Swiftly judging whom to bring on board: How person perception (accurate or not) influences selection of prospective team members

Rellie Derfler-Rozin [a,1,*], Sofya Isaakyan [b,1], Hyunsun Park [a,1]

[a] *University of Maryland, United States*
[b] *Erasmus University, The Netherlands*

A R T I C L E   I N F O

A B S T R A C T

We develop and test a holistic model of how team members' swift judgments about a prospective team member impact their selection decisions and how accurate those judgments are in predicting the prospective member's performance. Applying the social psychology literature on person perception to the organizational literature on team member selection, we argue that team members' perceptions of the prospective member's *competence* primarily shape their predictions about the prospective member's *task-related performance in the team*, whereas perceptions of *warmth* primarily shape predictions about the prospective member's *interpersonal contextual performance in the team*. We further propose that, although team members rely on both performance predictions when choosing a prospective member, predicted task-related performance receives more weight than predicted interpersonal contextual performance, and that the importance of predicted interpersonal contextual performance is elevated when team task interdependence is high. Importantly, we theorize that the predictions about task-related performance show good accuracy, whereas the predictions about interpersonal contextual performance do not, which makes the reliance on the latter erroneous. Across two studies utilizing prospective members' actual task-related and interpersonal contextual performance (objective and peer-rated), as well as team members' predictions about such performances, we found support for our predictions. Our research resolves several outstanding puzzles in the literature on person perception, integrates it into organizational research, and offers novel and actionable insights for selecting prospective team members.

1. Introduction

Organizations are increasingly relying on teams to address challenging tasks (Devine et al., 1999; Hollenbeck et al., 2012). In today's fast-paced economy with its dynamic human capital market, it is more likely than ever before that swift judgments are made in assessing and selecting prospective team members. Recent evidence also shows that much of recruiting today seeks external (versus internal) candidates, suggesting that selection decisions can be based on brief acquaintance rather than a thorough record of past performance or developed relationships (Cappelli, 2019). Further, more and more organizations are using virtual interviews (Souter, 2020), where swift judgments become an integral part of a formal interview process, and such judgments have a profound impact on selection decisions (Barrick et al., 2010, 2012; Swider et al., 2016). In this research, we develop and test a holistic

model of how team members' swift judgments of prospective team members impact their selection decisions and how *accurate* these judgments are in predicting prospective members' performance in the team.

Correctly assessing prospective team members is fundamental to team success (Levine & Moreland, 1994; Marques et al., 1998; Moreland & Levine, 1982). When selecting a new team member, two key considerations are assessed: *task-related performance in the team*, or behaviors aimed at executing the team's primary task and engaging with the task at the team level (e.g., providing task-related ideas and suggestions to other team members), and *interpersonal contextual performance in the team*, or behaviors aimed at supporting the team's social and collaboration dynamics (e.g., helping) (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, 1993; Fiedler, 1967; Kabanoff, 1991; Katz & Kahn, 1978; LePine et al., 2000; Van Scotter et al., 2000).

Teamwork is intrinsically social, and theories from social psychology

---

on person perception specifically suggest that people judge others on two fundamental dimensions: *competence* and *warmth* (Asch, 1946; Cuddy et al., 2011; Fiske et al., 2002; Wojciszke, 1994). Drawing on these theories, we theorize that team members' perceptions of a prospective member's competence primarily shape their predictions about the member's task-related performance in the team, and perceptions of warmth primarily shape predictions about the member's interpersonal contextual performance in the team. Extending the conventional perspective in social psychology that argues for the primacy of warmth perceptions (and greater accuracy in detecting warmth; e.g., Willis & Todorov, 2006), we propose that predicted interpersonal contextual performance (derived from warmth) receives *less* weight than predicted task-related performance (derived from competence) in selecting the prospective member. We further argue that team task interdependence (i.e., the extent to which team members depend on one another and need to engage in interpersonal interactions with each other to achieve their objectives) moderates the relative weights given to predicted task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in selecting team members. Importantly, we examine the relative accuracy of predictions about task-related and interpersonal contextual performance, by testing whether predictions about the prospective member's task-related performance are more accurate than predictions about interpersonal contextual performance. We thus connect theories about person perception to organizational reality by examining the relationship between predicted performances (derived from competence and warmth perceptions) and actual ones. In doing so, we challenge the automatic application of findings from social psychology to the organizational context and illustrate that the findings should be re-examined while taking into consideration the complexities that come with such context (see Moore & Flynn, 2008 for a similar discussion).

