). Flanagan (1954) proposed that the BOS is a scale taking its source from a critical incident job analysis. As a result of this, it is likely to use a certain amount (say 15) of behaviors determining some performance levels (Noe et al., 2011). This method requires the appraiser to rate the employee according to the frequency he or she exhibited the specific behaviors (Wiersma, van den Berg, & Latham, 1995). The total performance rating is calculated upon the sum or average of all the ratings. A simplified sample of a BOS is shown below.

Overcoming resistance to Change					
Directions: Rate the frequency of each behavior from 1 (Almost Never) to 5 (Almost Always).					
	Almost Never				Almost Always
1. Describes the details of the change to employees.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Explains why the change is necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Discusses how the change will affect the employee.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Listens to the employee's concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Asks the employee for help in making the change work.	1	2	3	4	5
6. If necessary, specifies the date for a follow-up meeting to respond to the employee's concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
Score: Total number of points = _____					
Performance					
<i>Points</i>	<i>Performance Rating</i>				
6–10	Below adequate				
11–15	Adequate				
16–20	Full				
21–25	Excellent				
26–30	Superior				
Scores are set by management.					

Figure 4. Example of a Behavioral Observation Scale. © Noe et al., 2011

2.2.4.4 Other performance appraisal approaches

Rather than evaluating their employees' traits or behaviors for performance appraisal purpose, some companies do rely much more on different approaches. They may use management by objectives or 360 degrees feedback.

2.2.4.4.1 Management by Objective (MBO)

Pioneered by Peter Ferdinand Drucker (1954) as a result-oriented method to assess management and performance effectiveness, the MBO is an employee's assessment technique focusing on and measuring exclusively task outcomes instead of displayed behaviors (Dechev, 2010). One of the inwardness of MBO relies on participative goal settings. In fact, cited by (Greenwood, 1981), George Odiorne defines it as:

a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organization jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and assessing the contribution of all of its members. (1965, pp. 55-56).

Rather than just receiving objective from superiors, the employee is involved in objectives setting together with his direct supervisor and chooses his own course of action. The goals agreed will become the standards for successful job accomplishment. The evaluation of the performance will therefore consist of the comparison between his actual performance recorded at the time of the appraisal on one side, and the standards that have been fixed upstream on the other hand (Seniwoliba, 2014; Dechev, 2010).

Drucker emphasized that, it is crucial for the subordinate to be aware of and understand the kind of performance the organization's goals require from him. The supervisor on his side must likewise be aware of what to ask and expect from the subordinate to evaluate him consequently (Drucker & Maciariello, 2005). Failing to

reach these, *“Their effort are wasted. Instead of teamwork, there is friction, frustration and conflict”* (Drucker, 1954, p. 121). For this reason, the objectives must be SMART, which is, Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time-bound. MBO has the advantage of motivating the employee because of his involvement in goals settings. Subsequently, his performance will be more likely related to the company’s overall objectives (Noe et al., 2011). However, it can be time-costly and paper-work demanding (Dechev, 2010). A sample MBO appraisal for a bank personnel is given below:

KEY RESULT AREA	OBJECTIVE	% COMPLETE	ACTUAL PERFORMANCE
Loan portfolio management	Increase portfolio value by 10% over the next 12 months	90	Increased portfolio value by 9% over the past 12 months
Sales	Generate fee income of \$30,000 over the next 12 months	150	Generated fee income of \$45,000 over the past 12 months

Figure 5. Management by Objectives: Two objectives for a bank. © Noe et al. (2011)

2.2.4.4.2 360 degrees feedback appraisal

Also called feedback from multiple sources, it is “a performance appraisal approach that relies on an input of an employee’s superiors, colleagues, subordinates, sometimes suppliers, customers and/or spouses” (Yuki & Lepsinger, 1995). This method aims at conveying to an employee a feedback of his or her behavior and how it affects the coworkers (McCarthy & Garavan, 2001). Because sometimes the supervisor is not always witnessing an employee’s behavior, the amount of information from this employee’s peers and subordinates is usually more consistent to use for the appraisal.

Result-oriented methods of performance appraisal are usually more objective and subject to less errors or biases. They can be mutually accepted by the appraiser and the appraisee. By focusing exclusively on result, they fail to take into account other aspects and circumstances which might have led to the obtained results. For instance, those methods may likely neglect major skills and behavior exhibited during the task exercise. Furthermore, they will not take into consideration the appraisee's personal circumstances having occurred during the period which might have affected his or results in some extend.

Chapter 3

THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Theoretical Model

Research up to now has focused on and around employees in organizations. Some of them have emphasized in finding out factors affecting the performance of employees at work such as *role conflict* and *role ambiguity* (Caillier, 2010; Tubre & Collins, 2000; Fried, Ben-David, Tiegs, Avital, & Yeverechyahu, 1998), *stress* and *anxiety* (Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986; Willoughby, 1978), *motivation* (Azar & Shafighi, 2013), *job satisfaction* and *commitment* (Schoemmel & Jønsson, 2014; Supriyanto, 2013; Susanty & Miradipta, 2013), and *personality* type (Bhatti, Battour, Ismail, & Sundram, 2014; Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon, & Crawford, 2013).

Scholars have also investigated on the factors involving directly managers and employees in the workplace, which may affect employees' performance, such as *leadership* and *leader-member exchange* (Akkoç, Altay, & Turunç, 2013; Li, Sanders, & Frenkel, 2012; Peterson, Walumbwa, Avolio, & Hannah, 2012), *empowerment* (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013; Yang & Ok Choi, 2009) and *perceived justice* (Shan, Ishaq, & Shaheen, 2015; Wang, Liao, Xia, & Chang, 2010).

Such concepts have been found to be associated (directly or by mediation) to some extent to an employee's low or high performance level. All these investigation somehow are employee-oriented in that, they have investigated on what can make

significant changes towards the employee performance. However, few research to our knowledge has focus on a manager's idiosyncratic factors affecting the employee's work performance acknowledgment.

The IPT is a subjective assumption about the flexibility of a person's attributes inducing his or her behavior (Heslin & VandeWalle, 2011; Dweck, 1986). Precisely, these beliefs about human characteristics rest within a continuum ranging from fixed to malleable (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Kam et al., 2014). Individuals holding a fixed mindset advocate that human characteristics are immutable. On the other hand, those who believe these characteristics are rather flexible and can be modified over time are said to have a growth mindset (Dweck 2006; Dweck et al., 1995).

Evaluative processes have been proven to be inbuilt in social perception (Osgood, 1971) and hence are deemed to be a groundwork of social perception (Wyer & Gordon, 1984; Zajonc, 1980). Besides, Zajonc (1980) advocated:

There is hardly any social phenomenon—person, behavior, group, and the product of some individual's work—which we perceive without at the same time having some form of reaction which can be described best on the good–bad, pleasant–unpleasant, safe–unsafe, likable–dislikable, and other such scales.

Some scholars (Fiske & Ruscher, 1993; Stangor, Sullivan, & Ford, 1991) have demonstrated the potential contribution of evaluative processing in forming stereotypes and discriminations (Hong et al., 1997). Hence, citing Murphy and colleagues' work (2002, 1995), Heslin et al. (2005) recalled the need to find out causal factors of a manager's motive in making accurate assessments of an employee's performance quality level.

