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INTERACTION EFFECT OF MANAGER'S IMPLICIT PERSON THEORY AND PERCEIVED PERFORMANCE
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INTERACTION EFFECT OF MANAGER'S IMPLICIT PERSON THEORY AND
PERCEIVED PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT PURPOSE ON THEIR
COMMITMENT TO PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

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For my parents.

致我的父母

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABBREVIATIONS	DESCRIPTION
PM	Performance Management
IPT	Implicit Person Theory
TCM	Three-component Commitment Model
AC	Affective Commitment
CC	Continuous Commitment
NC	Normative Commitment
SDT	Self-determination Theory
KUT	Klein et al., Unidimensional, Target-free Commitment Scale
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis

ABSTRACT

Wang, Erzhuo, M.S., Purdue University, August 2016. Interaction Effect of Manager's Implicit Person Theory and Perceived Performance Management Purpose on Their Commitment to Performance Management. Major Professor: Jane Williams.

There has been a growing literature regarding how subordinates' reaction potentially impacts the performance management effectiveness. However, managers' reaction to performance management has been largely overlooked. To address this research gap, the major purpose of the current study was two-fold. First, the present study proposed a three-component commitment model to conceptualize managers' perception toward performance management. Second, by employing self-determination theory, the current study examined how managers' implicit person theory and the perceived performance management purpose interactively shaped their commitment pattern towards performance management. Confirmatory factor analysis supported the hypothesized factor structure of performance management commitment. Further, managers' incrementalism was a significant and negative predictor of continuous commitment to performance management. Lastly, the moderate effect of perceived purpose of performance management in the relationship between managers' IPT and affective commitment to performance management was supported. Theoretical contribution, study limitations as well as further research directions were discussed.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Is performance management broken? This provocative statement by Pulakos & O’Leary (2007) reflects the sentiments of practitioners and researchers alike. This frustration results from a sense that performance management is a critical process, yet organizations consistently struggle to implement it in an effective way. Further, Pulakos and O’Leary (2007) also suggested researchers’ efforts devoted to improving the effectiveness of the performance management normally results in little changes due to the significant gaps between research and operational implementation. The current research study seeks to identify a potentially new avenue for research that will result in more effective interventions.

Employees’ reaction to performance management has drawn substantial attention among the performance management researchers (Keeping & Levy, 2000). However, limited attention has been directed to manager’s reactions to the performance process and the subsequent impact on performance management effectiveness. It is actually quite surprising, given managers are the operators of performance management system. Therefore, the current research intends to extend the Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component commitment model to conceptualize manager’s perceptions toward performance management. Meyer and Allen (1991) indicated organizational commitment

could be viewed as individuals' perceived bond to their organization. Further, in their model, this psychological bond could be divided into three distinct components.

Subsequently, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed that individual could develop the sense of commitment to multiple entities, including "a course of actions." They further applied the three-component commitment model into organizational change activities.

Their findings implied that commitment towards a specific course of action significantly predicted employees' behavior in organizational change. Follow this vein, the present research proposed a new construct "commitment to performance management," aiming to capture managers' attitude and reaction towards performance management activities.

Recent studies have identified a promising variable in understanding supervisors' behavior in performance management, the implicit person theory (IPT). IPT refers to individuals' fundamental assumption about the alterability of human attributes. This construct was initially introduced by Dweck (1986) to examine children's learning outcome. Her work suggested that individual could hold either an entity theory, which assumes human attributes cannot be changed; or an incremental theory, which assumes that human attributes can be altered over time. Heslin and his colleagues investigated how supervisors' IPT impacted their perception of subordinates' performance as well as the quality of their coaching (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle, & Latham, 2006). Specifically, compared to entity supervisors, the incremental supervisors were more likely to recognize subordinates' performance change and reflect the performance variations in their performance ratings. Further, incremental managers also tended to engage in more coaching behaviors, which further affected their subordinates' perceptions toward performance management. These findings are

interesting; however, their research did not specify the psychological mechanism underlying these relationships. Related to the current study, we believe commitment to performance management may provide implications in understanding IPT's impact on manager's behavior in performance management process. As such, we expected that incremental managers and entity managers would respond differently to performance management system. Specifically, the current study proposes that IPT predicts supervisors' commitment to performance management.

Substantial evidence has supported a variety of contextual variables may serve as the boundary conditions and moderate the relation between individual dispositional attributes and commitment (Herold, Fedor, & Caldwell, 2007). Past research has shown that performance management systems may serve different purposes, such as the administrative and developmental purposes (e.g. Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989; Farr & Levy, 2007). Research has also found that perceived purpose of performance management serves as a valid antecedent in predicting not only raters' behavior (Spence & Keeping, 2011) but also ratees' reaction to performance management process (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000). Therefore, in this study, we aim to examine the potential moderating impact of managers' perceived performance management purpose on the relationship between IPT and PM commitment.

In the following sections, literature regarding organizational commitment, implicit person theory as well as the perceived purpose of performance management will be reviewed.

1.2 Workplace Commitment

Workplace commitment has continually drawn interest from I/O psychologists since 1970 (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) synthesized previous research and proposed a three-component commitment model. So far, this model has become the most prevalent paradigm in this field. According to Meyer and Allen's (1991) model, commitment is defined as the psychological mindset which drives employees to maintain their organizational membership. More importantly, they also argued that commitment was not a unitary construct. Instead, it is comprised of three sub-dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment as well as continuance commitment. Each of the components is accompanied by a unique mindset, such that affective commitment is mainly driven by a voluntary intention to stay; continuance commitment is driven by the perceived expense to leave; normative commitment is driven by a sense of loyalty or perceived obligation to maintain group identity (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

In previous research, employees' global commitment towards organization has been the major focus in this line of research (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982). But substantial evidence also suggested commitment could be generated towards other "social foci" (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004), such as the labor union (Friedman & Harvey, 1986) and work unit (e.g., Becker, Billing, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996; Siders, George, & Dharwadkar, 2001; Landry, Panaccio, & Vandenberghe, 2010). It has been identified that employees' commitments towards different foci are distinguishable from each other and, further, explain employees' behaviors in their unique ways. For instance, Becker et al. (1996) reported that employees' commitment towards their direct manager correlated

stronger with job performance than general organizational commitment. As such, it is generally believed that individual can generate commitment towards different foci for various reasons (Becker et al., 1996).

Despite the seeming consensus in academia, the reason why individuals may generate commitment toward multiple foci has not been theoretically justified. To address this issue, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed that the commitment's "core essence" laid in the mindset which tied an individual to actions aiming to achieve a certain target. This proposition regarding the nature of commitment has greatly expanded the horizon of literature in this field and theoretically justified that commitment can be generated towards various forms of targets, including "a recognizable entity", "an abstract concept" and "the intended outcome of a course of actions" (p. 310). Of particular interest, several empirical studies have lent preliminary support to the notion that commitment can be directed to "a course of actions." For instance, Neubert and Cady (2001) examined the effect of employees' commitment to continuous improvement program in a service-based organization. The result showed that employees' program commitment correlated positively with their participation and program-related performance. Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) reported that in a service-oriented organization that had established certain emotion display rules, employees who were high in emotion display rules commitment tended to comply with the rules and were more possibly to show emotion appropriately. In another study, Ford, Weissbein, and Plamondon (2003) examined officers' commitment to their division's community-policing strategy. It was found that officers' commitment to policing strategy significantly predicted the frequency that they engaged in community-related policing activities. Additionally, this study reported

officers' commitment to community-policing strategy and their organizational commitment predicted their attitudes and behaviors differently: global organizational commitment was a valid predictor of officers' job satisfaction instead of their community policing behaviors. In contrast, commitment to community-policing strategy predicted policing behaviors but not job satisfaction. These studies have provided support that an employees' commitment to certain actions might drive them to put more effort in performing those actions as well as pursuing the target related to the actions. Further, employees' action commitment has been a more valid predictor of their goal-directed behaviors compare to organizational commitment.

Unfortunately, the above studies only employed a unidimensional model to measure commitment to actions, which was stemmed from the goal commitment literature (Locke, Latham, & Erez, 1988; Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999). Taking a multidimensional perspective, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) operationalized employees' employees' attitudes towards organizational change on the basis of the three-component model and proposed a new construct: commitment to change. Evidence gathered in their research has supported that commitment to change can be differentiated from global organizational commitment and exhibits its unique criteria validity in predicting employees' behavior in the organizational change process, such that employees' commitment to change was reported to be a stronger positive predictor of their self-reported support for organization's change initiative. This line of literature provides preliminary support for the feasibility of applying the three-component model to conceptualize and measure commitment towards action-relevant targets. Related to the current study, we sought to establish that the three-component commitment model could

be used to operationalize supervisors' commitment to engage in performance management. In the following sections, theory and research identifying the consequences and antecedents of commitment will be reviewed.

1.3 Consequences of Workplace Commitment

Traditionally, the concept of commitment has been considered to be important by practitioners and researchers for its potential ability to retain employees (Wright & Kehoe, 2008). Researchers suggest that committed employees are prone to maintain their organizational identities and less likely to withdraw from work, such as turnover intention and actual turnover. Moreover, accumulated evidence also provides support to the notion that workplace commitment predicts a wide array of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in workplace. These outcomes include absenteeism (Blau & Boal, 1987; Somer, 1995), task performance (Fulmer, Gerhart & Scott, 2003; Ostroff, 1992, Koys, 2001); organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Organ & Ryan, 1995, Meyer et al., 2002; Bolon, 1997) as well as employees' psychological well-being (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Grawitch, Trares, & Kohler, 2007). The three commitment components provide distinct predictive validities towards outcomes (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002).

The current research pays particular attention to a specific type of workplace commitment: action commitment. This is mainly because our focal construct, commitment to performance management, can be viewed as a special type of action commitment. Action commitment pertains to "an attachment or bond to an action" (Neubert & Wu, 2009, p. 179). As they suggest, this bond or attachment can be directed towards a variety of targets, ranging from individual-level targets to group-level targets.

On the other hand, those actions may also differ in tangibilities. For instance, employees' commitment may be directed to a work-related goal that can be viewed as a tangible action target, or they can be committed to certain kinds of group norms, which are considered as an intangible action target. Unlike commitment to social foci, most existing research regarding action commitment originates from the concept of "goal commitment", which is considered as a unidimensional construct depicting individual's determination to obtain a goal (Diefendorff & Meredith, 2008; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Locke & Latham, 1990). It is also viewed as one of the major tangible action commitments (Neubert & Wu, 2009). The importance of goal commitment was emphasized by Locke, Latham, and Erez (1988): the motivational effect of a goal will not exist unless it is committed to by the focal individual. Accumulated evidence has provided support that goal commitment can potentially function as either mediator or moderator in goal-performance relations (Klein et al., 1999). For example, several meta-analyses (Klein et al., 1999; Locke & Latham, 1990, 2003) documented that the extent to which individual is committed to a goal serves as the central moderating mechanism in the relationship between goal difficulty and work outcomes. Specifically, employees with higher goal commitment generally perform better when they are assigned a more difficult goal. In addition, Renn (2003) found that subordinates with higher goal commitment tended to seek feedback from their supervisors and process feedback information more effectively. Those feedback-seeking behaviors would, in turn, facilitate their performance improvement. Further, Klein and Lee (2006) reported that conscientious individuals would have a higher test score in learning. This relationship was fully mediated by their commitment to the learning goal. Overall, evidence has supported that goal commitment

is associated with various behavioral outcomes. What should be emphasized here is that, no matter how it is measured, most related research typically views goal commitment as a unitary concept (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1990, 2003). This way of conceptualization was also adopted by other action commitment studies that were stemming from goal commitment.

In addition to goal commitment, strategy commitment might be the first research field that applies goal commitment to a particular course of actions. After a company formulates its strategy, the strategy won't be successfully implemented unless it is committed to by the employees (Yang, Sun, & Eppler, 2009). Noble and Mokwa (1999) proposed that a middle-level manager's commitment to strategy was the key to effective strategy implementation. In their study, they defined commitment to strategy as "the extent to which a manager comprehends and supports the goals and objectives of a marketing strategy" (p. 62). Although the importance of commitment to strategy has been noted in several studies (e.g., Floyd & Wooldrige, 1992), to the author's knowledge, Nobel and Mokwa's (1999) study is the only one that empirically examined the outcomes of commitment to the strategy. According to this study, manager's commitment to strategy was positively related to their role performance of strategy implementation as well as their perception of implementation success. Further, they also reported strategy commitment was a stronger predictor of strategy implementation success perception ($r = .45$) than organizational commitment ($r = .11$).

There have been several studies investigating employees' commitment to the initiatives or programs which aim to realize the determined strategy (e.g. Neubert & Cady, 2001; Ford et al., 2003). Program commitment was defined as "a measure of

attachment to a specific program or initiative of planned scope within the organization” (Neubert & Cady, 2001, p. 422). It was reported that employees’ sale program commitment promoted their voluntary involvement and increased their performance (Neubert & Cady, 2001). As we have reviewed in the previous section, Ford et al. (2003) investigated officers’ commitment to their community-policing strategy and found it correlated with their community-related policing behavior. Moreover, Breaux (2004) investigated a specific type of program commitment: accountants’ commitment to organization’s budgetary process. In their study, accountants’ commitment to the budgetary process was positively correlated with their managerial performance.

Action commitment has also been utilized in the emotional labor research, which has been another flourishing area of action commitment study (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008; Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011; Wang et al., 2013). Many service-oriented organizations stipulate policies regarding employees’ emotion expression standards. Those relevant policies are referred as “emotion display rules” (Grandey, 2000). Gathered evidence suggests that employees’ commitment to emotion display rules functions as a moderator in the relationship between their perception of company’s emotional display policy and their compliances (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Further, Wang et al. (2011) indicated that, after experiencing mistreatment from customers, employees with lower emotion display rule commitment tended to engage in sabotage, which was considered as a type of revenging towards the customer. In a subsequent study, Wang et al. (2013) reported that employees with a higher level of emotion display rule commitment were prone to ruminate over customer mistreatment and experience negative mood.

Neubert and Wu (2009) indicated action commitment research had the main focus of interpreting the relationship between commitment and employee non-discretionary behavior which was typically tied to a goal. This also implies a potential drawback of conceptualizing action commitment based on the goal commitment: it's unable to predict individual's discretionary behavior, which refers to the behaviors that are beneficial to the goal setting and/or the goal realization, but is not specified in the goal statement (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2004). For instance, OCB is considered as discretionary behavior. In contrast, the three-component model is superior in depicting the overall picture regarding the complex relationship between commitment and various workplace behaviors, including both non-discretionary and discretionary behaviors. On one hand, it has been shown that under the theoretical framework of three-component commitment, commitments stemming from distinct bases correlate with discretionary behavior differently (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For example, available evidence demonstrates that continuous commitment is not a valid predictor of OCB whereas affective commitment is (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). On the other hand, existing research also indicates that affective commitment, as a single dimension, possesses predictive validity towards both non-discretionary behavior and discretionary behavior (Meyer et al., 2002). Conversely, unidimensional goal commitment does not significantly predict discretionary behavior (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). This difference in predictive validity can be considered as another major distinction between goal-based action commitment and three-component commitment. Moreover, Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak (2006) reported a significant three-way interaction among the three dimensions of commitment in predicting employees' OCB. Specifically, they found normative

commitment was negatively associated with OCB when employees were low in affective commitment and high in continuance commitment. This finding has not been consistent with existing research in which normative commitment is regarded the only focal construct. Gallantly et al.'s (2006) study not only implies that relationship between commitment and behavior is far more sophisticated than we thought but also emphasizes the necessity of taking account of the multi-dimensional nature of commitment in relevant research.