We make several important theoretical contributions. First, prior research has primarily looked at team members' perceptions based on prolonged interactions or detailed information about a person's warmth or competence (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2018; Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008; Thomas et al., 2020). However, it is well known that swift judgments affect selection decisions (e.g., Barrick et al., 2012), especially in today's fast-paced business world. Importantly, it is yet unclear *why* such swift judgments of competence and warmth would influence team members' selection decisions. We answer this both theoretically and practically important question by bringing in the theoretical lens of person perception into understanding organizational teams and core performance markers in teams, namely task-related performance and interpersonal contextual performance (e.g., LePine et al., 2000; Marks et al., 2001). In doing so, we provide greater theoretical precision about the role of person perception in evaluating prospective members (Levashina et al., 2014). At the same time, we also contribute to the literature on "thin slices" of behavior by examining how brief excerpts of behavior affect subsequent evaluations of prospective members (e.g., Barrick et al., 2010; Borkenau et al., 2004; Swider et al., 2016).

Second, prior research on social judgment has generally claimed that warmth perceptions are more important than competence perceptions (Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008; Fiske et al., 2007; Van Der Lee et al., 2017). However, recent studies suggest that interdependence between the assessor and the prospective member may affect the weight given to competence and warmth perceptions (Thomas et al., 2020) and even make perceptions of competence more important (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2018). We extend this line of research by demonstrating that in an organizational context, team members rely more on predicted task-related performance (derived from competence perceptions) than predicted interpersonal contextual performance (derived from warmth perceptions) when selecting a prospective member. Moreover, we also delineate team task interdependence as an important contextual factor that impacts the relative weights given to predictions about task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in selection decisions. We thus not only add to the research that challenges the warmth primacy principle but also explain exactly why the organizational context can

alter the primacy.

Third, we go beyond examining how swift judgments affect performance predictions and selection decisions by testing the *accuracy* of the predictions. There are conflicting perspectives in the literature about the accuracy of swift judgments. The social psychology perspective, especially the research on thin slices, argues for reasonable accuracy (e.g., Ambady et al., 2000; Ambady & Rosenthal, 1992; Borkenau et al., 2004), whereas the organizational and personnel literatures treat swift judgments as no better than noise (Dipboye et al., 2012; Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2011). We bridge this gap by showing that team members' predictions about prospective members' task-related performance (derived from competence perceptions) can be relatively accurate, whereas predictions about interpersonal contextual performance (derived from warmth perceptions) are not. Providing such understanding of the accuracy of swift judgments in the context of team member selection is theoretically novel and offers practical implications for how teams should treat swift judgments. Our empirical design to test the accuracy also heeds the call by Moore and Flynn (2008) for more research to adapt decision-making paradigms into the organizational behavior literature.

2. Theory and Hypotheses

Research on person perception has shown that *warmth* (comprising such traits as being good-natured, friendly, and kind) and *competence* (comprising such traits as skillful, efficient, and intelligent)[2] represent two fundamental dimensions along which people evaluate themselves, others, and groups. The constructs of warmth and competence have appeared under various names in research in social psychology, sociology, personality psychology, and organizational behavior. In earlier work on personality impressions, Asch (1946) identified the dimensions of social good-bad and intellect good-bad. In sociology, Bales (1950) discussed socio-emotional orientation and task orientation in teams. Peeters (2002) distinguished between self-profitability (i.e., confident, ambitious, practical, intelligent) and other-profitability (conciliatory, tolerant, trustworthy). Perceptions of competence versus warmth have also been labeled as agency versus communion (Abele, 2003; Bakan, 1966; Eagly & Steffen, 1984) or intellectually- versus socially desirable traits (Rosenberg et al., 1968). Similarly, Stogdill (1948, 1974) has distinguished between "consideration" (a warmth-centered orientation, such as showing concern for your team members) and "initiation of structure" (a competence-centered orientation, such as establishing and organizing work processes for your team members) leadership behaviors.