In order to answer to that call for extending I/O Psychology and Human Resource Management literature, the purpose of this study is therefore to investigate the effect of a manager's mindset on the rating of an employee's performance. In order to meet this objective, the following research questions emerged: when provided a prior poor performance information, to which extent the fixed mindset will influence the recognition of a good performance? How will the growth mindset affect the rating of a good performance? Does any demographic factor influences one of these two variables or the causal relationship among the two?

A previous study (Heslin et al., 2005) investigated this concern in a Western cultural environment, namely Canada and United States. No study to our knowledge has explored whether their finding can be generalized to a Middle-East cultural environment. This therefore, is the foundation of our second investigation. Furthermore, previous research about evaluative processes and IPT made use of narrative slideshows (Erdley & Dweck, 1993; Hong et al., 1997) or video-recorded stimulus (Heslin et al., 2005) portraying a vignette individual performance so far. Yet, to our knowledge, no investigation to date has used fully written scenarios as experimental tools in finding the effect of managers IPT on appraisal ratings. This study will shed light on whether written scenarios can lead to similar results as of above mentioned past research. The following theoretical model is therefore proposed:

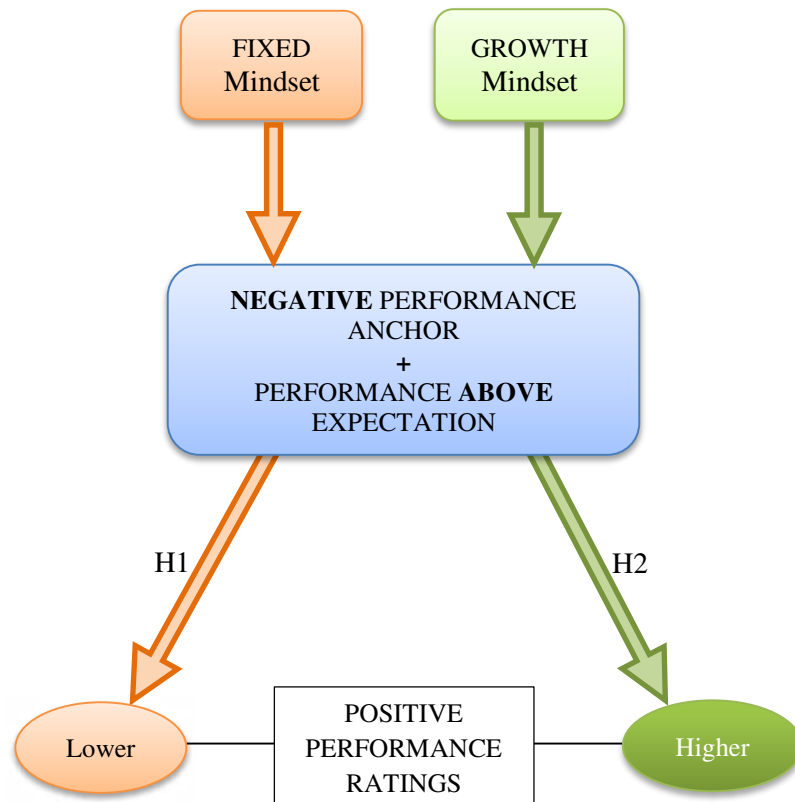


Figure 6. Theoretical Model: The causal effect of Mindset on the performance appraisal

3.2 Hypotheses

Our hypotheses are based upon the theoretical framework above mentioned. In their previous study, Heslin et al. (2005, study 1) demonstrated that there was no significant difference between fixed and growth mindset holders in observing and acknowledging a poor performance (time 1). But they later found a significant difference between the two groups when these were provided a second positive performance (time 2); showing that growth mindset people, consistent with their belief of malleability of attributes, notice changes in behavior.

However, Barnes-Farrell (2001) declared that during their performance appraisal task, supervisors tend to lean more on indirect information about performance rather than considering straight and direct noticed behaviors. On the other hand, Latham and

Wexley (1994) stated that the evaluation should be appropriate to the related performance. Thus, this poses the issue that assimilation or prior effect may impede on the accuracy of the appraisal when the central performance is preceded by a prior information.

This experimental study is an investigation on whether managers holding a fixed mindset will be likely to provide a lower positive rating to a performance above expectation after being given a negative prior information, consistent with their belief in person attributes sturdiness and stability in their initial opinion. Growth mindset managers on the other hand, consistent with their belief in people ability to exhibit changes in behavior, may be more inclined to provide consistent higher ratings of a performance above expectation even though they are given a negative prior information about the employee.

Based upon these theoretical assumptions and the results obtained by Heslin et al. (2005, study 1) at time 1 pertaining no difference in assessing prior poor performance, the research hypotheses are derived:

H1: After being exposed to a negative performance anchor, fixed mindset managers will provide lower ratings of good performance.

H2: After being exposed to a negative performance anchor, growth mindset managers will provide higher ratings of good performance.

Chapter 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Sample and data collection.

4.1.1 Sample population

The study has been conducted at Eastern Mediterranean University, Famagusta campus in Turkish Republic of North Cyprus. In order to obtain more accurate and consistent results related to our research questions, the sample population consisted of graduate students enrolled in a full-time master degree in Business Administration (MBA), Marketing Management, Banking and Finance, Tourism and Hospitality Management and Economics program. There were no distinction of gender and work experience prior to the program enrollment. Two means were used to distribute our questionnaires, internet-medium and physical-medium. Physical distribution required the researcher to distribute 90 among 3 programs and internet-medium required distribution of questionnaires electronically to 80 recipients for the 2 remaining programs.

4.1.2 Ethical issues and Confidentiality

For internet-based questionnaires, written permission (see appendix A) was submitted and granted by the chairs of 2 programs departments to access students email address database. Other mean was the use of social media to disseminate the questionnaire links. Respondents were asked upon voluntarily participation and questionnaires were filled anonymously. No private information inconsistent with the aim of the study were asked. Collected data remained confidential and stored securely.

4.1.3 Method and research procedure

To fulfill the purpose of this study, an experimental method was used with scenarios. Murphy, Herr, Lockhart, & Maguire (1986) discovered that although vignettes are low-salient stimuli, they however generate reliably higher effects. Moreover, scenarios have the advantage of control over the internal validity when testing causal relation, rather than other methods. Respondent filled a self-administered questionnaire based upon the scenarios and research objectives.

Data were collected from 10 December 2014 to 31 of January 2015 and were cross-sectional. Either internet-based or paper-based, respondents were asked sequentially to fill first the IPT scale then the performance rating. Prior to fill performance scale, they were asked to rate the performance “*as if*” they were the direct supervisor of the portrayed employee, consistent with Heslin et al. (2005) and following the recommendations of Mero and Montowidlo (1995) to increase the quality of the evaluation process. Then, they were provided a negative background information about the employee and later, the focal performance scenario narrating a good performance.

4.2 Measurement materials

4.2.1 Demographic questionnaire

Demographic data were collected using a specifically designed questionnaire. Respondent filled information about:

- Gender: 1 = female; 2 = male.
- Age.
- Marital status: 1 = single; 2 = in a relationship; 3 = married; 4 = separated; 4 = widowed.

- Nationality
- Number of house- or roommates.
- Working experience (cumulated in years of seasonal, part-time or full-time).
- Number of colleagues over the last past 1 year.