As mentioned in the early section, Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) study was the first research intending to conceptualize action commitment based on the three-component model. Their study suggested some potential advantages of three-component commitment model in operationalizing action commitment. Specifically, the three dimensions of change commitment also show different patterns in predicting an employees' change-related behaviors. To be specific, although all the three components of change commitment could significantly predict employees' compliance with the change initiative requirement, only the affective and normative dimensions were positively related to employees' cooperation. Moreover, those two dimensions also promoted employees' championing behaviors which were considered to be the discretionary form of behavioral supports for change. Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, and Topolnytsky (2007) replicated this study in Canada and Indian. They reported employees had high level of continuance change commitment tended to withhold support for organization's change initiative. More interestingly, Meyer et al. (2007) included "mere compliance" as a behavioral outcome measure, which represented the degree to which employees only intended to exert minimal efforts towards change initiative, as one of the

behavioral outcomes. Employees who were high in continuance change commitment inclined to merely show facial compliance to organizational change initiative. In contrast, employees who were affectively committed to change did not. Following this line of research, several subsequent studies investigated other behavioral outcomes related to change commitment, including employees' trust towards supervisors, turnover intention, OCB (Cunningham, 2006; Neves & Caetano, 2009). Overall, beyond demonstrating three-component commitment model's generalizability, change commitment literature also lends support to the advantage of three-component commitment model in predicting employees' volitional behaviors.

It is noteworthy that Klein, Cooper, Molloy, and Swanson (2014) provided a new four-item unidimensional target free approach to measuring employees' commitment. They named this measure as KUT (Klein et al., Unidimensional, Target-free). KUT was built on Klein et al.'s (2012) reconceptualization of commitment: "a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target" (p. 137). As Klein et al. (2014) indicated, one of KUT's advantages was that it provided a flexible commitment measure, which could be concise enough and applicable to multiple targets. However, the current study still has several concerns towards the validity of KUT. First and foremost, as Klein et al. (2014) indicated, the KUT was based on a narrower definition of commitment, which was aiming to remove theoretical redundancies and compounds of commitment. As a result, the narrower scope of definition may lead to relative smaller predictive validity. For example, the TCM affective commitment dimension shows slight advantage than KUT in term of predicting identification ($r = .70$ vs. $r = .53$), job satisfaction ($r = .64$ vs. $r = .57$) as well as turnover

intention ($r = -.49$ vs. $r = -.43$). Second, also because of the narrow definition, KUB does not include the “perceived cost” aspect of psychological bond towards the target, which is captured by the continuance commitment of TCM model. As such, Klein et al. (2014) admitted, the KUB measure primarily overlapped with the affective mindset of TCM measure. Third, the present study also concerns about KUB’s predictive validity towards domain specific commitment-related behaviors. Klein et al. (2014) documented that KUB was predictive towards “key commitment variables”, including identification and turnover intention. However, when delving into particular research domains, researchers may be more interested in the domain-specific behaviors rather than the “key variables”. For example, in Herscovitch and Meyer’s (2002) research, the manager’s compliance behavior towards change initiative could be considered as a type of domain-specific behavior. Further, our focal concept, performance management commitment, is a type of action commitment. Goal commitment was the only action-relevant commitment examined in Klein et al.’s (2014) study, there has been not adequate evidence regarding the validity of KUB in action commitment research. As such, the current research seeks to develop a domain-specific performance management commitment measure following the TCM model.

In summary, first and foremost, existing research has justified Meyer and Herscovitch’s (2002) argument that commitment can be expanded to varied courses of actions, not limited to those social foci. This also paves the foundation of current study. Further, as a motivational force, action commitment has been regarded as one of the central antecedents of employees’ behavioral outcomes within the action relevant circumstances: an individual who commits to the action is typically willing to “go extra

miles”. Last but not least, compared to the unidimensional, goal-commitment-based approach, conceptualizing action commitment in the three-dimensional way shows the advantage in terms of predicting employees’ discretionary behaviors. Therefore, the current study employed the three-component commitment model to conceptualize managers’ commitment to performance management.

1.4 Antecedents of Workplace Commitment

At the organizational level, commitment can be predicted by two series of variables. First of all, existing literature has advocated that work experiences are a strong force that shapes organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Examples of those variables include perceived support (e.g., Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), organizational fairness (e.g., Shappe, 1998; Cohen-Charash, & Spector, 2001), role ambiguity and role conflict (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

On the other hand, a significant amount of research has suggested that individual differences can be strong predictors of commitment. For example, employees’ perceived ability (e.g., task-efficacy) and competency have frequently been examined in the literature (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). These constructs continually show strong positive correlations with organizational commitment. The current study is particularly interested in the relationship between managers’ performance management commitment and implicit person theory (IPT), which is typically viewed as dispositional characteristics, studies regarding how dispositional traits correlate with workplace commitment will be carefully reviewed in the following paragraphs.

There have been ongoing debates regarding the relationship between employee dispositional traits and organizational commitment. Recently, Choi, Oh, & Colbert (2015) investigated how the Big Five personality traits related commitment. They found that all the five personality traits had positive relationships with affective and normative commitment. Among the five personality dimensions, agreeableness was the strongest predictor. Further, emotional stability, extraversion, as well as openness to experience were negatively associated with continuance commitment. However, an earlier study indicated only conscientiousness and extroversion were valid predictors of affective commitment (Erdhiem, Wang, & Zacker, 2006). Moreover, Erdhiem et al. (2005) indicated that agreeableness was negatively related to normative commitment. Beyond the Five Factor Model, other dispositional traits have also tested. Lee, Ashford, Walsh, and Mowday (1992) argued that employees high in commitment propensity inclined to commit to their organization, suggesting that particular individuals might become more easily attached to their organization.

Additionally, scant empirical study has been done to investigate the predictor of action commitment. Existing research on action commitment also indicates that individual differences are important antecedents of action commitment. For instance, in the goal commitment literature, Hollenbeck and Klein (1987) proposed individual differences, including the need for achievement, endurance as well as Type A personality, might serve as distal predictors of goal commitment. Those dispositional traits can impact people's commitment to a particular goal through their impacts on goal expectancy. In a subsequent study, Hollenbeck, William, and Klein (1989) reported that employees' need for achievement and locus of control were valid predictors of

commitment to difficult goals. Specifically, an individual tends to commit to a difficult goal when they are internally controlled and higher in need for achievement. Diefendorff and Croyle (2008) examined the antecedents of employees' commitment to emotion display rule. According to their study, agreeableness was the most valid predictor of the emotion display rule commitment among the Big Five Personality traits: it correlated positively to employees' expectancy, valence and motivation force in displaying positive emotion and further predicted display rule commitment.

In general, work experience has strongly shaped employees' commitment. Further, both organizational commitment and action commitment can be predicted by the multiple types of individual differences as reviewed above. As discussed earlier, the current research is particularly interested in one of the dispositional variables, Implicit Person Theory (IPT). This is mainly because it has increasingly drawn attention in the performance management literature (e.g. Heslin, Latham & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle & Latham, 2006). Literature regarding IPT will be reviewed in the next section.

1.5 Implicit Person Theory

Individuals rely on priori assumptions to sense the external environment and interpret their experience (Dweck, 1996). These priori beliefs and assumptions constitute individuals' "meaning systems" and help them interpret and react to the external environment. Dweck, Chiu, & Hong (1995) suggested that the belief in whether human attributes were fixed or malleable was one of the most basic assumptions underlying one's meaning system. As Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) indicated, implicit person theory (IPT) involves individuals' assumptions about whether those human attributes

affecting behaviors (e.g., personality and intelligence) can be evolved over time. Specifically, the IPT model purports that individuals may hold either an “entity theory” or “incremental theory” (Gervey, Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1999). Individuals holding an entity theory may assume their personal attributes, such as intelligence and personality, are comparatively unalterable. Conversely, individuals holding an incremental theory assume that those traits can be changed through efforts. Although these two types of implicit personal theories seem to be theoretically mutual exclusive and are often examined that way, Heslin and VandeWalle (2008) suggested that IPT should be considered as a continuum. Early studies (Bandura & Dweck, 1985; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995) reported that individual IPT correlates with one’s goal orientation, such that an entity theorist was inclined to pursue a goal that demonstrates their ability rather than increase their capability. Besides its impact on self-evaluation, IPT is also predictive of how people view other’s attributes. For instance, entity managers may deem that subordinates’ capability and performance cannot be changed. Conversely, an incremental manager might be inclined to believe that their subordinate’s capability can be developed through efforts. And because of its potential impact on people’s perception of other’s capability, performance management researchers began to examine it as an important individual difference predictor of performance management effectiveness.

1.6 Implicit Person Theory in Performance Management

As a well-studied construct in the social psychology, IPT is relatively novel in the industrial psychology area. Recently, it begins to draw attention in the performance management literature since evidence shows it is predictive to manager’s attitudes and

behaviors in performance management (e.g. Heslin, Latham & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle, & Latham, 2006).

It has long been noticed that employees' initial observed poor performance may lead managers to become more sensitive to subsequent poor performance and less responsive to performance improvement (Manzoni & Barsoux, 1997). Heslin et al. (2005) defined this phenomenon as the "anchoring effect". According to their research, managers' IPT type might be the determinant of this anchoring effect when they rated subordinates' performance. Specifically, they found entity theory managers were less likely to detect subordinate's performance change. Thus, their performance ratings were anchored to subordinates' initial performance. The researchers also found that entity managers' rating decisions were more easily affected by prior distributed negative information regarding ratees compared to incremental managers. This anchoring effect of entity rater was also found when students evaluated their professors in a university context (Tam, Pak, Hui, Kwan, & Goh, 2010). According to this research, entity students were less likely to change their negative evaluation of their professor who exhibited forgetful behavior in the first half of the semester. These studies suggest that raters' IPT type has a potential impact on the accuracy of their performance ratings.

Heslin et al. (2006) extended this research to investigate whether managers' IPT type would impact how they responded behaviorally to their employees. According to their empirical study, employees reported that they received more coaching from incremental managers compared to entity managers. Specifically, they reported higher levels of behaviors such as conveying performance expectations and constructive feedback, helping employees analyze weaknesses, exploring new ways to solve existing

problems and developing employees' potential. These data are important, because, as Mueller-Hanson and Pulakos (2015) suggested, performance-related coaching is considered to be an essential component of effective performance management behaviors, which may determine the performance management system effectiveness.

More recent research by Heslin and VandeWalle (2011) suggested that manager's IPT also predicts employees' overall attitude toward the performance appraisal process. In this study, Heslin and VandeWalle (2011) collected data from 92 matched manager-employee dyads. The employees were asked to report their perceived procedural justice towards the performance appraisal process and their commitment to organization. Further, those participants invited their supervisors who performed their most recent performance appraisals to participate in the study. Researchers measured the managers' IPT type and asked them to rate their subordinates' OCB. The analysis showed that employees whose performance was rated by an incremental theory manager reported higher perception of procedural justice. Moreover, the justice perception further predicted their OCB and global commitment. This study provided preliminary evidence that a manager's IPT type might influence their subordinate's attitudes towards the performance management process and further affect their attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in an organization.

To summarize, Heslin and his colleagues' research extended the study of IPT into the area of performance management. Their initial works demonstrated that a managers IPT type might shape their behavioral tendency in performance management. However, the underlying psychological mechanism has not been specified. The current study proposes that a manager's commitment to performance management might serve as the

mediator in this process. Further, the current research also assumes that manager's IPT will predict their commitment to performance management through a motivational process explained by the self-determination theory (Gagne & Deci, 2005). We will review studies regarding self-determination theory in the following section.

1.7 Self-determination Theory

Meyer et al. (2004) indicated that one's goal regulation process might be of central importance in the formation of commitment. Therefore, they advocated that integrating commitment and motivational theories might help us understand both areas better. As such, the present study proposes that understanding the underlying motivational process is also important in examining how managers' IPT may potentially impact their commitment to performance management. Moreover, we pay special attention to managers goal regulation processes (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004) and employ self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000, Gagne & Deci, 2005) as the overarching theoretical framework in understanding this underlying mechanism.

Synthesizing previous need-based and goal-based motivation theory, self-determination theory (SDT) indicates individuals may experience different goal regulation processes depending on how a particular goal satisfies their personal needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT also postulates that, although there are various types of motivations, they fall into an autonomy continuum, which ranges from inherently autonomous to fully controlled (Gagne & Deci, 2005). When the behavior is driven by autonomous motivation, individuals will experience a sense of volition. Alternatively, individuals may act because of perceived pressure when they are driven by controlled motivation. Further, SDT also suggests that human behaviors can be either intrinsically

motivated or extrinsically motivated. If individuals engage in particular actions mainly because of interest in the activities themselves, they are motivated intrinsically and, thus, experience the sense of autonomy. One particular theoretical contribution of SDT is that it proposes extrinsic motivation can be further classified into multiple subtypes which differ in the extent of perceived autonomy. To be specific, four types of extrinsic motivation have been delineated: integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation and external regulation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). It is argued that difference among the four subtypes mainly lies in the degree of internalization, which pertains to the extent to which individual accepts a behavior regulation as well as the value associated with it (Gagne & Deci, 2005). According to SDT, the extent of internalization has a positive relationship with individual perceived autonomy (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Since previous literature advocates that sense of autonomy is one of the most valid antecedent of commitment (Klein et al., 2012), this linkage between internalization and autonomy may suggest that goal internalization may also shape formation of workplace commitment.

Concerning the four types of extrinsic motivation, the first subtype is external regulation. When an individual initiates certain behaviors only due to the perceived connection between the behavior and desired outcomes, such as achieving tangible rewards or avoiding punishment, they are externally regulated. In this situation, they experience the least sense of autonomy. Secondly, an introjected regulation happens when an individual has decided to obey the behavior regulation but has not accepted the value related. Meyer et al. (2004) mentioned it normally involves self-worth, such that people engage in socially acceptable behaviors just to avoid feeling guilt. When the

behavior is introjected regulated, people will still have a strong sense of being external controlled. Third, identified regulation occurs when individuals have a conscientious understanding towards the value of action. In this situation, people may perceive a strong sense of autonomy since “the behavior is more congruent with their personal goal and identities” (Gagne & Deci, 2005, p. 334). The last form of extrinsic motivation, integrated regulation, happens when the values of a goal are highly congruent with the values that have been endorsed by the individual, which is considered to be the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Preliminary evidence has supported that the different regulation types may play important roles in fostering organizational commitment (Gagne & Koestner, 2002; Lam & Gurland, 2008). However, those empirical studies have not employed the Meyer and Allen’s (1991) three-component commitment model as the theoretical framework. Instead, they utilized O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) model, which specified that organizational commitment took three different forms: identification with organization, value internalization, and compliance. For example, Gagne and Koestner (2002) examined the relationship between the effects of external, introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivation on the identification commitment and internalization commitment. They found that identified motivation and intrinsic motivation had positively associations with identification and internalization commitments (r ranged from .46 to .58). Further, introjected regulation was also a valid, albeit weaker, predictor for those two types of commitment ($r = .36$ and $.39$). Conversely, external regulation was not significantly related to commitment.