Today, there is near consensus among scholars that warmth and competence dominate person perception and subsume various more specific perceptions. Research has found that warmth and competence account for almost 90 % of the variance among 300 different specific trait terms (Abele & Wojciszke, 2007) and 82 % of the variance in global perceptions of well-known others (Wojciszke, Bazinska, et al., 1998). Moreover, warmth and competence have been shown to be the basis on which people frame recollections of past experiences (Wojciszke, 1994). The paramount importance of warmth and competence in quickly forming impressions is likely based on their effectiveness in promoting survival over the course of human evolution. Warmth roughly corresponds to whether others have positive or negative intentions and

---

[2] Recent research has proposed separating morality perceptions from warmth evaluation (Goodwin et al., 2014; Leach et al., 2007), but in this paper we focus on the traditional and dominant view that assumes that morality perception fall under warmth perceptions (e.g., Wojciszke, Dowhyluk, et al., 1998). Our decision to focus on competence and warmth more generally is also driven by our desire to map such perceptions on the performance markers widely used in organizations and teams (task-related and interpersonal contextual performance).

competence indicates whether they are capable of enacting those intentions (Cuddy et al., 2008).

Theories of person perception explain how other individuals (e.g., Casciaro & Lobo, 2005; Singh & Tor, 2008), groups (Betancourt et al., 2005; Cuddy et al., 2004), and even nations and cultures are perceived (Cuddy et al., 2009). We focus on the individual level and argue that when it comes to evaluating a prospective member, team members often have a limited amount of time and cognitive resources to engage in a thorough assessment process. Hence, they instead need to make decisions based on swift judgments by quickly forming perceptions of competence and warmth about the prospective member. In this process, we propose that perceptions of competence and warmth differently affect team members' predictions about the prospective member's task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the team.

2.1. How do perceptions of competence and warmth affect performance Predictions?

Selecting a new team member involves assessing the extent to which a candidate will contribute to the team's goals and image and uphold its norms (Levine & Moreland, 1994; Marques et al., 1998; Moreland & Levine, 1982) by estimating the member's future performance in the team, namely *task-related performance* and *interpersonal contextual performance*. Although task-related and interpersonal contextual performances are interrelated (Hoffman et al., 2007), they may be differently predicted by warmth and competence perceptions.

Task-related performance refers to the accomplishment and fulfillment of the primary tasks and objectives that a person is assigned (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). In a team context, successfully completing tasks requires not only possessing the capabilities to perform individually (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998) but also engaging with other team members to organize processes in a competent manner and exchange task-related ideas and suggestions that allow the team to perform well (e.g., LePine et al., 2000; Mathieu et al., 2020). Possession of such capabilities, we argue, is generally associated with a more holistic perception of one being competent. At the same time, as task-related performance is reflected in one's task-related behaviors and engagement, irrespective of whether one has positive intentions toward others, perceptions of warmth are less likely to be related to task-related performance predictions.

Interpersonal contextual performance can be construed as a subset of organizational citizenship behaviors, or employees' discretionary behaviors to support the organization's social and psychological context (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Van Scotter et al., 2000). In a team context, interpersonal contextual performance contributes to team spirit and interpersonal relations (LePine et al., 2000). Notably, it is conceptually other-oriented as it focuses on how individuals help, take care of, and support others in the team (Ellington et al., 2014; Organ, 1988; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). That is, interpersonal contextual performance is more closely related to one's communality, including positive intention towards and consideration of others, than self-interest (Abele & Wojciszke, 2007). We argue that possessing such positive intention for and consideration of others is directly associated with a holistic perception of warmth. At the same time, as interpersonal contextual performance is reflected in one's behaviors of helping and supporting others, irrespective of one's knowledge or skills, perceptions of competence are less likely to be related to interpersonal contextual performance predictions. Thus, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1. *Team members' perceptions of competence of a prospective member* (*compared to perceptions of warmth*) *are more strongly associated with their predictions about the prospective member's task-related performance in the team, whereas team members' perceptions of warmth of the prospective member* (*compared to perceptions of competence*) *are more strongly associated with their predictions about the prospective member's interpersonal contextual performance in the team.*