4.2.2 Implicit Person Theory scale

We measure subjects IPT with the 8-items domain-general kind-of-person scale developed by Levy & Dweck (1997). It has 4 items fixed mindset related and 4 items growth mindset related. Sample items for fixed mindset is: *“As much as I hate to admit it, you can’t teach an old dog new tricks. People can’t change their deepest attributes”* (Levy et al., 1998, p. 1431). Sample growth mindset is: *“People can change even their most basic qualities”* (Levy et al., 1998, p. 1431). Subjects will rate each item on a 6-point Likert scale with 1 (strongly disagree) and 6 (strongly agree) as anchor points. After reversing the score of fixed mindset items, high score will exhibit growth mindset. Levy et al. (1998) reported a high internal consistency and validity for this scale with $\alpha = .94$.

4.2.3 Priming Task of this study.

The priming manipulation was specially designed for the purpose of this research hypotheses. Consistent with Heslin et al. (2005), the negative contextual priming information was introduced as: *“To give you a feel for the person whose performance you are about to read and evaluate”*. The information was presented in written form as follow:

Tim is a young commercial airline pilot who hopes to be promoted captain earlier than the average time. However, he has failed the qualification exam twice and hardly got his license. He has made efforts to improve, but his instructors have expressed their skepticism about whether Tim will ever have what it requires to be promoted captain.

Participants were asked to rate this preliminary performance whether it is: 1 = below expectation, 2 = meets expectation or 3 = above expectation.

4.2.4 Set up story and performance scale

The scenario (see appendix B) featured a young commercial airline pilot flight journey, from the service plug to the final flight destination checks. It portrayed a set of actions and attitudes of the employee to be rated.

The performance scale was also specially design of this experiment based on Hong et al. (1997). Respondents in that study rated a pilot trainee performance on his score at a 20-components proficiency exam, measuring some skills set applicable to a pilot performance. However logistic and availability constraints did not permit to conduct the performance rating with the authors study's genuine scale, material and procedure used by the authors. The HRM literature (Palaiologos et al., 2011) suggested that different components and criteria are measured throughout the appraisal process. These comprise attained results and objectives, skills and abilities, and job-related behaviors and others falling under the control of the employee. Because appraisals focused on attitudes and traits may raise misunderstanding and disagreement between the subordinate and the manager (Latham & Wexley, 1977). Thus, an adapted version was applied instead, using a set of airline pilots' skills and abilities developed by US National Center for O*NET Development (2010).

The scale consisted of 15 items BOS with 6-point anchors ranging from 1 = absolutely poor performance to 6 = absolutely good performance. Sample items comprised the following; *“He considers the relative benefits and costs of potential actions to choose the most appropriate one”* and *“He runs, operates, moves and navigates the aircraft properly”*.

Chapter 5

ANALYSIS AND EMPIRICAL RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The IBM® Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS®) version 20 and IBM® SPSS Amos have been used to analyze the collected data. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlation, Reliability test, Factor Analysis and Independent sample T-test were used computed to check on the frequencies, relationship between the variables, and to test the proposed hypotheses.

5.2 Descriptive statistics

Total of 170 questionnaires was given or emailed and only 134 were returned completed. The response rate amounted therefore 78.82%. Out of 134 respondents, the amount of female is slightly below those of male respondents as exhibited in table 2. There is 63 (47%) women and 71 (53%) reported.

Table 2. Gender of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1	Female	63	47.0	47.0	47.0
2	Male	71	53.0	53.0	100.0
Total		134	100.0	100.0	

The age criterion exhibits 18 different ages as displayed in table 3. The lowest in frequencies are 14, 21, 34, 37, and 40 years old respectively with each of them

occurring one time (7%). The mode is 25 years old with 27 occurrences (20.1%). The second highest age frequency is 27 years old with 15 occurrences (11.2%).

Table 3. Respondents ages distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
14.00	1	.7	.7	.7
20.00	3	2.2	2.2	3.0
21.00	1	.7	.7	3.7
22.00	9	6.7	6.7	10.4
23.00	5	3.7	3.7	14.2
24.00	7	5.2	5.2	19.4
25.00	27	20.1	20.1	39.6
26.00	10	7.5	7.5	47.0
27.00	15	11.2	11.2	58.2
28.00	14	10.4	10.4	68.7
29.00	12	9.0	9.0	77.6
30.00	13	9.7	9.7	87.3
31.00	4	3.0	3.0	90.3
32.00	5	3.7	3.7	94.0
34.00	1	.7	.7	94.8
35.00	5	3.7	3.7	98.5
37.00	1	.7	.7	99.3
40.00	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total	134	100.0	100.0	

The frequencies shows that four marital status were being filled by the participants out of the five proposed (see table 4). “Single” ones amounts 80 (59.7% of occurrence) and this is the mode of the distribution. Those reporting to be “In a relationship” are 22 (16.4%). The “Married’ respondents’ number is slightly above the previous category with 28 appearances (20.9%), and finally the less frequent category, respondents who claimed to be “Separated” is just 4 (3%).

Table 4. Marital status distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 Single	80	59.7	59.7	59.7
2 In a relationship	22	16.4	16.4	76.1
3 Married	28	20.9	20.9	97.0
4 Separated	4	3.0	3.0	100.0
Total	134	100.0	100.0	

The collected data revealed the existence of twenty-eight nationalities among the participants (table 4). These statistics perfectly describe the commonly-called “multicultural environment” of the research. The nationality modal group is Nigeria with 23 (17.2%) participants, the second highest group is Iran with 19 (14.2%) participants, and the third is Cameroon with 16 (11.9%) participants. There was eight less frequent nationalities and they consisted of Egypt, Macedonia, Nepal, Niger, Slovenia, Tajikistan and Tanzania with respectively 1 participants for each.

Table 5. Nationalities distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 Cameroon	16	11.9	11.9	11.9
2 Nigeria	23	17.2	17.2	29.1
3 Turkey	4	3.0	3.0	32.1
4 Pakistan	4	3.0	3.0	35.1
5 Iran	19	14.2	14.2	49.3
6 Russia	10	7.5	7.5	56.7
7 Syria	3	2.2	2.2	59.0
8 Kazakhstan	9	6.7	6.7	65.7
9 Palestine	7	5.2	5.2	70.9
10 Kenya	5	3.7	3.7	74.6
11 Jordan	4	3.0	3.0	77.6
12 Iraq	3	2.2	2.2	79.9
13 Macedonia	1	.7	.7	80.6
14 Morocco	3	2.2	2.2	82.8
15 Azerbaijan	3	2.2	2.2	85.1
16 Hungary	2	1.5	1.5	86.6
17 Zimbabwe	2	1.5	1.5	88.1
18 TRNC	6	4.5	4.5	92.5
19 Nepal	1	.7	.7	93.3
20 Ghana	2	1.5	1.5	94.8
21 Egypt	1	.7	.7	95.5
22 Niger	1	.7	.7	96.3
23 Tanzania	1	.7	.7	97.0
24 Slovenia	1	.7	.7	97.8
25 Lebanon	2	1.5	1.5	99.3
26 Tajikistan	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total	134	100.0	100.0	

As a result of these, the following distribution statistics table is provided for the five first variables of the research, exhibiting for each single variable the maximum and minimum values, as well as the means and standard deviations.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	134	14	40	26.9851	3.72350
Number of Home mates	134	0	7	2.0373	1.50391
Working Experience	134	0	15	3.2090	3.36294
Number of Colleagues	134	0	300	15.2537	32.55688
Valid N	134				