Altering and improving employees' performance may be the explicit and fundamental goal underlying every performance management system. Related to the current study, according to the self-determination theory, we propose that managers with different IPT types internalize this goal of performance management distinctly. As a result, during the performance management process, they will be driven by distinct self-determined motivation and, thus, experience different types of PM commitment accordingly. Specifically, entity managers are inclined to believe that an individual's basic attributes cannot be changed over time (Dweck, 1996). Thus, it is highly possible that they may perceive that improving subordinates' performance is hard, or even unattainable. Based on expectancy theory, goal attainment and goal attractiveness are the two primary determinants for goal commitment (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987; Klein et al., 1999). This value incongruence might hinder them from internalizing the goal of performance management. Meanwhile, they have to be compliant to the official performance management process as a requirement of the organization. Failure to perform this managerial responsibility may render unfavorable outcomes, such as demotion and negative evaluation regarding their leadership ability. In this situation, they are more likely to be driven by external regulation or introjected regulation. Thus, they will possibly feel that they "have to" stick to the performance management practices and be more likely to generate continuance PM commitment. Alternatively, in the case of an incremental manager, given their basic assumption regarding the malleability of human's attributes and capability, they may tend to engage in performance management because of their interest in improving subordinates' performance, or the perceived instrumentality of performance management system. In either case, they may experience more autonomy

and be driven by intrinsic motivation or integrated regulation. Thus, they are more likely to develop affective commitment or normative commitment toward performance management. As such, we propose our first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1a: Manager's incrementalism is positively related to their affective commitment to performance management.

Hypothesis 1b: Manager's incrementalism is positively related to their normative commitment to performance management.

Hypothesis 1c: Manager's incrementalism is negatively related to their continuance commitment to performance management.

1.8 Perceived Performance Management Purposes

Although the current study hypothesized that managers' IPT type would predict their commitment to performance management, it is hard to image that the relationship between IPT and manager's commitment to performance management will not be moderated by contextual factors. The current study is particularly interested in whether managers' perceived purpose of performance management moderates the relationship between IPT and commitment to performance management.

Existing literature shows consensus that performance management can serve multiple purposes (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989; Far & Levy, 2007). Relevant research can be traced back to Meyer, Kay, & French's (1965) work. In this research, they distinguished two primary types of performance management programs: one was used to justify company's salary decision (administrative purpose); the other was used to provide feedbacks to promote employees' future performance (development purpose). More importantly, this research also revealed that perceived performance management

purpose predicted employee attitudes and reactions to the performance management process. Specifically, if the subordinate perceived the purpose of performance management was more salary justification focused, they would react more defensively and provided less constructive suggestions in the performance discussion meeting. Cleveland et al. (1989) conducted the milestone research in this field: they clustered four major general uses from 20 specific performance management purposes: between-individual comparisons, within-individual comparison, programs maintenance, and documentation. In later research (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000), simplified the Cleveland et al.'s (1989) four performance appraisal purposes into two broad types: developmental purpose and evaluative purpose. Performance management with a developmental purpose focuses on the within-individual comparison, aiming to identify employees' training needs and provide feedback for performance improvement. In contrast, performance management with an evaluation purpose concentrates on the between-individual purposes. The results from an evaluative focused performance management program are typically used to support administrative decisions, for instance, salary adjustment, promotion, as well as layoff decision.

So far, most research has focused on how an employee perceives the performance management purpose and how perceived purpose predicts an array of the attitudinal variables. For example, it was reported that developmental performance appraisal program was positively related to employees' satisfaction towards performance management process as well as their supervisors (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000). Further, Youngcount et al. (2007) reported that developmental performance management purpose increased employees' affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

However, to author's knowledge, scant research has been done to examine how perceived performance management purposes predict the supervisors' reaction to performance management. Managers' perception of performance management can be even more important since it will directly determine whether they can make the best use of the performance management program.

Although improving employees' performance is the implicit objective underlying every performance management program, we admit different performance management programs have their prioritized tasks. As we have reviewed above, administrative and developmental purposes are the two most widely existed performance management purposes. Since the performance management program is a continuous and organization-wide managerial practice, it is relatively difficult to be changed in a short duration of time. Therefore, the organization's performance management program constitutes a stable external constraint for managers. It is reasonable to imagine that performance management purpose, as the external constraint, may interact with manager's dispositional trait (i.e., IPT) to further predict their commitment to performance management through the goal internalization processes. Thus, the current research also examined the potential interactive effect of IPT and perceived performance management purpose on managers' performance management commitment.

The essence of IPT lies in the belief of people's malleability. As such, managers with different IPTs may develop distinct commitment patterns towards performance management systems with different purposes. This is because that the purpose of performance management may have an impact on manager's perception on the attainability of a particular performance management purpose and the utility of a

particular type of performance management system. First of all, since the essence of IPT lies in the belief of people's malleability, it is not hard to imagine that managers with different IPTs may evaluate the attainability of the same performance management purpose differently. This would impact their internalization of the performance management purpose. In a developmental-focused system, entity managers may think developing their subordinates is an unattainable goal since they believe subordinates' capability is fixed (Dweck et al., 1995). As a consequence, entity managers may be hindered to internalize the developmental purpose of performance management system. Therefore, when they are required to engage in developmental performance management activities, they are likely to be regulated by external motivation or introjected motivation and, thus, report lower affective and normative commitment to developmental-focused performance management system.

Alternatively, entity managers may have a positive attitude towards the instrumentality of the administrative-purposed performance management system. Past literature indicated entity theorists inclined to attribute others' negative behaviors to their global negative dispositional traits and call for more severe punishments (Dweck, 1996). For example, in an empirical research study, Gervy, Chiu, Hong, and Dweck (1999) asked people with different types of IPT to judge whether a defendant was guilty in a simulated murder case. They found the entity theorists were more likely to render a guilty verdict based on the defendant's trait information and attribute the primary purpose of imprisonment to "punishment" or "retribution." Similarly, we can infer that entity managers may make similar inferences towards their subordinates with dissatisfactory performance, such that they may attribute the dissatisfactory performance to employees'

negative traits (e.g. tardiness or incapability). At the same time, since they believe in the rigidity of people's attributes, they are less likely to give guidance to the subordinates with below-expectation performance. In this case, the administrative-focused performance management system may be considered as a legal means to help them rule out the subordinates they dislike. As a consequence, when they engage in administrative performance management activities, they may be regulated by the more autonomous type of motivation due to the higher perceived utility. As such, they may develop higher affective and normative commitment as well as lower continuance commitment towards performance management system with an administrative purpose.

Concerning the incremental managers, they tend to believe human attributes can be altered over time. As such, when the performance management system has a purpose to develop employees, compare to entity managers, they may perceive a higher level of attainability. As such, incremental managers tend to be driven by autonomous motivation. Meanwhile, Heslin, VandeWalle, and Latham (2006) found incremental managers were more likely to coach their subordinates. Since the performance appraisal program with a developmental purpose focuses more on within-person comparison (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000), it collects information regarding subordinate's strength and weakness. That information may be deemed as useful by incremental managers to facilitate their potential coaching activities. Thus, they will perceive a higher level of utility towards a developmentally focused performance management program and report higher affective and normative PM commitment and lower continuous PM commitment. Accordingly, we propose our second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2a: The relationship between managers' incrementalism and affective PM commitment will be moderated by the perceived purpose of performance management, such that the positive relationship will be stronger when performance management system serves a developmental purpose.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between managers' incrementalism and normative PM commitment will be moderated by the perceived purpose of performance management, such that the positive relationship will be stronger when performance management system serves a developmental purpose.

Hypothesis 2c: The relationship between managers' incrementalism and continuous PM commitment will be moderated by the perceived purpose of performance management, such that the negative relationship will be stronger when performance management system serves an administrative purpose.

CHAPTER 2. METHOD

2.1 Procedure

The present research recruited participants through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Literature advocates that MTurk can be a reliable source to collect high-quality data with relatively low costs (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Further, evidence also suggests MTurk participants are more attentive than traditional subject pool participants since they typically have a purpose to learn new knowledge (Hauser & Schwarz, 2015). The current study targeted managers who already had performance management experience as the focal subjects of interest. Specifically, we expected the participant would currently hold a managerial position for one year and have completed at least one performance appraisal with their subordinates. Data was collected at two time points which were separated for at least two weeks to limit the potential impact of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In the first survey, we measured participants demographic information, IPT and their organizational commitment. Their commitment to performance management and perceived purpose of performance management were measured in the second survey. Potential subjects were instructed to take a prescreen survey to ensure their eligibility. To be specific, our screening criteria were: first, all the participants had to be elder than 18 years old. Second, they had to be currently in a managerial position

for at least one year and had at least 1 subordinate. Third, the participants must have completed at least one performance appraisal for their subordinates.

The subjects who successfully passed the prescreening survey were directed to the first survey. Upon completing the survey, each participant was assigned a unique code. They received 0.5 dollars after submitting the code on MTurk. Additionally, we also encouraged participants who were interested in the second survey to leave their email address. Overall, we had 372 participants (out of 449) who completed the first survey indicated they were interested in the second survey. After two weeks, we invited each participant who left an email address to participate the second MTurk survey. Each participant who completed the second survey received 1 dollar as a bonus. 215 participants completed the second survey.

Past literature suggested MTurk might not be the most appropriate method if the participants' false report of identity may invalidate the whole study (Woo, Keith, & Thornton, 2015). As an approach to address the potential identity faking, we asked participants to report their tenure at their current organization (i.e., general tenure) in the first wave of data collection. After two weeks, participants were instructed to report the tenure they had been working at their current managerial position since joining their organization (i.e., managerial tenure). We disqualified subjects whose self-reported managerial tenures were larger than their general tenure due to the possibility of faking. 45 participants were ruled out from the subject pool after the above procedure.

In order to detect reckless responding, Woo et al. (2015) also suggested incorporating "quality control" items, such as attention check, in the survey. As such, the present study incorporated 4 attention check questions in the survey. A sample question

was like “This is an attention check question, please select strongly agree for this one.”

Valid subjects should not make mistakes on more than one attention check question.

Therefore, two participants were removed because they made mistakes on more than one attention check. As such, the sample contains 168 subjects.

As discussed above, the present study is interested in exploring the moderate effect of perceived performance management purpose on the relationship between managers’ IPT and their commitment to performance management. Of particular interest, special attention was paid to two types of perceived performance management purpose: administrative and developmental. However, when measuring the perceived performance management purposes, we provided a third option, “neither developmental purpose nor administrative purpose” in addition to the two focal purposes. After performing the above prescreening procedure, we also disqualified all participants who reported their performance management system served neither developmental nor administrative purposes for two primary reasons. First, and most obviously, those individuals perceived their performance management system served a purpose which was beyond the scope of our research. Second, “neither developmental nor administrative purpose” might suggest that the participants’ performance management system was relatively dysfunctional. Working under a dysfunctional performance management system may render managers to develop more negative attitudes (e.g., lower affective performance management commitment) towards their performance management system. In either way, the inclusion of those subjects may introduce bias in the present study. After all prescreening procedures had been completed, 159 observations still remained in the final sample. The overall response rate was 43%.

2.2 Participants

The current research included 159 subjects. There were slightly more male (52.2%, $n = 83$) than female (47.8%, $n = 76$). The majority of the sample was White/European American (83.6%, $n = 133$). All the participants indicated they were currently in managerial positions. The mean of organizational tenure was 8.33 years ($SD = 6.69$). Further, almost half of the participants indicated they were at middle-level management positions (52.8%, $n = 84$) whereas 48 participants (30.2%) indicated they were line-managers. The other 27 participants (17%) indicated they were at senior/executive management position. The average tenure in a managerial position was 5.98 years ($SD = 4.41$). With regard to the industry distribution, the top five industries with most participants were financial and insurance (12.6%, $n = 20$), professional and technical services (11.9%, $n = 19$), healthcare (10.7%, $n = 17$), manufacturing (10.1%, $n = 16$) and education (15%, $n = 15$).

2.3 Measures

2.3.1 Time 1 Measures

2.3.1.1 Implicit Person Theory

In the current study, managers' IPT was measured by the "kind-of-person" scale designed by Levy and Dweck (1997). Eight items were included in this scale: four items measured individual's entity beliefs (e.g., "People can do things differently, but the important parts of who they are can't really be changed."), and four items measuring individual's incremental beliefs (e.g., "No matter what kind of a person someone is, they can always change very much"). The IPT measure employed 7-point Likert scales

ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). In the current study, the IPT scale showed good internal reliability ($\alpha = .92$).

2.3.1.2 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured by Allen and Meyer's (1990) scale, including affective commitment scale (9 items), continuance commitment scale (10 items) and normative commitment scale (9 items). All the scales employed 7-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients in the current study were .87, .73, and .84, respectively.

2.3.2 Time 2 Measures

2.3.2.1 Commitment to Performance Management

Twenty-two items were adopted from commitment to change inventory by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002). Nine items measured managers' affective commitment to performance management (e.g., "Performance management is beneficial to this organization"; $\alpha = .92$); six items measured continuance commitment to performance management (e.g., "I have too much at stake if I cannot perform the performance management."; $\alpha = .80$); seven items measured the normative commitment to performance management (e.g., "It is my obligation to devote energy to performance management."; $\alpha = .80$). The responses were measured on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

2.3.2.2 Perceived Purpose of Performance Management

The perceived performance management purpose was assessed by a single item: “In your opinion, for which purpose does your organization’s performance management system really serve?” Participants could select one from three options: “developmental purpose”, “administrative purpose” and “neither developmental nor administrative purpose”. All the participants who selected the “neither developmental nor administrative purpose” were removed from the current study. The rationale has been explained in the above section.

2.3.3 Control Variables

2.3.3.1 Gender (Time 1)

The present research regarded participants’ gender as control variables. Numerous studies showed that gender could be a valid predictor for employees’ organizational commitment (e.g., Marsden, Kalleberg, & Cook, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.3.3.2 Managerial Backgrounds (Time 1)

Beyond the perceived purpose of performance management, we collected two types of information related to the characteristics of performance management system. The first variable was organizational size. It was expected that larger organization might have better-established performance management policy. We used one item (e.g., “how many people are employed in your organization?”) to assess organizational size. The second variable was the frequency of performance management appraisal. Frequent performance appraisal may require extra labor from supervisors and, thus, impacts their commitment to performance management. The frequency of performance management

was measured by one question: “in your organization, how often does performance appraisal take place?”

2.3.3.3 Performance Management System Characteristics (Time 1)

The present study also collected two types of information regarding managers’ managerial background: managerial level and managerial tenure. A previous study suggested employee at different levels might perceive their performance management system distinctly because they had varied level of knowledge towards their performance management system (Williams & Levy, 2000). As such, the current study asked participants to identify their managerial level as one of the three options: first-line manager, middle-level manager or senior-level manager. In addition, we also measured each participant’s managerial tenure, which was the duration the manager spent on their current managerial position. It was expected that managerial tenure would also relate to managers’ knowledge towards their performance management system.