2.2. Which performance predictions affect team Members' selection more Strongly?

The literature on person perception suggests that although both competence and warmth perceptions are emergent when people form their impressions of others, warmth perceptions tend to dominate attention and be considered more important than competence perceptions (Fiske et al., 2007; Wojciszke, Dowhyluk, et al., 1998). This is because, from an evolutionary perspective, it is more functional to assess if a person has positive or negative intentions than if the person is capable of enacting such intentions (Cuddy et al., 2008). For example, research has demonstrated that the traits related to communion, a construct related to warmth, are identified more quickly in a lexical decision task than those related to agency, a construct related to competence (Ybarra et al., 2001). Other prior research also supports the primacy of warmth perceptions in a team selection context. Casciaro and Lobo (2008) found that when choosing working partners, competence became irrelevant if the potential partner exhibited negative interpersonal affect. Van Der Lee et al. (2017) found that information about morality (a construct more related to warmth than competence; Wojciszke, Bazinska, et al., 1998) received more weight than that about competence in evaluating prospective team members (Van Der Lee et al., 2017).

In contrast to the dominant view in the social psychology literature on person perception, we argue that within organizations, competence perceptions generally have primacy (Cuddy et al., 2011). In an organizational context, people tend to think strategically and favor those whom they perceive as instrumental in accomplishing their goals (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2015, 2018; S. Y. Lee et al., 2015; Orehek & Forest, 2016). Moreover, in the context of organizations, there may even be less need for people to attend to warmth-related perceptions. This is because organizations have a set of institutionalized "rules" or "norms" that guide people's behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Jansen & Von Glinow, 1985). Although such norms may exist in any context of social interactions, they are stronger, more clearly defined, and better enforced in organizations (Jansen & Von Glinow, 1985). Hence, in such context, as organizational members tend to behave within such rules of conduct, team members will be less concerned about detecting benevolent intentions in one another and more concerned about whether one can help achieve the core task. Indeed, some research notes that the principle of warmth primacy may not apply to contexts in which observers "approach actors with a specific interest in their abilities, for example, when making employment decisions" (Wojciszke, 1994, pp. 223–224) or when mastery goals (compared to well-being goals) are more salient (Abele & Brack, 2013, see Study 3; see also Kirmani et al., 2017 for a similar argument in the marketing context). Team members' selection decision of a prospective member presents the very context in which thinking strategically and instrumentally is valued and thus team memebers are more likely to rely on pereceptions of competence rather than warmth in making the decision. Supporting this, Belmi and Pfeffer (2018) found that when individuals work in contexts wherein their economic outcomes depend on others' performance (which is usually the case for work teams), they value competence over sociability and prefer a "competent jerk" over a "lovable fool". As we argue that competence perceptions generally map onto predicted task-related performance and warmth perceptions onto predicted interpersonal contextual performance of a prospective member, we expect that team members will give more weight to predicted task-related performance than to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in selecting the prospective member.

Additional support comes from the literature on the relative importance of task-related performance over interpersonal contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Task-related performance directly contributes to a team's core tasks and is thus more essential for effective team functioning. For instance, if team members were to withhold their contribution to the primary task, it would immediately

impact team performance. In contrast, team members' interpersonal contextual performance, such as interpersonal helping or keeping team spirit, may contribute to the overall performance (Podsakoff et al., 1997), but teams do not necessarily depend on such performance and can survive even if the members do not engage in those behaviors. Thus, although both task-related performance and interpersonal contextual performance are important and desirable in a team, the former is arguably more primary and critical for the team than the latter. This argument is also in line with the notion that interpersonal contextual performance is generally considered an "extra-role behavior" (Robinson & Morrison, 1995), which is desirable but not necessary. We thus hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2. *Team members' selection decisions are more strongly influenced by their predictions about the prospective member's task-related performance in the team (derived from perceptions of competence) than by their predictions about the prospective member's interpersonal contextual performance in the team (derived from perceptions of warmth).*

2.3. The moderating role of team task interdependence

We further posit that the relative weights given to task-related and interpersonal contextual performance predictions depend on the particular team context in which team members operate. The literature on person perception posits that "the weights we assign to each dimension (and the resultant impact on actions we take) are, to some extent, context-sensitive" (Cuddy et al., 2011, p. 77). For example, Wojciszke and Abele (2008) showed that in situations where there is a positive outcome interdependence between the observer and the target, observers became more focused on and invested in making swift judgments about agency (competence) rather than communion (warmth). Similarly, Belmi and Pfeffer (2018) found greater reliance on competence perceptions when reward interdependence was high.