In order to have accurate data from both fixed and growth mindset respondents, we followed Levy et al. (1998) by reverse scoring the fixed items, so that high score will indicate a growth mindset. So in this research, we computed the overall score for each participant. Then consistent with Hong et al. (1997), we defined two cutoff for both fixed and growth mindset. Specifically, we assessed fixed mindset to fall between the range from 8 to 24 (1 to 3 score x 8 items) and growth mindset from 32 to 48 (4 to 6 score x 8 items). Participants falling between 24 and 32 (excluded) were withdrawn from the analysis because their score failed to confirm their exclusive belonging in any of the two groups (N=39). Thus the remaining participants (N=95) consisted the base of our analysis. Frequencies are exhibited below:

Table 7. Participants' mindset distribution frequencies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Fixed mindset	38	28.4	40.0	40.0
Growth mindset	57	42.5	60.0	100.0
Total	95	70.9	100.0	
Discard	39	29.1		
Total	134	100.0		

5.3 Reliability test

The utmost used and emphasized practice in psychometric scales construction and validation in many research is the coefficient alpha or Cronbach's alpha (Panayides, 2013). The Cronbach's alpha lays within 0 and 1. It is mostly used as the internal consistency and reliability test of factors taken out from dichotomous and/or several constructed scales (Santos, 1999). Nunnally (1978, p. 245) proposes an index of $\alpha=0.70$ as a satisfactory reliability coefficient.

For our first construct model which is IPT, the Cronbach's alpha was $\alpha = .719$ for the overall construct. Broken into two factors, the coefficients were $\alpha = .72$ for fixed mindset items and $\alpha = .868$ for growth mindset. The coefficient for the performance rating scale was $\alpha = .905$.

All the constructs or specific factors' coefficients were above the acceptance cutoff ratio. Thus, our two constructs were reliable for the overall model measure.

5.4 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

5.4.1 CFA for Mindset construct

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) mostly frequently used in social sciences studies (Kline, 2010), shows how good the proposed model fits or is appropriate with the data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).

In the models proposed in this study, there was first of all a test of good-fit for IPT scale in terms of 2 factors loaded. The analysis showed goodness-of-fit results for this construct: $\chi^2 (19, N = 95) = 29.403, p < .06$; Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .064; Goodness-of-fit (GFI) = .950' Adjusted GFI (AGFI) = .906, Root

mean square residual (RMR) = .114; Comparative fit index (CFI) = .702. These indexes showed a very good fit of the model. However, these results were found to be better than the goodness-of-fit for only one factor loading, as the figures exhibited: $\chi^2 = (20, N = 95) = 124.895, p < .000$; RMSEA = .199; GFI = .786; AGFI = .616; RMR = .385; CFI = .702. Thus, the first analysis of IPT with 2 separate constructs gave better results, better fit. Information about the intercorrelations ratios between the factors are reported in the following figure.

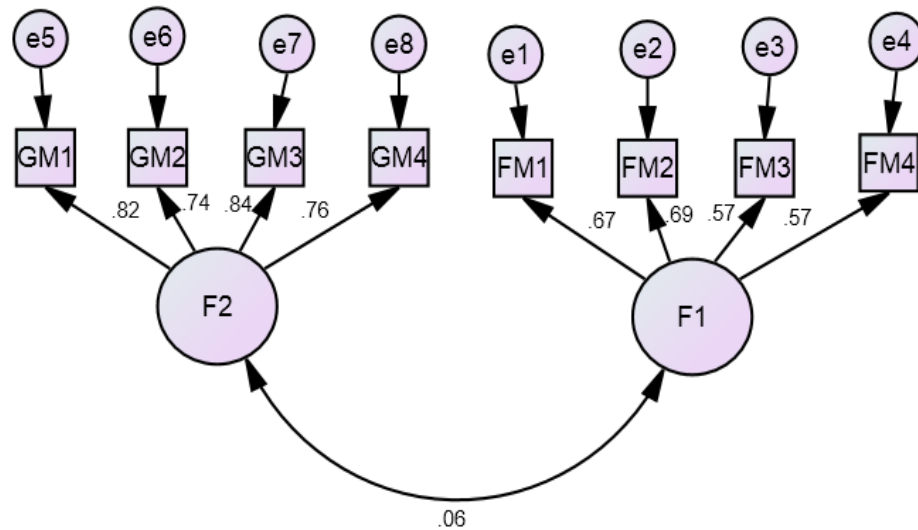


Figure 6. Confirmatory factor model path diagram for FM (F1) and GM (F2)

The covariance ratio between the two factors F1 and F2 was .06 which expressed a weak correlation between these two factors (see figure 6). These two-factor model exhibited good loadings, especially for the second factor's regression weights. The variance between F1 and FM1, FM2, FM3, FM4 was respectively .67, .69, .57 and .57. this indicated a moderate positive linear relationship among the factor FM and the linked items. The variance between GM factor (F2) and its items GM1, GM2, GM3, GM4 was respectively .82, .74, .84. and .76. these loading were much more

better and indicated high positive relationship between this factor and its respective items.

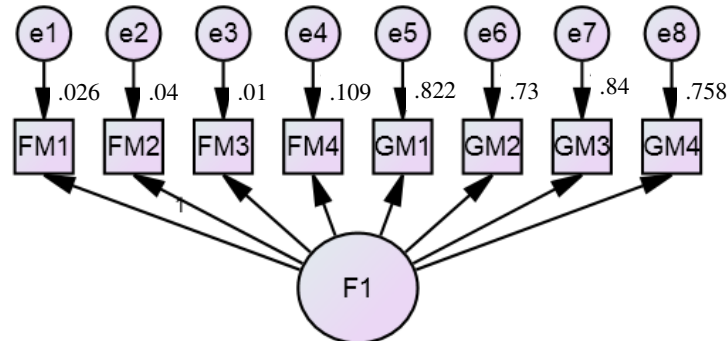


Figure 7. Confirmatory factor model path diagram for Mindset (FM+GM)

The disclosure of the regression weights suggested heterogeneous loadings. In fact, the variance between F1 and FM1, FM2, FM3, FM4 was respectively .026, .04, .01 and .109. This indicated a very little positive linear relationship among the factor FM and the these first four linked items. There were rather higher loadings for the second four items of the factor as exhibited on the diagram (see figure 7), explaining higher variances among those four items and the unique factor.

5.4.2 CFA for Performance rating construct

The confirmatory factor analysis for performance rating construct gave the following indicators: χ^2 (90, N=95) = 496.357, $p < .000$; RMSEA = .184; CFI = .627. Thus we can conclude there is an acceptable fit for this construct model with the data from our sample. Regression weights pertaining this model are exhibited in figure 8.