CHAPTER 3. RESULTS

3.1 Measurement Refinement

Multiple CFAs was performed to ensure the discriminate validity of commitment to performance management measure. Before conducting CFA, the present study checked the item-level correlation. According to the item correlation matrix, all the 24 items correlated at least .30 with one of the items except for 2 items measuring continuous commitment to performance management (i.e., “I’m not afraid what might happen if I do not engage in performance management”; “Right now, performing performance management is a matter of necessity as much as desire”). Therefore, we decided to remove these two items from further analysis. Next, we estimated internal reliabilities of each scale by calculating the Cronbach’s alphas (Cronbach, 1951). Alpha values were computed for each subscale of performance management commitment, along with each item was deleted. Deleting one item from the normative commitment measure (e.g., “it would be irresponsible of me to ignore performance management”) would greatly increase the alpha value if deleted (i.e., $\Delta\alpha = .20$). As a result, we decided to drop this item.

The CFAs were conducted by utilizing the Lavaan package of R (Rosseel, 2012). In the first step, we were particularly interested in whether the three components of performance management commitment could be discriminated from each other. To

examine the discriminate validity of performance management commitment, we compared a three-factor baseline model with several alternative models (see Table 1). The proposed three-factor baseline model composed by affective performance management commitment, normative performance management commitment and continuous performance management commitment based on the 22-item scale ($\chi^2 = 490.75$, $df = 206$, $\chi^2/df = 2.38$, SRMR = .09, RMSEA = .09) exhibited better fit than alternative models in which (a) a three-factor model using the original 25-item scale ($\chi^2 = 650.47$, $df = 272$, $\chi^2/df = 2.39$, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .11); (b) a two-factor model integrating affective and normative performance management commitment together ($\chi^2 = 626.84$, $df = 208$, $\chi^2/df = 3.01$, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .11); (c) a two-factor model integrating normative and continuous performance management commitment together ($\chi^2 = 675.43$, $df = 208$, $\chi^2/df = 3.25$, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .12); (d) a two-factor model integrating affective and continuous performance management commitment together ($\chi^2 = 718.89$, $df = 208$, $\chi^2/df = 3.46$, SRMR = .12, RMSEA = .13); (e) a one-factor model that combine the three sub-dimensions together ($\chi^2 = 843.76$, $df = 209$, $\chi^2/df = 4.04$, SRMR = .13, RMSEA = .14). As such, the results supported that the three dimensions of performance management commitment could be differentiated from each other.

Beyond the internal discriminant validity of performance management commitment, we also examined whether PM commitment to can be discriminated from organizational commitment. Therefore, the present study compared the six-factor baseline model which discriminated three factors of PM commitment and three factors of organizational commitment with other alternative models. The results (see Table 2)

supported that the six-factor baseline model exhibited better fit ($\chi^2 = 1577.95$, $df = 974$, $\chi^2/df = 1.62$, SRMR = .10, RMSEA = .07), compared to (a) a 5-factor model which combines the affective performance management and affective organizational commitment together ($\chi^2 = 1930.46$, $df = 979$, $\chi^2/df = 1.97$, SRMR = .13, RMSEA = .09); (b) a 5-factor model which combines the normative performance management and normative organizational commitment together ($\chi^2 = 1752.40$, $df = 979$, $\chi^2/df = 1.79$, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .08); (c) a 5-factor model which combines the continuous performance management and continuous organizational commitment together ($\chi^2 = 1683.95$, $df = 979$, $\chi^2/df = 1.72$, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .08). In general, the above factor analysis indicated the affective, continuous and normative components of performance management commitment could not only be differentiated from each other but also be differentiated from subdimensions of organizational commitment.

3.2 Hypothesis Testing

The main purpose of current study was to investigate the relationship between managers' IPT and their commitment to performance management. Further, we were also interested in the potential moderate effect of managers' perceived performance management purpose on this relationship. Before testing the hypothesis, the present research examined the correlation between managers' commitment to performance management and some potential confounding variables, including managers' own demographic information and their organizations' information. The organization's demographic information involves organization size and the frequency that they conduct performance appraisals. As shown in Table 4, among those potential control variables,

only one significant correlation was observed: organization size was positively related to managers' continuance commitment to performance management ($r = .22, p < .05$). As such, the current study only included organization size as the control variable.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that managers' IPT positively correlated with managers' affective PM commitment (H1a) and normative PM commitment (H1b). Meanwhile, it also predicted that managers' IPT was negatively associated with continuous commitment to performance management (H1c). We tested those hypotheses by using correlation and multiple regressions. With regard to H1a and H1b, as shown in Table 4, managers' IPT was not significantly related to affective PM commitment ($r = .13, p = n.s$) and normative PM commitment ($r = .12, p = n.s$). Further, the current study also conducted multiple regression analysis to tested H1a and H1b (see Table 4). Specifically, in the first step, organization size and the three organizational commitment dimensions were included in the regression. Those four variables did not explain significant variance in affective PM commitment ($R^2 = .05, p = n.s$), but accounted for a significant variance for normative commitment to performance management ($R^2 = .06, p < .05$). Second, we incorporated IPT in the regression model. IPT failed to explain additional significant variance for both affective commitment to performance management ($\Delta R^2 = .02, p = n.s$) and normative commitment to performance management ($\Delta R^2 = .00, p = n.s$). As such, the Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1b were not supported, which suggested incremental managers didn't report higher affective PM commitment, as well as normative PM commitment, than entity managers overall.

We tested Hypothesis 1c by following the same procedures. Managers' IPT was negatively correlated with their continuous commitment to performance management ($r =$

-21, $p < .05$), suggesting that managers with an incremental theory reported lower levels of continuous commitment to performance management. Multiple regression test (see Table 4) indicated that, even the control variables explained significant variances in continuous commitment to performance management ($R^2 = .15, p < .05$), managers' IPT explained additional significant variance in continuous commitment to performance management ($\Delta R^2 = .05, p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was supported, suggesting entity managers generally reported higher PM continuous commitment than incremental managers.

Concerning Hypothesis 2, the current study predicted that managers' perceived performance management purpose would moderate the relationship between IPT and commitment to performance management, such that the positive correlation between IPT and affective performance management commitment (H2a), as well as normative commitment to performance management (H2b), would be stronger when the performance management system was perceived to serve a developmental purpose. Additionally, the current study also hypothesized that the negative correlation between IPT and continuous commitment would be stronger when the performance management system serves an administrative purpose (H2c). Since our perceived purpose of performance management was a dichotomous variable, the current study dummy-coded the perceived performance management purpose as suggested by previous literature (Aguinis, 2004; Edward & Lambert, 2007). Hayes' (2012) PROCESS macro (Model 1) was used to test the moderation effect and generate bias-corrected bootstrapped confidence intervals (using 10,000 bootstrap samples) for the simple slope test.

With regard to Hypothesis 2a, as seen in Table 5, after controlling for organizational size and three components of organizational commitment, the interaction between IPT and perceived performance management purpose was statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\beta = -.26$, $p < .05$). Based on the simple slope test, when the performance management system was perceived to serve a developmental purpose, IPT was positively correlated with an affective PM commitment ($\beta = .23$, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.06, .39]). Alternatively, when performance management was perceived to serve an administrative purpose, IPT was not significantly correlated with affective commitment to performance management ($\beta = -.04$, $p = \text{n.s.}$, 95% CI = [- .18, .10]). As such, Hypothesis 2a was fully supported. According to the interaction plot (see Figure 1), incremental managers' affective PM commitment is higher when performance system serves a developmental purpose than administrative purpose . In contrast, entity managers' affective PM commitment was higher when performance management serves an administrative purpose than developmental purpose.

In terms of Hypothesis 2b, the interaction between IPT and perceived performance management purpose was not statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\beta = -.19$, $p = .06$) in predicting normative commitment to performance management. Therefore, Hypothesis 2b was not supported. However, the simple slope test revealed that IPT was positively related to normative commitment to performance management when performance management system serves a developmental purpose ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [.01, .31]). Similar to Hypothesis 2a, the slope between IPT and normative performance management was not significant when there is an administrative purpose (β

= -.03, $p = n.s$, 95% CI = [-.16, .10]. This interaction pattern was consistent with our Hypothesis 2b.

Our Hypothesis 2c predicted that the correlation between IPT and continuous PM commitment would be moderated by the perceived PM purpose, such that the negative correlation would be stronger when the performance management was perceived to serve an administrative purpose. As seen in Table 5, the interaction between IPT and perceived performance management purpose failed to account for a significant amount of variance ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\beta = -.14$, $p = n.s$). As a consequence, Hypothesis 2c was not supported. However, interaction pattern was consistent with what we proposed in the hypothesis 2c, such that IPT was negatively correlated with continuous PM commitment when performance management system serves an administrative purpose ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$, 95% CI = [-.41, -.09]).

CHAPTER 4. DISCUSSION

4.1 General Discussion

Previous efforts to develop an “ideal” performance management system have been proved to be less than fruitful. Indeed, scholars have endeavored to expand the paradigm by investigating employees’ reaction to performance management. Our study suggests that the investigation towards managers’ reaction may further enrich the current performance management effectiveness literature. In general, the present study has three primary findings.

First and foremost, our research provided preliminary evidence that a three-component commitment model could be used to conceptualize managers’ attitude towards their organizations’ performance management system. The results of multiple CFAs supported the idea that the three components of managers’ performance management commitment could not only be distinguished from each other but also be differentiated from the sub-dimensions of global organizational commitment. Similar to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and change commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), components of performance management commitment were also correlated with each other. Among the three dimensions, affective and normative PM commitments exhibited the strongest correlation ($r = .52, p < .05$).

Additionally, compared to a similar action-related commitment, commitment to change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), performance management commitment showed its unique correlational pattern with organizational commitment. Specifically, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) found positive relationships existed between each commitment to change dimension and the corresponding organizational commitment dimension (i.e., $r = .25$ for the two affective dimensions; $r = .41$ for the two normative dimensions; $r = .65$ for the two continuous dimensions). In the case of performance management commitment, we didn't find significant correlations between the two affective components ($r = .14$, $p = n.s$) and the two normative components ($r = .00$, $p = n.s$). Meanwhile, the correlation between continuous performance management commitment and continuous organizational commitment was much lower ($r = .24$, $p < .05$) than the correlation between continuous commitment to change and organizational commitment ($r = .65$, $p < .05$, Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). It implies that the performance management commitment can be better differentiated from organizational commitment than the commitment to change.

Second, the current study also found that managers' IPT had a main effect on their continuous commitment to performance management. Our hypothesis regarding IPT's negative relationship with continuous performance management commitment was supported: incremental managers were less likely to report high levels of continuous commitment to performance management. As continuous commitment to performance management is closely associated with the perceived cost of failure to comply with performance management policy, a higher level of continuous commitment to performance management may indicate managers are reluctant to engage in performance

management activities. The negative correlation between IPT and continuous commitment to performance management is consistent with self-determination theory: since entity managers implicitly deny individuals' malleability, it is hard for them to internalize the essential purpose of performance management, which is altering or developing subordinates' behavior. As a consequence, entity managers may tend to perceive stronger external pressure of complying performance management policy and, in turn, report higher continuous commitment to performance management.

Third, the current research found that the relationship between managers' IPT and affective PM commitment was highly contingent on their perceived PM purpose. As the interaction plot illustrated (see Figure 1), entity managers, who did not believe in individual's malleability, showed a slightly higher affective commitment when the PM system was primarily administrative-focused than developmental-focused. Meanwhile, incremental managers, who believe people can change, reported higher affective commitment towards developmental-purposed performance management systems. According to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2001), high affective PM commitment suggests managers are more likely to exhibit positive attitude towards organization's performance management activities and engage in those activities on the basis of goal or value internalization. The significant moderate effect of perceived PM purpose seems implies that incremental and entity managers have different tendencies towards which type of performance management system to use.

The moderate effect of perceived purpose of performance management didn't receive support in the relationships between IPT and the normative PM commitment as well as the continuous PM commitment, as the interactions failed to explain significant

extra variances. However, we found the interaction patterns were consistent with our hypothesis. In term of normative PM commitment, a stronger positive relationship was observed between IPT and normative PM commitment in a developmental-focused performance management system ($\beta = .16, p < .15$) than administrative-focused performance management system ($\beta = -.03, p = n.s$). The test result implies, when performance management is perceived to serve a developmental purpose, incremental managers feel higher obligations to engage in performance management activities than entity managers.

With regard to continuous PM commitment, IPT was found to negatively related to continuous performance management commitment in an administrative-focused performance management system ($\beta = -.26, p < .05$). On the contrary, no significant correlation was observed in a developmental-focused performance management system ($\beta = -.12, p = n.s$). It seems to suggest, even the performance management is perceived as administrative-focused, entity managers still perceive that they are “enforced” to engage in performance management compared to incremental managers.

It bears noting that past research generally agreed that performance management system with a developmental purpose might render more favorable outcomes among employees, such as higher satisfaction towards performance management (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000) as well as higher general job satisfaction (Youngcourt et al., 2007). However, the current research failed to detect any significant correlation between perceived performance management purpose and performance management commitment among the managers. Instead, combining results of moderation tests, we find that incremental and entity managers have different commitment patterns in response to

different performance management purposes. As discussed above, incremental managers appear to respond more positively to developmental-focused performance management system (showing as higher affective PM commitment). Further, it seems that the high incrementalism also helps them become more “resilient” when the purpose of performance management doesn’t match their value preference (showing as a lower continuous commitment towards performance management system with an administrative purpose). Alternatively, entity managers show higher affective commitment towards an administrative-focused performance management system over a developmental-focused one. Meanwhile, the administrative-focused performance management system also created a negative impact on them in the form of higher continuous PM commitment.

In general, the present research may potentially contribute to commitment literature and performance management literature. As for the commitment literature, past literature mostly views action commitment as a unitary construct which has been considered as a moderator in the goal-behavior relationship (e.g., Klein et al., 1999; Locke & Latham, 1990, 2003). This study, along with Herscovitch and Meyer’s (2002) study, demonstrates that action commitment can be conceptualized into a three-component commitment model. The current study successfully extends this model to a more widely-existed managerial practice: performance management.

Second, although previous literature generally agrees that individual differences are important antecedents of employees’ commitment, researchers so far have only paid attention to two broad categories of individual differences. The first category involves individual differences impacting people’s perception of volition, such as personal ability and task efficacy (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). The second category

involves individual differences that may influence people's perception of work experience, such as extraversion and agreeableness (e.g., Choi et al., 2015; Erdhiem et al., 2006). Our research implies that managers' IPT is a valid antecedent of commitment to performance management. It is hard to categorize IPT into the above two broad types of individual difference predictors. As discussed in the previous paragraphs, the current study employed self-determination theory to explain the potential mechanism for how managers' IPT exerts influence on managers' performance management commitment: IPT can impact managers' internalization process towards the goal of performance management. As a result, managers with different IPT types may form their unique and distinct patterns of commitment to performance management. In this sense, we call for further study to explore the mediating effect of goal internalization process in the relationship between IPT and performance management commitment and promote the integration of commitment theory and motivation theory as Meyer et al. (2004) proposed.