We focus on the contextual influence of *team task interdependence* and examine how it moderates the relative weights given to task-related and interpersonal contextual performance predictions in selection of a prospective member. Team task interdependence refers to "the degree to which task work is designed so that members depend upon one another for access to critical resources and create workflows that require coordinated action" (Courtright et al., 2015, p. 5). The level of task interdependence plays an important role in team functioning and affects both task-focused and relationship-focused team dynamics (Courtright et al., 2015). When team task interdependence is high, team members work together, establish coordination procedures, and interact more with each other (Campion et al., 1993; Courtright et al., 2015; Wageman, 1995). In contrast, when task interdependence is low, team members are less likely to have interpersonal interactions as they divide individual tasks between one another, such that the team goal is accomplished by adding up individual members' contributions (von Bertalanffy, 1973).

We argue that team task interdependence will elevate team members' reliance on interpersonal contextual performance prediction (derived from warmth perceptions) when selecting a prospective team member. As Courtright et al. (2015) note, "task interdependence strongly influences the extent to which team members are social with one another in the context of doing taskwork" (p. 6). The more frequent interactions with the prospective member should increase the importance of the member's predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team. Research has demonstrated that team members' liking of a teammate had a stronger effect on the willingness to continue working with that teammate in teams with a higher level of task interdependence (Thomas et al., 2020). Additional support comes from Casciaro and Lobo (2005), who have found that perceived likeability becomes more important when one is dependent on others for goal attainment, as is the case when task interdependence is high. We thus expect that when a team's task interdependence is high (low), the importance of predicted interpersonal contextual performance in selecting the prospective

member is elevated (reduced).

Yet, we do not expect team task interdependence to affect the importance of predicted task-related performance. Our context is a team context within an organization; hence reward- or outcome interdependence in such context is also high, as was the case in Belmi and Pfeffer (2018). Therefore, due to high outcome interdependence in a team context, regardless of task interdependence, we posit that the importance of predicted task-related performance in the team will not decrease and that we will only see an elevation of the importance of predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team. Hence, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3a. *When team task interdependence is low, team members' selection decisions are more strongly influenced by the predicted task-related performance of the prospective team member (derived from perceptions of competence) than by the predicted interpersonal contextual performance of the prospective team member (derived from perceptions of warmth).*

Hypothesis 3b. *When team task interdependence is high, the influence of the predicted interpersonal contextual performance of the prospective team member (derived from perceptions of warmth) on team member's selection decisions is elevated, such that the difference between the influences of the predicted interpersonal contextual performance (derived from perceptions of warmth) and predicted task-related performance of the prospective team member (derived from perceptions of competence) on team member's selection decisions is reduced.*

2.4. Do team members rely on accurate performance predictions in selection Decisions?

Prior research on selection has considered perceptions based on brief interactions as noise. Such perceptions have been broadly classified as job-irrelevant self-presentation behavior and, thus, viewed as belonging to the same category as a job applicant's attempts to convey a positive image (Dipboye et al., 2012; Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2011). For example, Levashina and colleagues (2014) discuss how "rapport-building" can contaminate the validity of interviews. Similarly, Florea et al. (2019) explain how initial perceptions of an interviewee can skew selection decisions depending on the interviewer's cognitive motivation.

However, research on *thin slices* of behavior, or a brief excerpt of behavior lasting less than 5 min long, suggests that such perceptions may have some validity in evaluating job-relevant characteristics (e.g., Barrick et al., 2010; Borkenau et al., 2004; Swider et al., 2016). Indeed, a number of studies, including a *meta*-analysis, suggest that inferences about job-relevant characteristics (e.g., performance, trustworthiness, personality, intelligence) made by strangers after brief interactions based on "thin slices" of behavior are significantly associated with evaluations provided by experts or familiar raters (e.g., Ambady & Rosenthal, 1992; Berger & Calabrese, 1974; Borkenau et al., 2004). Moreover, studies have suggested that a deliberative process of analyzing, such as interpreting non-verbal cues, not only is unnecessary but also hampers judgment accuracy (e.g., Ambady & Gray, 2002), suggesting that people actually make *more* accurate predictions based on thin slices of behavior and intuition (Ambady, 2010). Taken together, these findings suggest that people can make meaningful judgments of job-relevant characteristics based on quick perceptions (Cuddy et al., 2008; Ingold et al., 2018).