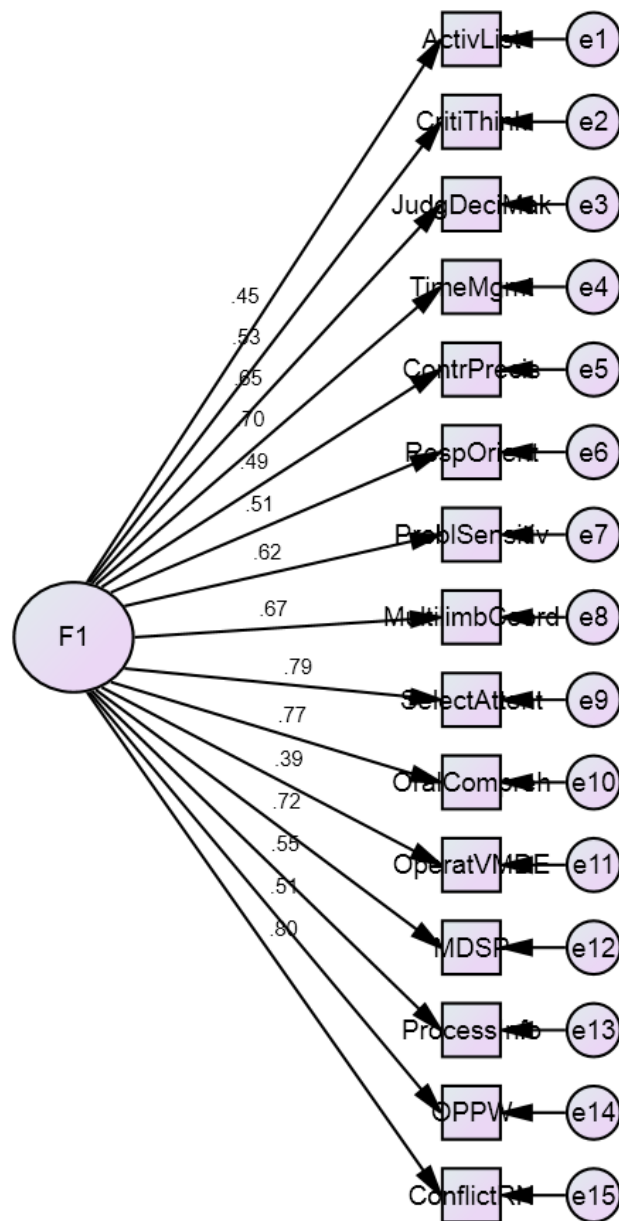


Figure 8. Confirmatory factor model for Performance rating

The following table exhibits the mains indicators of fit used for this factor analysis

Table 8. Goodness-of-Fit Indicators of Models for IPT effect on performance appraisal.

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	RMR	CFI
FM and GM, N=95								
Single Factor	124.895**	20	6.245	.786	.616	.199	.385	.702
Two Factor	29.403*	19		.95	.906	.064	.114	.97
Performance ratings, N=95								
Single Factor	496.357**	90	5.515		.	.184		.627

*p = .06; **p<.000

This table shows an overall view of the goodness-of-fit test results. A comparative evaluation between the first construct model is consistent with the aforementioned comment that two factor gave better results. Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, (2008) asserted that a good fit will give an insignificant result at .05 edge of the chi-square ratio. The two factor model for the first construct met this assertion with a probability equaling .06.

The RMSEA cutoff for a good fit is .07 or below (Steiger, 2007) or near to .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and the two factor model scored .064 expressing good fit while the other showed a poor fit.

Same for the CFI which range is between 0 and 1 with a ratio $\geq .95$ showing good fit. Here it was respectively .97 for the first construct 2-factor expressing a good fit, and .702 and .627 for the other expressing hence a fair fit.

The GFI and AGFI indicators ranging from 0 to 1 indicates goodness-of-fit for values $\geq .95$ for small samples (Miles & Shevlin, 1998). For the 2-factor model it was respectively

.95 and .90 stating good fit while the single factor values was .786 and .616 respectively showing a fair fit.

These results confirmed then our conclusion that our overall model fits to our sample. And for the first construct, 2-factor model had better goodness-of-fit than the single factor model.

5.6 Correlations among the variables

The Pearson's correlation was used to find the relationship among the variables as exhibit shown in table 9. The correlation r ranges between -1, 0 and 1 indicating respectively a perfect negative correlation, no correlation and a perfect positive correlation.

Table 9. Correlations among the demographic indicators and study variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender							
2. Age	.085						
3. Number of Home mates	-.086	.165					
4. Working Experience	.175*	.462**	-.049				
5. Number of Colleagues	.077	.025	.095	.070			
6. Mindset	-.086	-.024	.108	-.064	.074		
7. Performance rating	-.070	-.049	.204*	.026	.024	.767**	

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

A panoramic scan of this matrix indicates that there is overall little correlations between the variables except some cases. First of all, it shows a little positive correlation between working experience and gender ($r = .175$, $p < .05$). Recalling that female were coded 1 and male 2, it means men are more likely to have more working experience than women.

Though it is was statistically significant, the difference might be meaningless if for instance the sample size increases given the little correlation.

Working experience also had a statistically significant low positive relationship age ($r = .462, p < .01$). It makes sense in that working experience is sometimes function of age. People who are aged tend to have prior background than young people. It is logical and the level of this correlation just confirmed it. On the meantime, the correlation between the amount of housemate and the performance rating was statistically significant. The little positive relationship ($r = .204, p < .05$) indicated that our participants provided good rating when they live with at least one person.

Finally, there was statistically significant strong positive relationship between mindset and performance appraisal ($r = .767, p < .01$). Its disclosed partially answers for our main theoretical questioning whether mindset is related to performance ratings. As mindset shifts from static to growth, the rating of performance also increase. But a confirmatory test for these assumption is discussed below.

5.7 Hypotheses testing

To test our research hypotheses, we conducted an independent sample T-test. It is a statistical testing instrument which enable to determine the comparison of the average of two uncorrelated groups, both bearing on a dependent variable. It is used for instance if a researcher want to find if there is a difference between the choice of going to the swimming pool or to the beach during summer. This testing tool was appropriate for our study to find whether the average rating of fixed mindset participants was significantly different from the one of growth mindset participants.

Overall results disclosed that there was a significant difference between performances scoring of growth mindset ($M=68.03$, $SD=9.43$) and fixed mindset ($M=43.76$, $SD=10.96$) people; $t(93) = -11.57$, $p < .001$. Meaning that respondents holding growth mindset attributed overall approximately 24 more points for the same performance evaluation they were provided than fixed mindset participants.

The difference for each individual performance item reflected the overall difference. In fact, recalling that score ranged from 1 to 7, the mean score for active listening was different between growth mindset ($M = 4.86$, $SD= 1.09$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.41$) people; $t(93) = -7.01$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people score on average nearly 1.8 more than fixed mindset people for the active listening item.

The mean score for critical thinking was different between GM ($M = 4.95$, $SD= 1.14$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.65$) people; $t(93) = -5.61$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average around 1.7 more than fixed mindset people for the critical thinking item.

The mean score for Judgment and decision making was different between GM ($M = 4.95$, $SD= 1.14$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.24$, $SD = 1.65$) people; $t(93) = -5.25$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average approximately 1.7 more than fixed mindset people for the critical thinking item.

The mean score for time management was different between GM ($M = 4.44$, $SD= 1.50$) and fixed mindset ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.13$) people; $t(93) = -5.81$, $p < .001$. So, growth

mindset people rated on average approximately 1.9 more than fixed mindset people for the time management item.

The mean mark for control precision was different between GM ($M = 4.89$, $SD = 1.14$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.34$) people; $t(93) = -4.81$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average nearly 1.2 more than fixed mindset people for the control precision item.

The mean score for response orientation was different between GM ($M = 4.86$, $SD = .93$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 1.5$) people; $t(93) = -5.03$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people graded on average around 1.2 more point than fixed mindset people for the response orientation item here as well.

The mean mark for problem sensitivity was different between GM ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.21$) and fixed mindset ($M = 2.95$, $SD = 1.45$) people; $t(93) = -6.08$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average nearly 1.6 more than fixed mindset people for the problem sensitivity item.