Additionally, this study also contributes to the performance management literature. Previous performance management research has paid substantial attention to the "rater issues" (Levy & Williams, 2004), which focus on the individual level variables that may directly impact raters' behavior and rating effectiveness in performance appraisal. Levy and Williams (2004) indicated one of the major themes among the "rater issues" was raters' affective status. However, so far, this line of study has mainly investigated the dynamic interaction between managers and subordinates, such as the similarity between raters and ratees (e.g., Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001; Varma & Stroh, 2001; Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003). Our research implies that managers' affective status regarding performance management may not only be

determined by the interactions between managers and their subordinates, but also by the fit between managers' dispositional traits and the characteristics of the performance management system. Put another way, managers may have distinct preferences on "tools" to manage subordinates' performance. Future research may want to examine the unique behaviors that managers with distinct IPT display in their interactions with subordinates.

Further, a "subordinate-centered" approach has been universally adopted in the past literature aiming to examine the effectiveness of performance management, in which managers were not differentiated as a unique group of interest. Our study is one of the very limited studies that explore managers' perception towards performance management. And the results provided preliminary evidence that managers view performance management system differently from their subordinates and different from one another. As discussed above, past subordinate-centered studies have generally supported that performance management systems with a developmental focus will generate more favorable outcomes among employees. If it also applies to managers, we suppose developmental performance management system might develop higher affective and lower continuous PM commitment regardless managers' IPT type. However, our study didn't find a particular type of performance management system has a prevailing advantage over the other given that no significant correlation was observed between perceived performance management purpose and PM commitment. Indeed, we did find evidences regarding the adverse impact of administrative-purposed performance management system with entity managers compared to incremental managers. Specifically, they perceived a higher level of continuous commitment to performance management. Given that some researchers argued continuous commitment could

potentially be a stressor in the workplace (Meyer & Martin, 2010), the high level of continuous performance management commitment may suggest entity managers are vulnerable to be psychological unhealthy when the performance management system has an administrative purpose.

In general, our study indicates that different patterns exist in managers' and subordinates' reaction to performance management. At the manager level, we didn't find a particular type of performance management system had a prevailing advantage over the others in term of generating a higher level of affective performance management commitment. Instead, the future researcher, as well as practitioners, should pay particular attention to the "fit" issue between managers' dispositional trait and the characteristics of performance management system. As such, we encourage more "manager-centered" research in the domain of performance management.

4.2 Study Limitations and Future Directions

We admit that a number of limitations exist in the present study that should be acknowledged. First, the limitation may be posted on the sampling method. The current study collected data from MTurk, an online panel. As the previous literature suggests, utilization of MTurk may raise several concerns, especially regarding reckless response and potential identity faking. The methodology of the current study made considerable efforts to ensure the data dependability and avoid the potential identity faking. To detect the reckless responses, the present study employed four attention checks that were scattered in both Time 1 and Time 2 surveys. Participants who made mistakes on more than 1 attention check were disqualified in the analysis. Additionally, to prevent the potential identity faking, the current study employed a qualification survey prior to

participation. Further, the participants were also instructed to report their tenure at the current organization (i.e., organization tenure) and tenure at the present managerial position (i.e., managerial tenure) separately in Time 1 survey and Time 2 survey, with a 2-week relapse. Any participants who reported a managerial tenure longer than organization tenure were not included in this study due to the possibility of identity faking. An additional benefit of employing MTurk as our primary sampling method was that it allowed us to access diversified performance management systems. The focal moderator in the current study, the perceived purpose of performance management, is an objective trait of performance management system. It can be expected that collecting data from just one organization will lead to a very limited variation in this moderator variable since performance management policy is typically consistent within an organization. As such, utilizing MTurk becomes a plausible method to access diversified performance management systems and create reasonable variation in our focal moderate variable. Nonetheless, future research should consider using other sampling methods to replicate the result of the current study in another larger sample.

The second limitation pertains the sample size of the present study. The relatively small sample size (i.e., $n = 159$) may have allowed for insufficient power to uncover important relationships among the focal variables. Specifically, the moderate effect of perceived purpose of performance management in the relationship between IPT and normative PM commitment (H2b) was very close to the significant level (i.e., $p = .06$). A larger sample size might provide more insight into those hypothesized effects which were not supported by current research.

In addition to sample size, the power of current study may also be limited by the internal reliability of measures used in the current study (Henson, 2001; Osburn, 2000). The Cronbach alpha values for the normative and continuous performance management commitment were not ideally high (i.e., .80 and .80, respectively). Further, the internal reliability of continuous organizational commitment, one of our primary control variables, was relatively low (i.e., $\alpha = .73$). This poor internal reliability of continuous organizational commitment may potentially impact how we interpret the correlation pattern between continuous organizational commitment and the three dimensions of PM commitment.

Finally, we advocate more studies to investigate the constructive validity of PM commitment and build the nomological network. On one hand, researchers should consider investigating how managers' performance management commitment impacts subordinates' perception of performance management, such as subordinate-rated performance management effectiveness. On the other hand, it will be interesting to explore how PM commitment correlates with a number of managers' behavioral outcomes. Of particular interest, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) differentiated two types of commitment's behavioral outcomes: focal behaviors (e.g., retention) and discretionary behaviors (e.g., OCB). In performance management, an example of focal behavior can be completing the paperwork related to performance management. Alternatively, discretionary behaviors can be expressed in the form of developing their subordinates. It was expected that all the three commitment components would significantly correlate with focal behaviors in performance management although with different strengths. However, the commitment components may correlate with discretionary behavior

distinctly, such that affective PM commitment may correlate with both focal behaviors and discretionary behaviors but continuous PM commitment may only be associated with focal behaviors. As such, future research may consider creating a typology regarding managers' focal performance management behavior (e.g., accomplish the paperwork) and discretionary behavior (e.g., voluntarily give performance feedback) and examine the main effects, as well as interactions, of three components of performance manager commitment on different types of behavior outcomes.

4.3 Conclusion

The present study demonstrates that a three-component commitment model can be utilized to operationalize managers' perception towards performance management. This provides a feasible and theoretical-justified approach for future research aiming to investigate managers' attitudinal and motivational factors in the performance management process. More importantly, by adopting self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2001) as the overarching theoretical backdrop, our research explicates that managers' IPT type and the perceived purpose of performance management will interactively impact their commitment patterns towards performance management.

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TABLES

Table 1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit Indices for Commitment to Performance Management

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	SRMR	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	
											Low	High
3 factor (22 items)	490.75	206	2.38				.09	.83	.81	.09	.08	.10
3 factor (25 items)	650.47	272	2.39	160.02	66	<.005	.11	.75	.73	.11	.09	.12
2 factor (AC and NC combined)	626.84	208	3.01	136.09	2	<.005	.11	.69	.66	.11	.10	.12
2 factor (AC and CC combined)	718.89	208	3.46	228.14	2	<.005	.12	.71	.68	.12	.11	.13
2 factor (NC and CC combined)	675.43	208	3.25	184.68	2	<.005	.11	.72	.69	.12	.11	.13
1 factor	843.76	209	4.04	353.01	2	<.005	.13	.62	.58	.14	.13	.15

Note. $N = 159$. AC denotes affective commitment to performance management, NC denotes normative commitment to performance management, CC denotes continuous performance to performance management.

Table 2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Fit Indices for the Commitment to Performance Management and Organizational Commitment

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	SRMR	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	
											Low	High
6 factor	1577.95	974	1.62				.10	.73	.71	.07	.07	.08
5 factor (AC scale combined)	1930.46	979	1.97	352.51	5	<.005	.13	.58	.55	.09	.09	.10
5 factor (NC scale combined)	1752.40	979	1.79	174.45	5	<.005	.11	.66	.64	.08	.08	.09
5 factor (CC scale combined)	1683.65	979	1.72	105.7	5	<.005	.11	.69	.67	.08	.07	.09

Note. $N = 159$. “AC scale combined” denotes combining affective commitment to performance management and affective organizational commitment as one factor. “NC scale combined” denotes combining normative commitment to performance management and normative organizational commitment as one factor. “CC scale combined” denotes combining continuous commitment to performance management and continuous organizational commitment as one factor

Table 3 Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for Key Study Variables

	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender (0 = Female, 1 = Male)	.48 (.50)	—											
2. Managerial tenure	5.98 (4.40)	-.03	—										
3. Organization size	4.96 (2.23)	-.21*	-.03	—									
4. Frequency of PA	1.82 (1.25)	-.07	.02	-.04	—								
5. Level of Management (0 = Low-level; 1 = Mid-level; 2 = Senior-level)	1.87 (.68)	.06	.19*	-.23*	-.01	—							
6. IPT	4.21 (1.29)	.01	-.05	-.09	.09	-.00	(.92)						
7. Affective PM commitment	5.68 (.90)	-.03	.09	.08	-.01	.04	.13	(.92)					
8. Continuous PM commitment	4.68 (1.05)	-.03	-.02	.22**	-.08	-.09	-.21**	.15	(.80)				
9. Normative PM commitment	5.36 (.81)	.14	-.05	.05	-.10	-.04	.12	.52**	.26**	(.80)			
10. Affective ORG commitment	4.60 (1.22)	.08	.25*	.00	.03	.13	-.02	.14	-.11	.12	(.87)		
11. Continuous ORG commitment	4.89 (1.02)	.03	.16*	.18*	-.08	.01	.11	.20*	.24*	.26*	.23*	(.73)	
12. Normative ORG commitment	4.14 (1.16)	-.02	.23*	.05	.07	.23*	-.05	.14	-.09	.00	.68**	.23*	(.84)
13. Perceived PM purpose (0 = Developmental, 1 = Administrative)	.51 (.50)	-.02	.10	.04	.12	.05	-.10	-.12	.07	-.09	-.09	-.04	-.15

Notes. $N = 159$. M = mean; SD = standard deviation; Cronbach's alphas are presented on the diagonal in parentheses. Managerial tenure refers to the number of years a managers spend on his current position.

Table 4 Multiple Regression Predicting PM Commitment

Variable	Affective PM commitment		Continuous PM commitment		Normative PM commitment	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Constant	4.48**	4.14**	3.74**	4.51**	4.31**	4.09**
Organization size	.02	.02	.08*	.07*	.00	.01
Affective ORG commitment	.04	.05	-.09	-.09	.12†	.12†
Continuance ORG commitment	.14*	.13†	.26**	.30**	.20**	.19**
Normative ORG commitment	.05	.06	-.08	-.10	-.13†	-.12†
IPT		.09		-.19*		.06
R ²	.05†	.07	.10*	.15*	.06*	.06
ΔR ²		.02		.05*		.00

Note. PM = Performance Management; ORG = Organizational; N = 159.

** denotes $p < .01$; * denotes $p < .05$; † denotes $p < .10$

Table 5 Multiple Regression: Moderation Predicting PM Commitment

Variable	Affective PM Commitment	Continuous PM Commitment	Normative PM Commitment
Constant	3.80**	4.19**	3.82**
Organization size	.03	.07*	.01
Affective ORG commitment	.05	-.09	.13
Continuance ORG commitment	.09	.28**	.17
Normative ORG commitment	.04	-.10	-.13
IPT			
Perceived PM Purpose	.23**	-.11	.16
	.89†	.63	.66
Interaction			
<i>AR</i> ²	-.26*	-.14	-.19†
	.03*	.01	.02†
Conditional effect of IPT on PM commitment			
Developmental PM purpose Estimate	.23**	-.11	.16*
95% CI	[.06,.39]	[-.29,.07]	[.01,.31]
Administrative PM Purpose Estimate	-.04	-.25**	-.03
95% CI	[-.18,.10]	[-.41,-.09]	[-.16,.10]

Notes. PM = Performance Management; ORG = Organizational; *N* = 159. ** denotes $p < .01$; * denotes $p < .05$; † denote $p < .10$.

FIGURES

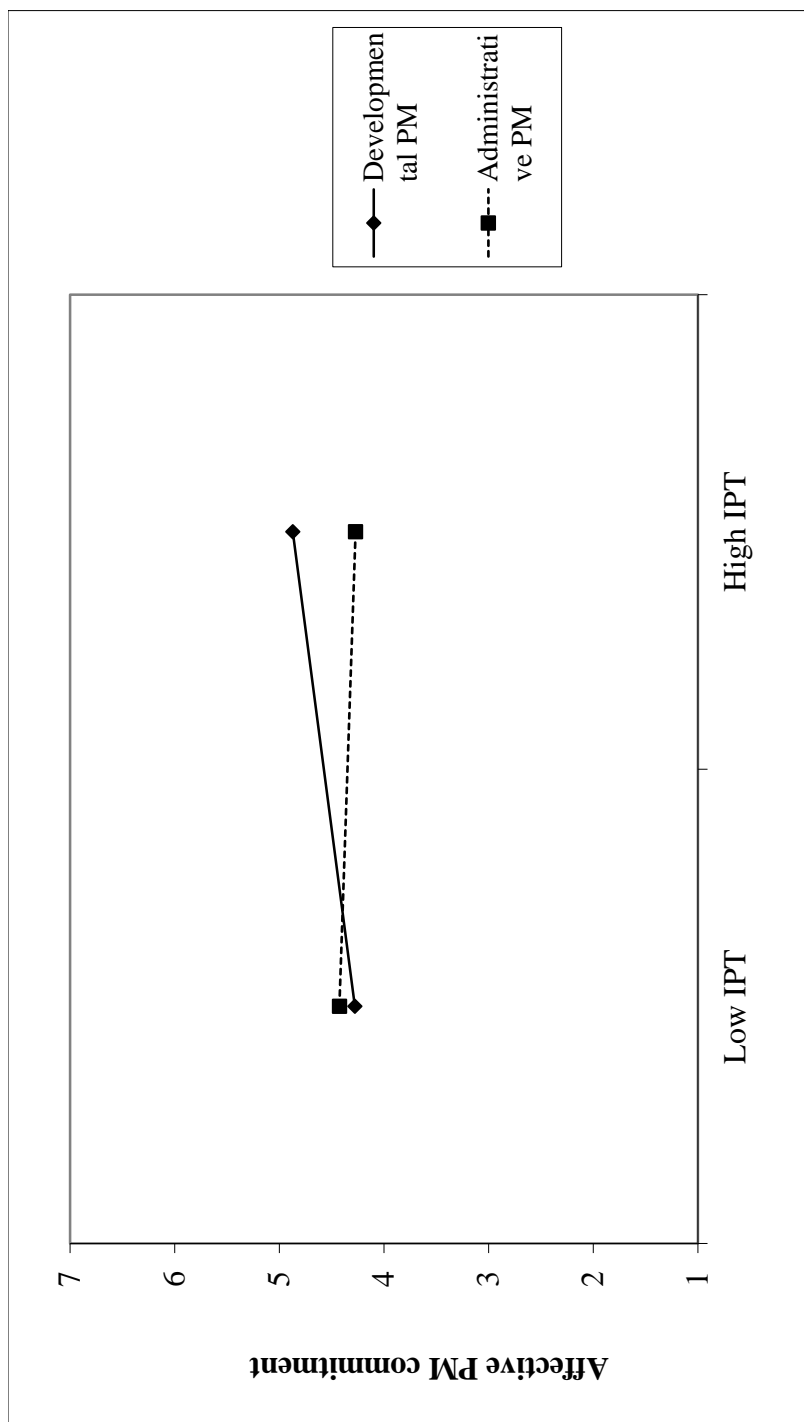


Figure 1 Interaction Plot Predicting Affective PM Commitment

APPENDICES

Appendix A Measures

Implicit Person Theory (Levy & Dweck, 1997)

Strongly Disagree; Disagree; Somewhat Disagree; Neither Agree Nor Disagree;

Somewhat Agree; Agree; Strongly Agree

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

Commitment to Performance Management

Strongly Disagree; Disagree; Somewhat Disagree; Neither Agree Nor Disagree;

Somewhat Agree; Agree; Strongly Agree

Affective Commitment to Performance Management

1. I believe in the value of performance management.
2. Performance management is beneficial to this organization.
3. I think performance management is totally a waste of time (R).
4. Things would be better without performance management (R).
5. Performance management helps me to be a more effective manager.
6. As a manager, performance management is a useful tool for me.
7. I don't like performance management (R).
8. Performance management serves an important purpose in my organization.
9. Performance management is not necessary (R).