Therefore, a theoretical puzzle emerges when one compares the traditional research on selection that largely views swift judgments as erroneous with the research on thin slices that views such judgments as potentially accurate and useful. We provide clarity on this issue by differentiating between the accuracy of swift judgments derived from competence perceptions and the accuracy of judgments derived from warmth perceptions.

Original theorizing on person perception has suggested that detecting warmth (or benevolent intentions of others) is particularly adaptive in human evolution and more important than detecting competence

(Fiske et al., 2002). Hence, as a result of evolution, not only can individuals make warmth judgments much faster than competence judgments (Cuddy et al., 2011), but their warmth judgments may also be more accurate. Supporting this view, research has demonstrated that people automatically judge others' character with relative ease and speed (Gilbert et al., 1988). Willis and Todorov (2006) also showed that judgments made about a person's trustworthiness (a construct closer to warmth) after a 100 ms exposure to the person's facial appearance were more reliable than the judgments about competence (see also Eisenkraft, 2013 for a similar finding). Taken together, this might suggest that team members are more accurate in predicting the prospective member's interpersonal contextual performance (derived from warmth perceptions) than task-related performance (derived from competence perceptions).

However, we conducted two pilot studies (Pilot Studies 1 and 2; pre-registered with such prediction, see Online Appendix C), and they produced the opposite result: raters were more accurate in predicting task-related performance, and, in fact, they were not at all accurate in predicting interpersonal contextual performance. Based on the results of the pilot studies, we reconsidered some of the theoretical perspectives, leading to new predictions regarding the accuracy of judgments based on warmth and competence perceptions. Specifically, we argue that it is harder for prospective members to "fake" their competence (which leads to task-related performance predictions) than their warmth (which leads to interpersonal contextual performance predictions). If so, warmth perceptions and the associated interpersonal contextual performance predictions should be more susceptible to error. Hence, we propose that predictions about task-related performance in the team derived from competence perceptions have *higher* predictive validity than those of interpersonal contextual performance derived from warmth perceptions.

As the literature on candidate impression management notes, in team member selection situations, prospective members are motivated to convey the most positive image about themselves (Kacmar & Carlson, 1999; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990; Von Baeyer et al., 1981). Candidates try to appear likable (Amaral et al., 2019), and career coaches also advise them to appear likable, friendly, and "a team player" in interviews (McMullen, 2015). These traits are typically associated with interpersonal contextual performance. Thus, prospective members will likely present themselves in such a manner, making perceptions of warmth a noisy signal of their actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team. One might argue that candidates may be equally motivated to portray themselves as competent. However, competence is harder to fake (Reeder et al., 2002; Tausch et al., 2007) unless the candidate actually has the abilities, skills, and knowledge. Supporting this notion, research has shown that inferences of intelligence from thin slices of behavior are strongly associated with actual intelligence scores (Borkenau et al., 2004). In contrast, a swift judgment about warmth can be a result of one's actual disposition or impression management tactic; hence warmth can be harder to judge accurately (Cuddy et al., 2011). As Casciaro and Lobo (2005) note, "jerks can be charming when they wish" (p. 14), which is likely to be the case when interviewing for a position in a team. The idea that warmth-related inferences are less accurate also relates to their lesser importance in selection decisions. Although it might have been evolutionarily important for people to develop skills in detecting warmth, this might not be the case when they operate in an institutionalized organizational context, which provides a "safety net" against malevolent behaviors (in the form of demotion, firing etc.).

Furthermore, indirect support for the higher diagnostic value of competence perceptions (and predicted task-related performance) over warmth perceptions (and predicted interpersonal contextual team performance) in the context of swift judgments also comes from the literature on breaches of trust (Kim et al., 2006). Although it is harder to recover (trust repair) from an integrity-based trust violation, it is also largely difficult to assess benevolence- or integrity-based trust (conceptually closer to warmth than competence) unless there is a

unique opportunity for breach. Such an opportunity is unlikely to emerge in the context of team member selection. Normatively, most prospective members will be motivated to present themselves as nice and likable (Cuddy et al., 2011), and thus they will not provide the "breach" opportunity that allows for a more accurate assessment of benevolence- or integrity-based trust. This makes predictions about interpersonal contextual performance in the team harder to assess in the context of swift judgments, making them less likely to correspond with reality. We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4. *The relationship between the predicted and actual task-related performance of the prospecvtive team member is stronger than the relationship between the predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance of the prospective team member.*