The mean score for multilimb coordination was different between GM ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.52$) and fixed mindset ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 1.02$) people; $t(93) = -5.81$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people graded on average around 1.8 more point than fixed mindset people for the multilimb coordination item.

The mean score for selective attention was different between GM ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.57$) and fixed mindset ($M = 2.45$, $SD = 1.08$) people; $t(93) = -5.34$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average about 1.5 more than fixed mindset people for the selective attention item.

The mean mark for oral comprehension was different between GM ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.57$) and fixed mindset ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 1.04$) people; $t(93) = -6.50$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average nearly 1.9 more than fixed mindset people for the oral comprehension item.

The mean mark for operating vehicles, mechanized devices and equipment (OVMDE) was different between GM ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 1.13$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.67$) people; $t(93) = -4.33$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average closely to 1.2 more than fixed mindset people for the OVMDE item.

The mean score for making decision and solving problems (MDSP) was different between GM ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.59$) and fixed mindset ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 1.26$) people; $t(93) = -4.51$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average about 1.3 more than fixed mindset people for the MSDP item.

The mean mark for processing information was different between GM ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 1.09$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.33$) people; $t(93) = -6.58$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average nearly 1.6 more than fixed mindset people for the processing information item.

The mean score for organizing, planning and prioritizing work (OPPW) was different between GM ($M = 5.27$, $SD = .82$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.65$) people; $t(91) = -7.96$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people rated on average nearly above 2 more than fixed mindset people for the OPPW item.

The mean mark for conflict resolution and negotiation was different between GM ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 1.47$) and fixed mindset ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 1.12$) people; $t(93) = -6.73$, $p < .001$. So, growth mindset people graded on average approximately 1.9 more than fixed mindset people for the conflict resolution and negotiation item.

The individual items differences of means converge with the overall model scoring. The gaps ranged from 1.2 to nearly above 2. The aforementioned results explained, rounded to the nearest hundredth, are exhibited on the following tables. The first table discloses the grouse average ratings of individual items and the general performance rating model. The second one displays the result of significance test of these means differences.

Table 10. Group statistics of mean differences

	Mindset	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error mean
Performance ratings	FM	38	43.7632	10.95799	1.77762
	GM	57	68.0351	9.42634	1.24855
Active listening	FM	38	3.0526	1.41321	.22925
	GM	57	4.8596	1.09281	.14475
Critical thinking	FM	38	3.3421	1.64853	.26743
	GM	57	4.9474	1.14051	.15106
Judgment and decision making	FM	38	2.7632	1.54979	.25141
	GM	57	4.3333	1.34075	.17759
Time management	FM	38	2.6053	1.51639	.24599
	GM	57	4.4386	1.50021	.19871

Control precision	FM	38	3.6579	1.34116	.21757
	GM	57	4.8947	1.14462	.15161
Response orientation	FM	38	3.6053	1.49846	.24308
	GM	57	4.8596	.93424	.12374
Problem sensitivity	FM	38	2.9474	1.45095	.23538
	GM	57	4.6140	1.20645	.15980
Multilimb coordination	FM	38	2.2105	1.01763	.16508
	GM	57	4.0702	1.52198	.20159
Selective attention	FM	38	2.4474	1.08297	.17568
	GM	57	4.0175	1.57538	.20866
Oral comprehension	FM	38	2.2105	1.04385	.16933
	GM	57	4.1053	1.57757	.20895
Operating vehicles mechanized devices and equipment	FM	38	3.5789	1.67060	.27101
	GM	57	4.8246	1.13583	.15044
Making decisions and solving problems	FM	38	2.6316	1.26108	.20457
	GM	57	4.0175	1.58668	.21016
Processing information	FM	38	3.1842	1.33265	.21618
	GM	57	4.8246	1.08764	.14406
Organizing planning and prioritizing work	FM	38	3.2105	1.64658	.26711
	GM	55	5.2727	.82674	.11148
Conflict resolution and negotiation	FM	38	2.3158	1.11756	.18129
	GM	56	4.2143	1.47358	.19691

Table 11. Independent T-test for group mean differences

		Levene's test for equality of variances		T-test for equality of means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Performance ratings	Equal variances assumed	.043	.836	-11.516	93	.000	-24.27193	2.10760	-28.45721	-20.08665
	Equal variances not assumed			-11.173	71.081	.000	-24.27193	2.17228	-28.60325	-19.94061
Active listening	Equal variances assumed	1.414	.237	-7.013	93	.000	-1.80702	.25766	-2.31868	-1.29535
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.665	65.502	.000	-1.80702	.27112	-2.34841	-1.26562
Critical thinking	Equal variances assumed	8.378	.005	-5.614	93	.000	-1.60526	.28596	-2.17313	-1.03740
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.226	60.322	.000	-1.60526	.30714	-2.21957	-.99095
Judgment and decision making	Equal variances assumed	1.597	.209	-5.252	93	.000	-1.57018	.29898	-2.16388	-.97647
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.101	71.391	.000	-1.57018	.30780	-2.18386	-.95649
Time management	Equal variances assumed	.006	.939	-5.810	93	.000	-1.83333	.31554	-2.45993	-1.20674

	Equal variances not assumed			-5.798	78.856	.000	-1.83333	.31622	-2.46277	-1.20389
Control precision	Equal variances assumed	1.870	.175	-4.815	93	.000	-1.23684	.25688	-1.74696	-.72673
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.664	70.651	.000	-1.23684	.26518	-1.76564	-.70805
Response orientation	Equal variances assumed	11.891	.001	-5.028	93	.000	-1.25439	.24946	-1.74977	-.75900
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.599	56.169	.000	-1.25439	.27277	-1.80077	-.70801
Problem sensitivity	Equal variances assumed	4.695	.033	-6.079	93	.000	-1.66667	.27418	-2.21114	-1.12219
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.858	69.248	.000	-1.66667	.28449	-2.23418	-1.09915
Multilimb coordination	Equal variances assumed	9.949	.002	-6.606	93	.000	-1.85965	.28151	-2.41867	-1.30063
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.137	92.995	.000	-1.85965	.26056	-2.37707	-1.34223
Selective attention	Equal variances assumed	4.942	.029	-5.354	93	.000	-1.57018	.29328	-2.15256	-.98779
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.756	92.888	.000	-1.57018	.27277	-2.11186	-1.02849
Oral comprehension	Equal variances assumed	10.255	.002	-6.509	93	.000	-1.89474	.29110	-2.47281	-1.31666
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.045	92.999	.000	-1.89474	.26895	-2.42882	-1.36065

Operating vehicles mechanized devices and equipment	Equal variances assumed	10.215	.002	-4.330	93	.000	-1.24561	.28770	-1.81693	-.67430
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.019	59.580	.000	-1.24561	.30996	-1.86573	-.62550
Making decision solving problems	Equal variances assumed	1.993	.161	-4.515	93	.000	-1.38596	.30698	-1.99557	-.77636
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.726	90.044	.000	-1.38596	.29329	-1.96863	-.80330
Processing information	Equal variances assumed	.676	.413	-6.576	93	.000	-1.64035	.24946	-2.13573	-1.14497
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.314	68.263	.000	-1.64035	.25979	-2.15871	-1.12199
Organizing planning and prioritizing work	Equal variances assumed	36.406	.000	-7.961	91	.000	-2.06220	.25904	-2.57675	-1.54765
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.125	49.973	.000	-2.06220	.28944	-2.64357	-1.48084
Conflict resolution and negotiation	Equal variances assumed	3.385	.069	-6.732	92	.000	-1.89850	.28201	-2.45859	-1.33840
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.093	90.791	.000	-1.89850	.26766	-2.43019	-1.36680

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This last section of our research consists of the discussion about the results obtained in the preceding chapter related to the proposed research hypotheses, as well as the conclusion for the overall study. This chapter is presented as follow: the discussion, the research implications, the limitations, the recommendations for upcoming research and the contribution.