Continuance Commitment to Performance Management

1. I have no choice but to engage in performance management.
2. I have too much at stake if I cannot perform the performance management.
3. I feel pressure to engage in the performance management.
4. It would be too costly for me if I fail to perform my duty of performance management.
5. Failure to fulfill my performance management duty will cause undesirable consequences.
6. Right now, performing performance management is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

7. I am not afraid of what might happen if I do not engage in performance management (R).
8. Ignoring performance management is not a viable option for me.

Normative Commitment to Performance Management

1. I feel a sense of duty to conduct performance management.
2. I do not think it would be right of me to be careless in performance management.
3. I would feel badly if I do not engage in the performance management activities.
4. As a manager, it's my obligation to conduct performance management.
5. I would feel guilty if I do not engage in performance management.
6. I do not feel any obligation to fulfill my performance management duty. (R)
7. It is my obligation to devote energy to performance management.

Organizational Commitment Inventory (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Strongly Disagree; Disagree; Somewhat Disagree; Neither Agree Nor Disagree;

Somewhat Agree; Agree; Strongly Agree

Affective Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R).
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R).
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R).

7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a *strong* sense of belonging to *my* organization (R).

Continuance Commitment

1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R).
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (R).
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Normative Commitment

1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R).
3. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R).
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.
8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R).

Perceived Performance Management Purpose

In your opinion, for which purpose does your organization's performance management system really serve?

- Developmental purpose
- Administrative purpose
- Neither developmental nor administrative purpose

Demographics

1. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2. Please indicate which of the following best describes the role you hold in your current job.

- Non-management (position is not considered a management position)
- Line-management (supervising non-management personnel)
- Middle management (supervising line-management personnel)
- Senior/Executive management (position considered senior or executive management)

3. How many years have you been employed with your current employer?
4. Which year did you start working at your *current managerial position* in your organization?
5. In your organization, how often does official performance appraisal take place?
- Once per year
- Twice per year
- Quarterly (4 times each year)
- Bimonthly (6 times each year)
- Monthly (12 times each year)reeee
- Biweekly (24 times each year)
- Weekly (48 times each year)
6. How many people are employed in your organization.
- <10
- 10-19
- 20-49
- 50-99
- 100-499
- 500-999
- 1000-4999
- 5000-9999
- 10000+

Appendix B Proposal

Introduction

Is performance management broken? This provocative statement by Pulakos & O’Leary (2007) reflects the sentiments of practitioners and researchers alike. This frustration results from a sense that performance management is a critical process, yet organizations consistently struggle to implement it in an effective way. Further, Pulakos and O’Leary (2007) also suggested researchers’ efforts devoted to improving the effectiveness of the performance management normally results in little changes due to the large gaps between research and operational implementation. The current research study seeks to identify a potentially new avenue for research that will result in more effective interventions.

Employee’s reactions toward performance management have received substantial attention in the research of performance management (e.g. Keeping & Levy, 2000). However, limited attention has been directed towards manager’s reactions to the performance process and the subsequent impact on effectiveness. Which is surprising, given managers are the operators of performance management system. Therefore, the current research intends to expand the three-component model of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) to conceptualizing manager’s perceptions toward performance management. As Meyer & Allen (1991) indicated, organizational commitment refers to the psychological bond between individuals and the organization they belong to and can be divided into three distinct components (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) suggested commitment can be developed towards multiple

constituencies, including “a course of actions.” They further applied the three-component model of commitment measuring employee’s commitment to organizational change.

Their findings suggest that commitment towards a specific course of action significantly predicts organizational behavior. Follow this vein, the present research proposes a new construct “commitment to performance management,” aiming to capture how manager varies in their attitudes towards performance management activities.

Recent research has identified a promising variable for understanding rater/supervisor effects in performance management, the Implicit Person Theory (IPT). IPT refer to individuals’ fundamental assumptions about the alterability of human attributes. The IPTs were originally introduced by Dweck to examine learning outcomes in children (Dweck, 1986). Her work suggested that people can either hold an entity theory, which assumes personal attributes cannot be changed; or an incremental theory, which assumes that personal attribution can be altered over time. Heslin and his colleagues extended the examination of this construct to better understand how supervisors’ IPTs impacted their perceptions of employee performance and reports of the quality of their coaching (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle, & Latham, 2006). According to their research, compared to a manager who holds an entity theory, incremental managers are more likely to recognize subordinates’ performance change and reflect those variations in their performance ratings. Further, comparing to an entity manager, an incremental manager also tends to engage in more coaching behaviors, which further affects subordinates’ perceptions of performance management process. These findings are interesting; however, their research did not specify the psychological mechanism underlying these relationships. Related to the current study, we believe

commitment to performance management might provide implications in understanding IPT's impacts on manager's behavior in performance management process. As such, we expect that managers who hold an incremental IPT will respond differently to a performance management system than individuals who hold an entity IPT. Specifically, we expect that IPT will predict supervisors' reports of their commitment to performance management.

Substantial evidence suggests that the relationship between individual dispositional attributes and commitment is complex and potentially moderated by a variety of contextual factors (Herold, Fedor & Caldwell, 2007). Past research has shown that performance management systems may serve different purposes, such as the administrative or developmental purposes (e.g. Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989; Farr & Levy, 2007). Moreover, research has found that the purpose of the appraisal may affect employees' attitudes toward the appraisal system (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000) as well as rater behavior (Spence & Keeping, 2011). Therefore, in this study, we will examine whether manager's perceived performance management purpose moderates relationship between manager's IPT and commitment to performance.

In the following sections, literature regarding organizational commitment, implicit person theory as well as the purpose of performance management will be reviewed.

Workplace Commitment

Workplace commitment has continually drawn interest from I/O psychologists since 1970 (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1991) synthesized previous research and proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment, which

has become the most prevalent paradigm used in commitment research. According to this model, organizational commitment is defined as a psychological state, or mindset, that increases the likelihood that an employee will maintain membership in an organization. Further, Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that commitment was a multi-dimensional construct composed of three sub-dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. Affective commitment refers to an individual's identification with, involvement in and emotional attachment to an organization. Continuance commitment is viewed as the tendency to maintain membership in the organization based on the recognition of the costs associated with departure. Normative commitment reflects the feeling of loyalty toward the organization based on the perceived obligation to do so (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Each of the components were accompanied by unique mind-sets, such that affective commitment is mainly driven by desire to stay; continuance commitment is driven by perceived cost to leave; normative commitment is driven by obligation to maintain group identity (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Traditionally, commitment research focused on employee's commitment towards organization (Mowday et al., 1982). But substantial evidence also suggested commitment can be generated towards other "social foci" (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004), such as the labor union (Friedman & Harvey, 1986) and different level of work units (e.g. Becker, Billing, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996; Siders, George & Dharwadkar, 2001; Landry, Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2010). It has been identified that commitments towards different foci can be distinguished from each other and, further, explain organizational behaviors in unique ways. For example, Becker et al. (1996) found that employee's

commitment towards their supervisor more precisely predicted their job performance than the global organizational commitment. The three-component model has shown great construct validity in measuring employee's commitment towards their supervisors (Wasti & Can, 2008), work groups (Becker et al., 1992; Clugston et al., 2000; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004) as well as customers (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). As such, substantial evidence has supported Becker et al, (1996)'s argument that employees could be attached to different foci for different reasons.

Despite the seeming consensus in academia, the reason why individuals may generate commitment toward multiple foci has not been theoretically justified. In order to address this issue, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed that, although commitment can take different forms, its "core essence" lies in the mind-set that binds an individual to a course of action in order to achieve a certain target. This general model of commitment expands the horizon of commitment research and justifies that an individual can develop commitment towards various forms of targets, such as "a recognizable entity", "an abstract concept" or "the intended outcome of a course of actions" (p. 310). Several empirical studies have provided preliminary support that commitment can be directed to "a course of actions". For instance, Neubert and Cady (2001) examined the effect of employee's commitment to a continuous improvement program among a service-based organization. The result showed that employee's commitment to the program positively predicted participation and program-related performance. Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) reported that, in a service-oriented organization that had established certain emotion display rules, employees who were high in commitment to emotion display rules tended to comply with these rules and were more likely to show emotion appropriately.

In another study, Ford, Weissbein & Plamondon (2003) examined an officer's commitment to a community-policing strategy. It was found that an officer's commitment to policing strategy significantly predicted the frequency of community-related policing behaviors. This study also reported an officers' commitment to community-policing strategy and their organizational commitment affected their attitudes and behaviors differently: organizational commitment was a valid predictor of officers' job satisfaction but not their community-related policing behaviors. In contrast, commitment to community-policing strategy predicted policing behaviors but not job satisfaction. These studies provide support that an employee's commitment to certain actions might drive them to put more effort in performing those actions as well as pursuing the target related to the actions, and would be a better predictor of those behaviors than general commitment to the organization.

Unfortunately, the above studies only employed a unidimensional model to measure commitment to actions, which was stemmed from the research of goal commitment (Hollenbeck, Klein, O'Leary & Wright, 1989). By taking a multi-dimensional perspective of commitment, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) applied the three component model to measuring employee's commitment to organizational change. According to this research, the three components of commitment to change could be distinguished from the components of global organizational commitment. Moreover, employee's commitment to change was stronger predictor of their self-reported behavioral support for change than was organizational commitment. This research provided preliminary evidence for the generalizability of Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) integrative commitment model. Furthermore, it also demonstrated the feasibility of

applying the three components model when conceptualizing and measuring commitment towards other targets. Related to the current study, we will seek to establish that this three-component model of commitment can be applied to a supervisor's commitment to engaging in performance management. In the following sections, theory and research identifying the consequences and antecedents of commitment will be reviewed.

Consequences of commitment and action commitment

Traditionally, the concept of commitment has been considered to be important by practitioners and researchers for its potential ability to retain employees (Wright & Kohoe, 2008). Researchers suggest that committed employees are more likely to maintain their organizational identities and less likely to withdraw from work, such as turnover intention and actual turnover. Moreover, accumulated evidence also provides support to the notion that workplace commitment is associated with a wide array of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the workplace. These outcomes include absenteeism (Blau & Boal, 1987; Somer, 1995), task performance (Fulmer, Gerhart & Scott, 2003; Ostroff, 1992, Koys, 2001); organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Organ & Ryan, 1995, Meyer et al, 2002; Bolon, 1997) as well as employee's psychological well-being (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Grawitch, Trares & Kohler, 2007). The three commitment components provide distinct predictive validities towards outcomes (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). For example, Meyer et al., (2002) reviewed the relationship between organizational commitment and performance. Affective commitment was positively related to supervisor-rated and self-rated task performance. Normative commitment is also positively related to job performance although the strength is

relatively weak. Unlike the other two dimensions, research reported there was a weak negative relationship existed between continuance commitment and job performance.

Needless to say, organizational commitment has received substantial attention in academia. The current research pays special attention to a specific type of workplace commitment: action commitment, since our focal construct, commitment to performance management, can be viewed as a special type of action commitment. Action commitment can be defined as “an attachment or bond to an action” (Neubert & Wu, 2009, p. 179). As they suggest, this bond or attachment can be directed towards a variety of targets, ranging from individual level targets, such as personal goals, to group level targets, such as organizational strategy. On the other hand, those actions may also differ in tangibility. For example, an employee may be committed to a work-related goal which can be viewed as a tangible action target, or they can be committed to certain kinds of group norms, which are considered as an intangible action target. Unlike commitment to social foci, most existing research regarding action commitment originates from the concept of “goal commitment” (e.g. Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Diefendorff & Meredith, 2008). Based on goal-setting theory, Locke & Latham (1990) described goal commitment as individual’s determination to reach a goal. It is also viewed as one of the major forms of tangible action commitment (Neubert & Wu, 2009). The importance of goal commitment was emphasized by Locke, Latham, & Erez (1988): the motivational effect of a goal won’t exist unless it’s committed to by the focal individual. Accumulated evidence has provided support that goal commitment can potentially function as either a mediator or a moderator in the goal-performance relationship (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999). For example, several review studies (Klein et al., 1999,

Locke & Latham, 1990, 2003) have documented that goal commitment is a moderator of the relationship between goal difficulty and employee's task performance. Specifically, an employee with higher goal commitment will generally perform better when they are assigned a more difficult goal. On the other hand, research has also supported that goal commitment moderates the feedback-performance relationship (Renn, 2003). In this study, Renn (2003) found that employees with higher goal commitment were more likely to engage in feedback seeking behavior and process feedback information more effectively. Those feedback-seeking behaviors would, in turn, facilitate their performance improvement. Further, Klein & Lee (2006) reported that conscientious individuals would have a higher test score in learning. This relationship was fully mediated by their commitment to the learning goal. Overall, evidence has demonstrated that goal commitment is associated with a variety of behavioral outcomes. What should be emphasized here is that, no matter how it is measured, most related research typically views goal commitment as a unidimensional construct (e.g. Klein et al., 1999, Locke & Latham, 1990, 2003). This way of conceptualization was also adopted by other action commitment studies that were stemming from goal commitment.

In addition to goal commitment, strategy commitment might be the first research field that applies goal commitment to a particular course of actions. After a company formulates its strategy, the strategy won't be successfully implemented unless it is committed to by the employees (Yang, Sun & Eppler, 2009). Noble & Mokwa (1999) proposed that a middle-level manager's commitment to strategy was the key to effective strategy implementation. In their study, they defined commitment to strategy as "the extent to which a manager comprehends and supports the goals and objectives of a

marketing strategy” (p. 62). Although the importance of commitment to strategy has been noted in several studies (e.g. Floyd & Wooldrige, 1992), to the author’s knowledge, Nobel & Mokwa’s (1999) study is the only one that empirically examined the outcomes of commitment to strategy. According to this study, manager’s commitment to strategy was positively related to their role performance of strategy implementation as well as their perception of implementation success. Further, they also reported strategy commitment was a stronger predictor of strategy implementation success perception ($r = .45$) than organizational commitment ($r = .11$).

There have been several studies investigating employee's commitment to the initiatives or programs which aim to realize the determined strategy (e.g. Neubert & Cady, 2001, Ford et al, 2003). Program commitment was defined as “a measure of attachment to a specific program or initiative of planned scope within the organization” (Neubert & Cady, 2001, p. 422). Neubert & Cady (2001) found that employee’s commitment to a company’s sale program was positively related to their program participation and program-related performance. Further, employee's participation mediated the positive relationship between program commitment and performance. As we have reviewed in the previous section, Ford et al., (2003) investigated officer’s commitment to their community-policing strategy and found it correlated with their community-related policing behavior. Moreover, Breaux (2004) investigated a specific type of program commitment: accountant’s commitment to organization’s budgetary process. In this study including 1500 members of the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA), program commitment was positively associated with their managerial performance. Further, program commitment mediated the relationship

between accountant's participation in the budgetary process and their managerial performance.

Scholars also employed action commitment in the emotional labor research, which has been another flourishing area of action commitment study (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005; Diefendorff & Croyle, 2008; Wang, Liao, Zhan & Shi, 2011; Wang et al., 2013). Many service oriented organizations stipulate policies regarding employee's emotion expression standards. Those relevant policies are referred as "emotion display rules" (Grandey, 2000). Gosserand & Diefendorff (2005) reported that employee's commitment to emotional display rules moderated the relationship between their perception of company's emotional display policy and their police compliances. Further, Wang et al., (2011) found that, after experiencing customer mistreatment, an employee with lower emotion display rule commitment is more likely to engage in sabotage, which is a type of revenging towards customer. In a subsequent study, Wang et al., (2013) reported that employees with higher level of emotion display rule commitment were more likely to ruminate over customer mistreatment and experience negative mood.

Neubert & Wu (2009) indicated action commitment research has mainly focused on interpreting the relationship between commitment and employee non-discretionary behavior which is directly tied to a goal. This also suggests one potential drawback of conceptualizing action commitment based on the goal commitment: it's unable to predict individual's discretionary behavior, which refers to the behaviors that are beneficial to the goal setting and/or the goal realization, but is not specified in the goal statement (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al., 2004). One typical example of the discretionary behavior is the organizational citizenship behavior. In contrast, as another

approach to conceptualizing commitment, the three-component model may be more superior in depicting the overall picture regarding the complex relationship between commitment and varied workplace behaviors, including both non-discretionary behavior and discretionary behavior. On one hand, it has been shown, within the theoretical framework of three-component commitment, commitments stemming from distinct bases correlate with discretionary behavior differently (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). For example, affective commitment, followed by normative commitment, has been demonstrated to be the most significant predictor of organizational citizenship behavior whereas continuance commitment is not (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). On the other hand, existing studies also indicate that affective commitment, as a single dimension, possesses predictive validity towards both non-discretionary behavior and discretionary behavior (Meyer et al., 2002). Conversely, according to the limited research, unidimensional goal commitment is not a significant predictor for employee's discretionary behavior (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). This can be considered as another significant distinction between the predictive validity of goal-based action commitment and three-component commitment. Moreover, Gellatly, Meyer & Luchak (2006) reported a significant three-way interaction among affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment in predicting employee's organization citizenship behavior. Specifically, they found normative commitment was negatively related to OCB when affective commitment was low, but continuance commitment was high, which is contradicted to the results of the previous studies when normative commitment was tested alone. This study not only implies that relationship between commitment and behavior is far more sophisticated than originally thought, but also

suggests the necessity of considering the multi-dimensional nature of commitment when investigating its effect on employee's behavior.

As mentioned in the earlier section, Herscovitch and Meyer's (2002) study was the first research intending to conceptualize action commitment based on the three-component model. Their study suggests the potential advantages of operationalizing action commitment by three-component model. According to their study, the three dimensions of change commitment also show different patterns in predicting an employee's change-related behaviors. To be specific, although all the three components of change commitment could significantly predict employee's compliance to the change initiative requirement, only the affective and normative dimensions were positively related to employee's cooperation and championing behavior, which were considered to be the discretionary form of behavioral supports for change. Meyer, Srinivas, Lal & Topolnytsky (2007) replicated this study in Canada and Indian. In this study, continuance commitment was found to be negatively related employee's support for change. More interestingly, Meyer et al., (2007) included "mere compliance" as a behavioral outcome measure, which represents the degree to which employees only intend to exert minimal efforts towards change initiative, as one of the behavioral outcomes. Employee continuance commitment was found to positively relate to their "mere compliance" behavior whereas affective change commitment and normative change commitment were negatively related. Followed by this line of studies, a few subsequent studies investigated other behavioral outcomes related to change commitment, including employee's trust towards supervisor, turnover intention, OCB (Cunningham, 2006; Neves & Caetano, 2009). Overall, besides demonstrating the generalizability of the three-component

commitment model, the change commitment literature also provides support for the advantage of three-component commitment model in predicting employee's volitional behaviors.

It is noteworthy that Klein, Cooper, Molloy and Swanson (2014) provided a new four-item unidimensional target free approach to measure employee's commitment. They named this measure as KUT (Klein et al., Unidimensional, Target-free). The KUT was built on Klein et al.'s (2012) reconceptualization of commitment: "a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target" (p. 137). As Klein et al., (2014) indicated, one of the greatest advantage of KUT is that it provide a flexible commitment measure, which is concise enough and applicable to multiple targets. However, the current study still have some concerns several concerns towards the validity of KUT. First and foremost, as Klein et al., (2014) indicated, the KUT was based on a narrower definition of commitment, which was aiming to remove theoretical redundancies and compounds of commitment. As a result, the narrower scope of definition may leads to relative smaller predictive validity. For example, the TCM affective commitment dimension shows slight advantage than KUT in term of predicting identification ($r = .70$ vs. $r = .53$), job satisfaction ($r = .64$ vs. $r = .57$) as well as turnover intention ($r = -.49$ vs. $r = -.43$). Secondly, also because of the narrow definition, KUB doesn't includes the "perceived cost" aspect of psychological bond towards target, which is captured by the continuance commitment of TCM model. As such, Klein et al., (2014) admitted, the KUB measure primarily overlapped with the affective mindset of TCM measure. Thirdly, the present study also concern about KUB's predictive validity towards domain specific commitment-related behaviors. Klein et al., (2014) documented

that KUB was predictive towards “key commitment variables”, such as identification, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. However, when delving into particular research domain, researcher may be more interested in the domain-specific behaviors rather than the “key variables”. For example, as mentioned earlier, Herscovitch & Meyer (2002) studied manager’s compliance behavior towards change initiative, which can be considered as a domain-specific behaviors. Further, our focal concept, performance management commitment, is a type of action commitment. And goal commitment was only action relevant commitment examined in Klein et al.’s (2014) study, there is not enough evidence for the validity of KUB when applying to action commitment related study. As a result, the current research seeks to develop a domain-specific performance management commitment measure following the TCM model.

In summary, first and foremost, existing research has justified that Meyer & Herscovitch’s (2002) argument that commitment can be expanded to varied courses of actions, not limited those social foci, as Meyer & Herscovich (2002) argued. This also paves the foundation of current study. Further, as a motivational force, action commitment has been demonstrated repeatedly to be an important predictor of employee’s behavioral outcomes within the action relevant circumstances: an individual who commits to the action is typically willing to “go extra miles”. Last but not least, compared to the unidimensional, goal-commitment-based approach, conceptualizing action commitment in the three-dimensional way shows advantage in terms of predicting employee’s discretionary behaviors. As a result, the current study will employ the three-component model of commitment when conceptualizing manager’s commitment to performance management.

Antecedents of Commitment and Action Commitment

At the organizational level, commitment can be predicted by two series of variables. First of all, existing literature has advocated that work experiences are a strong force that shapes organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Example of those variables includes organizational support (e.g. Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990, Shore & Wayne, 1993; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001), organization fairness (e.g. Shappe, 1998; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), role ambiguity and role conflict (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, Meyer et al., 2002).

On the other hand, a large amount of research has provided support that individual differences can be strong predictors of commitment. For example, employee's ability (e.g. task-efficacy) and perceived competency have been frequently examined in the literature (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002). These constructs continually show strong positive correlations with organizational commitment. The current study pays special attention to the relationship between manager's performance management commitment and implicit person theory (IPT), which is viewed as a dispositional characteristics, studies regarding how dispositional trait correlates with workplace commitment will be carefully reviewed in the following paragraph.

Research examining the correlation between employee dispositional variables and organizational commitment is relative scant. In a recent study, Choi, Oh & Colbert (2015) examined whether the Big Five personality traits correlate with the three components of commitment. They found that all the five personality traits are positive predictive of affective commitment and normative commitment. Among the five personality dimensions, agreeableness was the strongest predictor. Further, emotional stability,

extraversion and openness to experience are negatively associated with continuance commitment. However, in an earlier study, only conscientiousness and extroversion were found to be significantly related to affective commitment (Erdhiem, Wang & Zacker, 2006). Moreover, Erdhiem et al., (2005) found that agreeableness was the only significant predictor of normative commitment. Beyond the Five Factor Model, other dispositional traits have also examined. Lee, Ashford, Walsh and Mowday (1992) found that individuals with higher levels of commitment propensity tend to have higher levels of affective commitment, suggesting that particular individuals might become more easily attached to their organization.

Additionally, scant empirical study has been done regarding the predictor of action commitment. Existing research on action commitment also indicates that individual differences are important predictors to action commitment. For instance, Hollenbeck and Klein (1987) proposed that attractiveness and expectancy of goal attainment were two important proximal antecedents of goal commitment. Individual differences might serve as distal predictors through their impacts on the attractiveness and expectancy of goal attainment. Further, they indicated need for achievement, endurance and Type A personality were the three personal factors that were associated with goal commitment. In a subsequent study, Hollenbeck, William & Klein (1989) reported that employee's locus of control and need for achievement were important predictors of commitment to difficult goals. Specifically, an individual is more likely to commit to a difficult goal when they have an internal locus of control and higher in need for achievement. Diefendorff & Croyle (2008) examined the antecedents of employee's commitment to emotion display rule. According to their study, agreeableness is the most

valid predictor of the emotion display rule commitment among the Big Five Personality traits: it correlates positively to employees' expectancy, valence and motivation force in displaying positive emotion and further predicts display rule commitment.

In general, work experiences appear to be important predictors of employee's organizational commitment. Further, both organizational commitment and action commitment can be predicted by the multiple types of individual differences as reviewed above. As discussed earlier, the current research is particularly interested in one of the dispositional variables, Implicit Person Theory (IPT). This is mainly because it has increasingly drawn attention in the performance management literature (e.g. Heslin, Latham & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle & Latham, 2006). The literature regarding IPT will be reviewed in the next section.

Implicit Person Theory

Individuals rely on priori assumptions to sense the external environment and interpret their experience (Dweck, 1996). These priori beliefs and assumptions constitute individuals' "meaning systems" and help them interpret and react to the external environment. Dweck, Chiu & Hong (1995) suggested that the belief in whether human attributes are fixed or malleable is one of the most fundamental assumptions underlying one's meaning system. As Dweck, Chiu, and Hong (1995) indicated, implicit person theory (IPT) involves individuals' assumptions about whether those human attributes affecting behaviors (e.g., personality and intelligence) can be evolved over time.

Specifically, the IPT model purports that individuals may hold either an "entity theory" or "incremental theory" (Gervy, Chiu, Hong, & Dweck, 1999). Individuals holding an entity theory may assume their personal attributes, such as intelligence and personality,

are comparatively unalterable. Conversely, individuals holding an incremental theory assume that those traits can be changed through efforts. . Although these two types of implicit personal theories seem to be theoretically mutual exclusive and are often examined that way, Heslin & VandeWalle (2008) suggested that IPT should be considered as a continuum. Early studies (Bandura & Dweck, 1985; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, Chiu & Hong, 1995) reported that individual IPT correlates with one's goal orientation, such that an entity theorist is inclined to pursue a goal that demonstrates their ability rather than increase their capability. Besides its impact on self-evaluation, IPT is also predictive of how people view other's attributes. For instance, a manager who hold an entity theory might believe that their subordinates' capability and performance cannot be changed. Conversely, an incremental manager might be inclined to believe that their subordinate's capability can be developed through efforts. And because of its potential impact on people's perception about other's capability, performance management researchers began to examine it as an important individual difference predictor of performance management effectiveness.

IPT in Performance Management

As a well-studied construct in the social psychology, IPT is relatively novel in the industrial psychology area. Recently, it began to draw attention in the performance management literature since evidence shows it is predictive in manager's attitudes and behaviors in performance management (e.g. Heslin, Latham & VandeWalle, 2005; Heslin, VandeWalle & Latham, 2006).

It has long been noticed that employee's initial observed poor performance may lead managers to become more sensitive to subsequent poor performance and less

responsive to performance improvement (Manzoni & Barsoux, 1997). Heslin et al. (2005) defined this phenomenon as the "anchoring effect". According to their research, manager's IPT type might be the determinant of this anchoring effect when they rate subordinates' performance. Specifically, they found entity theory managers were less likely to detect subordinate's performance change. Thus their performance ratings were anchored to subordinates' initial performance. The researchers also found that entity managers' rating decisions were more easily affected by prior distributed negative information regarding ratees compared to incremental managers. This anchoring effect of entity rater was also found when students evaluated their professors in a university context (Tam, Pak, Hui, Kwan & Goh, 2010). According to this research, entity students were less likely to change their negative evaluation of their professor who exhibited forgetful behavior in the first half of the semester. These studies suggest that rater's IPT types have a potential impact on the accuracy of their performance ratings.

Heslin et al. (2006) extended this research to examine whether manager's IPT types would impact how they respond behaviorally to their employees. According to their empirical study, employees reported that they received more coaching from incremental managers compared to entity managers. Specifically, they reported higher levels of behaviors such as conveying performance expectations and constructive feedback, helping employees analyze weaknesses, exploring new ways to solve existing problems and developing employee's potential. These data are important, because, as Mueller-Hanson & Pulakos (2015) suggested, performance-related coaching is considered to be an essential component of effective performance management behaviors, which could be of vital importance for the efficacy of performance management system.

More recent research by Heslin & VandeWalle (2011) suggests that manager's IPT also predicts employee's overall attitude toward the performance appraisal process. In this study, Heslin & VandeWalle (2011) collected data from 92 matched manager-employee dyads. The employees were asked to report their perceived procedural justice related to the performance appraisal program as well as their personal commitment towards the organization. Further, those participants invited their supervisors who performed their most recent performance appraisals to participate in the study. Researchers measured the managers' IPT type and asked them to rate their subordinates' organizational citizenship behaviors. The analysis showed that employees whose performance was rated by an incremental theory manager reported higher level of perceived procedural justice. Moreover, their perceived procedural justice in turn predicted the employee's organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment. This study provided preliminary evidence that a manager's IPT type might influence their subordinate's attitudes towards the performance management process and further affect their attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in an organization.

To summarize, Heslin and his colleagues' research extended the study of IPT into the area of performance management. Their initial works demonstrated that a managers IPT type might shape his/her behavioral tendency in performance management. However, the underlying psychological mechanism this has not been specified. The current study proposes that a manager's commitment to performance management might serve as the mediator in this process. Further, the current research also assumes that manager's IPT will predict their commitment to performance management through a

motivational process explained by the self-determination theory (Gagne & Deci, 2005). In the following section, studies regarding self-determination theory will be reviewed.

Self-determination Theory

Meyer et al., (2004) indicated that the goal regulation process may play an important role in the development of commitment. As a result, they suggested that integrating commitment and motivational theories might help us understand both areas better. As such, the present study proposes that understanding the underlying motivational process is also important in examine how manager's IPT type may potentially impact her/his commitment to performance management. Moreover, we are going to pay special attention to managers goal regulation processes (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004) and employ self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000, Gagne & Deci, 2005) as the overarching theoretical framework in understanding this underlying mechanism.