6.2 Discussion

In line with the analysis of the conducted experiment data, and with respect to the research questions and hypotheses aforementioned in chapter 1, the following results interpretations can be drawn.

6.2.1 Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis proposed stated that when given a prior negative background information about an employee, fixed mindset managers will more likely provide lower rating to an employee's following good performance. Indeed, obtained empirical results disclosed that the fixed mindset participants gave on average lower ratings compare to the other group, for the general constructed model and all its items. These confirmed the first hypothesis.

6.2.2 Hypothesis 2

In contrast to the previous hypothesis, this one proposed that growth mindset managers will rather provide higher ratings to an employee future good performance, even though they are given a prior negative background information concerning that employee. The result showed that growth mindset participant made in general model and in individual items, higher ratings than fixed mindset people. Gaps even showed differences between from 1.2 to nearly over 2 points, in a range of 6. Thus hypothesis 2 is confirmed.

It is also noteworthy to mention that results obtained from the correlation matrix fall in line with these second results. In fact, mindset was strongly correlated to performance rating ($r = .767$, $p < .01$). Meaning that, consistent with independent t-test empirical results, growth mindset goes along with higher performance rating despite any prior negative information given. In contrast, fixed mindset are likely to keep anchored to that negative prior information and hence, leaning on that to provide rating of a current good performance.

6.3 Implications

This research work is worthwhile with the implications that it raises for managers and executives, human resource practitioners and organizations in general.

First of all, it is of crucial importance for managers from all level of the organizational chart to be aware and acknowledge the fallibility of their judgmental decisions when dealing with subordinate evaluations. It is noteworthy to mention that they should bear in mind their decision is not subject to perfection and thus, cannot be fully accounted as irrevocable especially when making critical decisions. Though they might refer to some

computed figures to base their decisions, they may try to go much more for collegial decisions rather than unilateral judgments. The result of this study implies that managers or supervisors may refer to a more objective advice from their peers, even from a different department, when making an assessment. It will be even more essential if the evaluation may lead to a promotion, recommendation, corrective action, or worst a layoff.

In addition, this research is revelatory of the impediment that the mindset is likely to be in the decision-making process related to performance appraisal. In fact, the research revealed that holding a fixed mindset hampers the acknowledgment of good performance preceding a negative information. It is even possible for the opposite in that, a manager holding a fixed mindset might fail to recognize and evaluate appropriately a poor performance preceded by a positive background information. Or also growth mindset holder exhibiting extrapolation in their judgment positively or negatively, consistent with their spouse belief in change. Thus, managers should be aware of which mindset group they belong to and make an effort not to be biased on it when evaluating employees and making post-evaluative decisions. To do so, they can check over their judgmental decisions as much as necessary and possible.

Furthermore, this implication does not emphasize only for managers of the corporate environment. In fact, public and para-public sector administrators, academic and scholastic corps, and even army and defense corps supervisors are also targets to these implications, although the occurrence frequency of PA is weaker in some of these organizations than in the corporate environment. The first because they are leading programs and people for a regional or national interest and hence, when evaluating their

subordinates, bear in mind to make abstraction of their mindset influence. The second for two reasons. First, instructors have also an evaluative duties upon students' performance. Thence, they should focus exclusively on a student's performance rather than keeping be anchored at their "impressions" about the student and/or under- or over-rating performances. Secondly because some instructors might be found to be reluctant with their students from a general grievance. For this reason, directors, chairs or administrators should be objective in considering appropriate actions to fix such issues. Finally the third because of commonly perceived rigidity exhibited by commanders when evaluating and element. They should bear also in mind that their mindset is likely to impede on their judgments on a soldier's single or successive set of performances.

Moreover, the results of this study do have an implication for human resource practitioners and policy makers. It is a worthwhile signal to seize their attention upon the matter of mindset when dealing decisions and rules concerning hiring for positions of responsibilities. In fact, in line with the obtained results, they can seriously consider the inclusion of IPT measure among the battery of psychometric tests for their new recruits or include it as a job preamble with regard to supervisory positions. They may use this measure in order to have an idea of the state of mind of the recruit or potential recruit, and then consider if necessary training actions. In addition, this can also be applicable within the organization for newly promotion to a supervisory position by the HR department. When an employee is likely to be upgraded for the first time to such position, it appears worthy to consider this measure as it will imply that potential new supervisor to handle his henceforth subordinates evaluations. This implication is noteworthy to ensure avoiding drawbacks aforementioned.

Finally, it is a call for each and every one no matter the position held, employed or jobless, students or self-made people, professionals or academicians, to be aware of their mindset status and the consequences it is likely to make in the day-to-day interactions with family, friends, colleagues or strangers.

6.4 Limitations of the study

The conception and body of this thesis is subject to imperfection such as every human enterprise. First the sample size was relatively far lower than the amount of the target population which could have also participated in this study. Added to this the lack of enthusiasm of students for participating in the survey, expressed by the lassitude or expeditive behavior exhibited during the filling of the questionnaires. This could be explained by the fact that no motivational stimuli were used and survey was done upon exclusively upon voluntarism of participants.

Secondly, this study was conducted in an academic environment. Most students do not have enough professional and supervisory experience. It may thus not propose accurately the exact professionals corporate environment to put the experiment purpose into context of real appraisal.

Furthermore, this was a cross-sectional study and for so doing, only a single time frame was used to assess participant behavioral rating intentions. Thus this research does not bring or light out the potential consistencies or discrepancies which may arise for the change in time and behavior of participants.

6.5 Suggestions

Further studies about this topic may target a larger sample than the one used of this research. Also, it is noteworthy to mention that participant might need more “motivations” to participate willingly. This could result in more accurate results with less margin of errors in differences. A study made in a corporate environment may also be more likely to show how this environment affect the internal consistency of these results.

Another suggestion is that potential studies may add a relative longer time lag between the participants’ IPT measure and the performance evaluation. This will reduce respondents’ demand effect or tendency to make a link between the mindset measure and performance rating. Researchers may also attempt to conduct longitudinal research in this topic to have a better understanding of the degree of relation between the variables studied in this topic across a time and integrating participants change in behavior effects.

Moreover, future research may attempt to find the influence of mindset on the performance rating by rather using a positive prior background information as priming anchor and thereafter provide a performance below expectation. Using this procedure could reveal if fixed mindset people will still provide higher ratings, consistent with their anchoring bias to prior information. Also, it might exhibit if growth mindset people will acknowledge and provide lower rating, consistent with their belief in change.

6.6 Conclusion

This thesis hypothesized that the mindset of managers has an impact on their appraisal of employee performance. Specifically fixed mindset people rather provided lower rating

than growth mindset people when given a prior negative background information. Results obtained confirmed these hypothesis. No significant correlation were found however between demographic variable and main studied variables. The research provided some contributions to the existing literature by adding information about perception and evaluative processes pertaining the mindset and its influence on assessment and appraisal of performance. A new experimental tool was used and satisfactorily confirmed hypothesis stated in the study. Thus, implication were drawn upon the results obtained for managers, and policy makers to avoid potential consequences aforementioned in future circumstances.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Permission letter for students emails databases

Hocam,

I am writing to need your approval to use your department Master's program students email address for the purpose of my Thesis.