Synthesizing previous need-based and goal-based motivation theory, self-determination theory (SDT) indicates individuals may experience different goal regulation processes depending on how a particular goal satisfies their personal needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). SDT also postulates that, although there are various types of motivations, they fall into an autonomy continuum, which ranges from inherently autonomous to fully controlled (Gagne & Deci, 2005). When the behavior is driven by autonomous motivation, individuals primarily experience a sense of volition. Alternatively, individuals may act with a sense of pressure or a feeling of "having to" engage in particular actions when they are driven by controlled motivation. Further, SDT also suggests that human behaviors can be either intrinsically motivated or extrinsically

motivated. If individuals engage in particular actions mainly because of interest in the activities themselves, they are motivated intrinsically and, thus, experience the sense of autonomy. One particular theoretical contribution of SDT is that it proposed extrinsic motivation can be further classified into multiple sub-types which differ in the extent of perceived autonomy. To be specific, four types of extrinsic motivation have been delineated: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. As Gagne & Deci (2005) proposed, the difference among subtypes of extrinsic motivation mainly lies in the degree of internalization, which refers to the extent to which people accept a behavior regulation and the value associated with it. According to SDT, the degree of internalization is positively related to the perceived autonomy an individual experiences (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Since previous literature advocates that sense of autonomy is an important predictor of organizational commitment (Klein et al., 2012), this linkage between internalization and autonomy may suggest that goal internalization may also play an important role in the development of workplace commitment through its impact on the perceived autonomy.

With regard to the four types of extrinsic motivation, the first subtype is external regulation. When an individual initiates a course of action only because of a perceived contingency between the behavior and desired outcomes, such as achieving tangible rewards or avoiding punishment, they are externally regulated. In this situation, they experience the least sense of autonomy. Secondly, an introjected regulation happens when an individual has decided to obey the behavior regulation but has not accepted the value related. Meyer et al., (2004) mentioned it normally involves self-worth, such that people engage in socially acceptable behaviors in order to avoid feeling guilt or anxiety.

When the behavior is introjected regulated, people will still have a strong sense of being external controlled. Third, identified regulation occurs when individuals have a conscientious understanding towards the value of action. In this situation, people may perceive a strong sense of autonomy because “the behavior is more congruent with their personal goal and identities” (Gagne & Deci, 2005, p334). The last form of extrinsic motivation, integrated regulation, happens when the values of a goal are highly congruent with the values that have been endorsed by the individual, which is considered to be the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Preliminary evidence has supported that the different types of regulation may play an important role in the development of organizational commitment (Gagne & Koestner, 2002; Lam & Gurland, 2008). However, those empirical studies have not employed the Meyer & Allen’s (1991) three-component model as the theoretical framework for commitment. Instead, they used O’Reilly & Chatman’s (1986) commitment model, which specified that organizational commitment took three different forms: identification with organization, internalization of the organization’s value, and compliance. For example, Gagne & Koestner (2002) examined the relationship between the effects of external, introjected, identified, and intrinsic motivation on the identification commitment and internalization commitment. They found that those two types of commitment are strongly correlated with intrinsic motivation and identified motivation (r ranging from .46 to .58). Further, introjected regulation is also a valid, albeit weaker, predictor for those two types of commitment ($r = .36$ and $.39$). Conversely, external regulation was not significantly related to commitment.

Altering and improving employee's performance may be the explicit and fundamental goal underlying every performance management system. Related to the current study, according to the self-determination theory, we propose that managers with different IPT types internalize this goal of performance management differently. As a result, during the performance management process, they will be driven by distinct self-determined motivation and, thus, experience different type of commitment to performance management accordingly. Specifically, entity managers are inclined to believe that an individual's basic attributes cannot be changed over time (Dweck, 1996). Thus, it is highly possible that they may perceive that improving subordinates' performance is hard, or even unattainable. Based on expectancy theory, goal attainment and goal attractiveness are the two primary determinants for goal commitment (Hollenbeck & Klein, 1987; Klein et al., 1999). This value incongruence might hinder them from internalize the goal of performance management. Meanwhile, they have to be compliant to the official performance management process as a requirement of organization. Failure to perform their managerial responsibility regarding performance management may render unfavorable outcomes, such as demotion and negative evaluation regarding their leadership. In this situation, they are more likely to be driven by external regulation or introjected regulation. Thus, they may think they "have to" stick to the performance management practice and may be more likely to perceive a sense of continuance commitment to performance management. Alternatively, in the case of an incremental manager, given their basic assumption regarding the malleability of human's attributes and capability, they may tend to engage in performance management because they are either interested in improving subordinates' performance or they believe in the

instrumentality of performance management system. In either case, they may experience more autonomy and be driven by intrinsic motivation or integrated regulation. Thus, they are more likely to develop affective commitment or normative commitment toward performance management.

Hypothesis 1a: Manager's incrementalism will be positively related to their affective commitment to performance management.

Hypothesis 1b: Manager's incrementalism will be positively related to their normative commitment to performance management.

Hypothesis 1c: Manager's incrementalism will be negatively related to their continuance commitment to performance management.

Perceived Performance Management Purposes

Although the current study hypothesized that manager's IPT type will predict their commitment to performance management, it's hard to image that the relationship between IPT and manager's commitment to performance management will not be moderated by contextual factors. With this regard, the current study is particularly interested in whether manager's perceived purpose of performance management moderates the relationship between IPT and commitment to performance management.

Previous research has indicated that performance management can serve multiple purposes (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989; Far & Levy, 2007). Relevant research can be traced back to Meyer, Kay & French's (1965) work. In this research, they distinguished two primary types of performance management programs: one is used for justifying company's salary decision (administrative purpose); the other is used for providing feedbacks in order to promote employees' future performance (development

purpose). More importantly, this research also revealed that perceived performance management purpose predicted employee attitudes and reactions to the performance management program. Specifically, if the subordinate perceived the purpose of performance management was more salary justification focused, they would react more defensively and provided less constructive suggestions in the performance discussion meeting. Cleveland et al., (1989) conducted the milestone research in this field: they clustered four major general uses from 20 specific performance management purposes: between-individual comparisons, within-individual comparison, programs maintenance, and documentation. In later research (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000), simplified the Cleveland et al.'s (1989) four performance appraisal purposes into two broad types: developmental purpose and evaluative purpose. Performance management with a developmental purpose focuses on the within-individual comparison, aiming to identify employee's training needs and provide feedback for performance improvement. In contrast, performance management with an evaluation purposes concentrates on the between-individual purposes. The results from an evaluative focused performance management program are typically used for supporting administrative decisions, such as salary administration, promotion, and layoff decision.

So far, most research has focused on how an employee perceives the performance management purpose and how perceived purpose predicts an array of the attitudinal variables. For example, Boswell & Boudreau (2000) found that developmental performance appraisal programs are positively related to employee's satisfaction towards both the overall performance appraisal program and their supervisor, who is the direct rater. Further, Youngcount et al. (2007) found that performance appraisal's

developmental goal increase employee's affective organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction. However, to author's knowledge, scant research has been done to examine how these perceived performance management purposes predict the supervisors' attitudes towards the performance appraisal program. It becomes even more important to reveal the supervisor's cognitive processes given they are the actual users and executives of the performance appraisal program. Their perception and reaction may be directly associated with whether the manager can make the best use of their performance management program.

Although changing and improving employee's behavior is the implicit objective underlying every performance management program, we have to admit different performance management programs have their own prioritized purposes. As we have reviewed above, administrative and developmental purposes are the two most widely existed performance management purposes. Since the performance management program is a continuous and organization-wide managerial practice, it is relatively difficult to be changed in a short duration of time. Therefore, the organization's performance management program actually constitutes a stable external constraint for managers. It is reasonable to imagine that performance management purpose, as the external constraint, may interact with manager's dispositional trait (i.e. IPT) to further predict their commitment to performance management through the goal internalization processes. Thus, the current research also seeks to examine the potential interactive effect of IPT and perceived performance management purpose on managers' performance management commitment.

The essence of IPT lies in the belief of people's malleability. As such, it's not hard to imagine that managers with different IPTs may evaluate the difficulty of the same performance management purpose distinctly. This distinctiveness of difficulty evaluation might have an impact on how they internalize the purpose of performance management. In a developmental-focused performance management system, entity managers may perceive developing their subordinates as an unattainable goal since they believe human attributes are fixed and cannot be altered over time (Dweck et al., 1995). Since developing subordinate's performance is deemed to be difficult for them, the entity manager may be hindered to internalize a developmental purpose of performance management. Therefore, when they are required by organization to engage in developmental performance management activities, they will be regulated by external motivation or introjected motivation, and thus report lower affective commitment and higher continuance commitment towards a developmental focused performance management program. Conversely, Heslin, VandeWalle & Latham (2006) found that managers who hold incremental person theories are more likely to engage in coaching behavior. Since the performance appraisal program with a developmental purpose focuses more on within-person comparison (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000), it collects information regarding subordinate's strength and weakness. That information may be deemed as useful by incremental managers to assist them coaching their subordinates. Thus, they will perceive more instrumentality towards a developmental focused performance management program and report higher affective commitment and lower continuance commitment.

Follow the above reasoning, we propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2a. The positive relationship between manager's incrementalism and their affective and normative commitment to performance management will be moderated by their perceived developmental performance management purpose, such that the positive relationship will become stronger when the performance management is more developmental focused.

Hypothesis 2b. The relationship between manager's incrementalism and their continuance commitment to performance management will be moderated by their perceived developmental performance management purpose, such that the negative relationship will become stronger when the performance management is more developmental focused.

The perceived administrative purpose of commitment may also potentially moderate the relationship between IPT and performance management relationship. Compared to incremental theorists, entity theorists may be inclined to attribute other people's negative behavior to their global negative dispositional traits and call for more severe punishments (Dweck, 1996). In an empirical research study, Gervy, Chiu, Hong & Dweck (1999) asked people with different types of IPT to judge whether a defendant was guilty in a simulated murder case. They found the entity theorists are more likely to render a guilty verdict based on their trait information and attribute the primary purpose of imprisonment to "punishment" or "retribution". Accordingly, we can infer that, in a work setting, entity managers may possibly make similar inferences towards their subordinates with dissatisfactory performance, such that they may attribute the dissatisfactory performance to employees' negative traits (e.g. tardiness, incapability). At the same time, since they believe in the rigidity of people's attributes, they are less likely

to coach the incapable subordinates. In this situation, they may view the administrative focused performance management system as a legal means to help them rule out the subordinates they dislike. As a consequence, when they engage in administrative performance management activities, they may be regulated by more autonomous type of motivation type, thus feel higher affective commitment and lower continuance commitment. This pattern may not appear in the incremental managers.

Follow the above reasoning, we propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3a. The relationship between manager's incrementalism and their affective commitment will be moderated by their perceived administrative purpose of performance management, such that the positive relationship will become weaker when the perceived purpose of performance management system is more administrative focused.

Hypothesis 3b. The relationship between manager's incrementalism and their affective commitment will be moderated by their perceived administrative purpose of performance management, such that the negative relationship will become weaker when the perceived purpose of performance management system is more administrative focused.

Methods

Participants and Designs

200 participants will be recruited through Amazon MTurk to engage in two-step survey. All of the participants must be currently in managerial positions and working in their current organization for at least one year so that they can develop commitment to their performance management system. The surveys will be distributed at two time-

points. At the Time 1, participants' demographic information, commitment to performance management, and organizational commitment will be measured. After 2 weeks, each participant will take a survey measuring their IPT, overall satisfaction towards performance management and the perceived performance management purpose.

Measures

Commitment to performance management (Time 1). Twenty items were adapted from Herscovitch & Meyer (2002)'s commitment to change inventory. They were adapted to reflect the focus on performance management, Seven items assess manager's affective commitment to performance management (e.g. "I believe in the value of performance management"); seven items assess continuance commitment to performance management (e.g. "I have no choice but to engage in the performance management process."); six items assess the normative commitment to performance management (e.g. "I would feel guilty if I did not engage in the performance management"). The responses will be measured on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Organizational commitment (Time 1). Allen & Meyer (1990)'s organizational commitment scale will be used in this study, including the measures of affective, continuance and normative commitment. The three scales included 9, 10 and 9 items. All the scales employ 7-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three scales used in previous research are acceptable .91, .87, and .90, respectively (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Implicit person theory (Time 2). In the current study, manager's IPT will be assessed by the eight-item, "kind-of-person" scale developed by Levy and Dweck (1997).

This scale has four items measuring individual's entity beliefs (e.g. "Everyone is a certain kind of person, and there is not much he or she can really change about that."), and four items measuring individual's incremental beliefs (e.g. "People can substantially change the kind of person they are.") Levy & Dweck (1997) Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .93 to .95.

Perceived purpose of performance management (Time 2). Youngcount, Leiva & Jone's (2007) perceived performance management purpose scale will be adopted in this study. The original scale measures manager's perception regarding three purposes for a performance management system: administrative purpose (e.g. "Performance appraisals help determine whether to promote, retain or terminate an employee"); developmental purpose (e.g. "performance rating let employee know where they stands") and role definition purposes (e.g. "Performance appraisal provides information that helps make positive change in job itself."). However, in the current study, only the administrative and developmental purpose scales will be employed. Each scale contains 3 items. All the items will be measured on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach alpha coefficients for these two scales in previous research were .70 and .75 (Youngcount et al., 2007).

In order to better understanding the potential relationship between commitment to performance management and this situational variable, the current study will adjust the existing inventory and form two different questionnaires: "prototype performance management purpose", which is used to measure how manager considers an ideal performance management system serves for; "perceived performance management purpose", which is used to measure how manager think their current performance

management system is used for. When managers evaluate their “prototype performance management purpose”, they will read the following instruction: “The following scale is used to measure your opinion regarding the characteristics of an ideal performance management system, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statement”. The items will be adjusted, such that “ideal performance appraisals should help determine whether to promote, retain or terminate an employee.” Alternatively, when manager evaluate their current performance management system, they will read the following instruction “The following scale is used to measure your opinion regarding the characteristics of your current performance management system, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statement.” The item will be adjusted as well: “In my organization, the current performance management process helps determine whether to promote, retain or terminate an employee.”

Control Variables

Gender and industry (Time 1). The present research will regard participants’ gender as control variables. Numerous studies showed that gender could be a valid predictor for employee’s organizational commitment (e.g. Marsden, Kalleberg & Cook, 1993; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Managerial backgrounds (Time 1). The present study will also collect three types of information regarding manager’s managerial background: managerial level, number of times participating in formal performance management activities, and number of subordinates. A previous study suggested employee at different levels may perceive their performance management system distinctly because they have varied knowledge

regarding their performance management system (Williams & Levy, 2000). The current study will ask participants to identify their managerial level as one of the three options: first-line manager, middle-level manager or senior-level manager.

Satisfaction for performance management system (Time 2). Participant will be asked to evaluate overall satisfaction towards their performance management system. Two items will be adapted from William & Levy (2000)'s study: "The current performance appraisal process is a good way to evaluate employee's job performance." and "I feel that no changes should be made to the performance appraisal system in this organization". These two items will be measured on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The Cronbach alpha coefficients for these two items were .71 (William & Levy, 2000).

Analysis Strategy

The current study will conduct a confirmatory factor analyses to examine whether the three components of performance management commitment can be distinguished from each other. To test the model fit, the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1989) and the expected cross-validation index.