I am currently working on my MBA thesis upon the effect of managers' *mindset on their employees' performance appraisals*, under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Cem Tanova. My target population is Master's students involved in any way in business, management, economic and finance field. Data collection mean is two online form to be filled by potential respondent through any electronic device.

I know so far that your department has got a database containing students email addresses. Therefore I request your authorization to get access and use this database. The aim is to send the web links of the forms to be filled.

Emphasizing on the pure academic nature of this project, I do promise about the confidential use of this database throughout the whole process. I hope this will not be of any concern.

I am looking forward reading from you.

Yours Faithfully,

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Appendix B: Cover letter of the questionnaire

Dear EMU Graduate fellow,

You have received this email as a potential respondent for my MBA thesis research pertaining managers' mindset influence on their employees' performance evaluation. Your response will be crucial in enabling me to have as much as possible an understanding about this topic issue.

Below are two web links whereby you can find the related forms to be filled out (either with a computer, tablet or smartphone). It will take you around 10 minutes to complete the task. The information you will provide will be treated under a strict confidence. You will not be asked about your name, address or phone number.

I hope filling these questionnaires will be enjoyable for you. Thank you for the time you will spent on this task. For any queries or information about this research please feel free to contact me.

Thank you for your help and Good Luck for your final exams.

1st link:

IPT measure

<http://goo.gl/forms/v4kmZ3WgoM>

2nd link:

Tim's performance appraisal

<http://goo.gl/forms/Uj1FfcFyZy>

Sincerely,

Steven W. BAYIGHOMOG L.

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Appendix C: Demographic and mindset questionnaires

1. Demographic Information.

Please fill with an [X] the parenthesis the information which fits you the best.

Gender: Female () Male ()

Age:

Marital status: Single () In a relationship () Married () Divorced () Separated ()
Widowed ()

Nationality: ()

Number of people living with you:

Working experience in years (*seasonal, part-time or full-time job*): less than

Number of people currently working / having worked with you over the last past 1 year:

2. Please use the scale provided to indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

	The kind of person someone is, is something basic about them, and it can't be changed very much.
	People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed.
	Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much that they can do to really change that.
	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.
	Everyone, no matter who they are, can significantly change their basic characteristics.
	People can substantially change the kind of person they are.
	No matter what kind of person someone is, they can always change very much.
	People can change even their most basic qualities.

Appendix D: Prior negative background information priming manipulation

Please rate the performance of the following employee accurately, as if you are his direct supervisor. The company will consider these ratings and the accuracy of your evaluation will influence your own performance rating by your own superiors.

To give you a feel for the person whose performance you are about to read and evaluate.

Tim is a young commercial airline pilot who hopes to be promoted captain earlier than the average time. However, he has failed the qualification exam twice and hardly got his license. He has made efforts to improve, but his instructors have expressed their skepticism about whether Tim will ever have what it requires to be promoted captain.

Based on the preliminary information, Tim's performance is:

- ☐ Below expectations
- ☐ Meets expectations
- ☐ Above expectations

Appendix E: Performance Scenario

Tim is a (young) pilot for a commercial airline company who was about to make his first flight. He came 15 min early that morning for crew check-in, as the company rules and standards require pilots to come 2 hours sharp prior to flight departure. While doing the pre-flight preparation he was meticulously following the checklist requirements and sequentially looking at filling the administrative papers for crew and aircraft, checking airport diagram runways and taxi route, the weather forecast, fuel requirements for the number of passengers and plane gross weight. During the crew meeting, he kept silent when the captain and the other crew members were discussing about the flight details. When the crew gets into the cabin, one pilot always make a careful external inspection of the plane to check for any abnormalities. As Tim was making the inspection, he checked every details on the plane that he could neither see nor respond to the ground staff worker who waived a “hi” to him.

Back on board, he found an issue between a passenger and a flight attendant. Specifically, the steward requested from this passenger to send his nearly 20 kg full of bottles cabin luggage to the hold (the belly) of the plane (where heavy luggage are kept). But this one refused sending it there otherwise he will not board. Having been briefed by the steward, Tim asked to the passenger why he absolutely want to board in with the problematic bag and after hearing, proposed him to remove them from the bag and put them inside plastic bags provided by the flight attendant who will keep them during the whole flight and return them upon arrival. The passenger approved and agreed to do as Tim suggested.

During the flight, the captain checked the gauges and the monitors and realized that the amount of fuel carried on board was 20kg extra and the flight route which Tim calculated before departure happened to be shorter than previous similar destinations flights. The plane did not consequently need to stopover for refueling to a nearby airport which occur to be less time and financially costly for both the airline and the passenger. When the plane reached its final destination, Tim was in control of the aircraft so he landed the plane. He operated the aircraft controls normally and he drove the plane to its assigned parking area. Following the marshaller precise directives, he parked the aircraft right to its stop point. Actuation of the boarding bridge, offloading the luggage, disembarking of passengers went out normally.

Appendix E: Performance ratings scale

Please rate the performance of Tim. 1=Absolutely Poor Performance. 6= Absolutely Good Performance	1	2	3	4	5	6
1- He gives full attention to what other people are saying and fairly interrupt them.						
2- He uses reasoning and logic to identify weaknesses and strengths of alternative solutions conclusion or approaches to problems.						
3- He considers the relative benefits and costs of potential actions to choose the most appropriate one.						
4- He manages his time and the time of others.						
5- He quickly and repeatedly adjusts the controls of the plane to exact positions.						
6- He chooses quickly between two or more movements in response to two or more different signals.						
7- He tells when something is wrong or likely to go wrong. (It is not solving a problem just recognize there is a problem).						
8- He coordinates two or more limbs together (e.g.: 2 arms, 2 legs, 1 arm and 1 leg) while inside the cockpit.						
9- He concentrates on a task over a period of time without being distracted.						
10- He listens and understands information and ideas presented through spoken words and sentences.						
11- He runs, operates, moves and navigates the aircraft properly.						
12- He analyzes the information and evaluates results to choose the best solution and solve problems.						
13- He compiles, codifies, categorizes, calculates and verifies information or data						
14- He handles complaints, settles disputes and resolves grievances and conflicts related to transportation operations.						
15- He develops specific goals and plans to prioritize, organize and accomplish his work.						

Appendix F: Performance skills sets assessed in the rating scale

BASIC MENTAL ABILITIES

- Q7- Problem Sensitivity
- Q10- Oral Comprehension
- Q13- Processing Information

COMPOSITE MENTAL ABILITIES

- Q1- Active Listening
- Q5- Control Precision
- Q6- Response Orientation
- Q8- Multilimb Coordination
- Q9- Selective Attention

PILOT SPECIFIC OPERATIONAL COMPETENCES

- Q2- Critical Thinking
- Q3- Judgment and Decision Making
- Q4- Time Management
- Q11- Operating Vehicles, Mechanized Devices or Equipment
- Q12- Making Decisions and Solving Problems
- Q14- Organizing, Planning and Prioritizing Work

SOCIAL-INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCES

- Q15- Resolving Conflicts and Negotiating with Others