3. Overview of studies

We conducted two studies that applied an empirical decision-making paradigm to collect actual task-related and interpersonal contextual performance data (objective and peer-rated) and compared them with team members' predictions about those performances. Participants provided their selection decisions by indicating whether they would like to have a prospective member join their team, which allowed us to test whether they relied on valid predictions (derived from competence and warmth perceptions) in making such decisions. Study 1 focused on testing team members' performance predictions and the accuracy of those predictions, with post hoc explorations of the moderating role of team task interdependence. In Study 2, we constructively replicated these findings and more directly examined the moderating role of team task interdependence through experimental manipulations. All studies[3] were pre-registered on AsPredicted.org (see Online Appendix A), and this project has a dedicated Open Science Framework (OSF) page containing all data and syntaxes of all studies: https://bit.ly/3pJXQ8C.

4. Study 1: Method

4.1. Sample

In Study 1, we tested team members' performance predictions based on warmth- and competence perceptions and the accuracy of those predictions (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 4) and provided post hoc analyses of the role of team task interdependence (Hypotheses 3a and 3b).

As managers have the most power to decide who would join their teams, we recruited working managers from a diverse sample of organizations in the United States who regularly make such decisions (AsPredicted #40595). A market research company (ROI Rocket) assisted with the recruitment (cf. Carton & Cummings, 2012; Derfler-Rozin et al., 2018). We paid ROI Rocket $11 for each manager who completed our survey. We recruited 162 managers who managed more than 3 employees and whose work required making hiring decisions on a regular basis. Per our Pre-registration, those who (a) made hiring decisions less frequently than once in 6 months, (b) failed at least one attention check, and/or (c) did not watch the videos in full were excluded. A final sample resulted in 149 managers (60 % male; $M_{age} = 47.62$, $SD_{age} = 11.48$; 78 % White, 6 % African-American, 6 % Hispanic or Latino, 5 % Asian, 2 % Native American or Native Alaskan, and 2 % identified as "others"; 81 % held a Bachelor's degree or higher; 83 % had at least 10 years of working experience; 85 % made hiring decisions at

---

[3] Four pilot studies were conducted during the revision process prior to conducting Studies 1 and 2. Details of all 6 studies, including their pre-registration, are provided on OSF, where we also provide all our data and syntaxes. In Study 1, we have also obtained additional measures that are not reported in the paper but are fully disclosed in Online Appendix F, Footnote 2. We also report additional exploratory analyses in Online Appendix E.

least once in 3 months).

4.2. Procedure

We asked participants to engage in a hiring simulation. The participants watched videos of two potential job candidates and evaluated each one. The set-up emphasized that the candidates were not competing with each other and should be evaluated independently. Each participant watched two videos randomly drawn from a pool of 51 videos. To make the study more engaging, each video was presented with the candidate's actual desired position (e.g., Human Resource Manager, Marketing Manager) and a brief task description for the position.

To control for any order effect, participants were presented with both videos together on the same survey page and instructed to watch them first. This exposed the participants to the stimuli that could convey job candidates' warmth and competence in verbal and non-verbal manners (e.g., Swencionis & Fiske, 2016). The following two pages of the survey presented each video (in counterbalanced order) and survey questions. On each page, participants were asked to rate their perceptions of the candidate's competence and warmth (in counterbalanced order) and predict the candidate's task-related and interpersonal contextual performance (in counterbalanced order). They then indicated whether they would select the candidate and rated the candidate. Participants also provided detailed, written feedback about the videos.

4.3. Study Stimuli

As our study stimuli, we utilized self-recorded videos of full-time MBA students at a large European university. As part of their career coaching, the students had self-recorded short videos in which they answered interview questions about themselves. Among 148 of the students that belonged to the same cohort, 54 gave informed consent to the use of their videos. In return, they received feedback on their answers from our study participants, who were experienced managers. After excluding three students who either did not record these videos or whose videos had poor quality (i.e., only audio and no video available), we had a final pool of 51 videos (63 % male, $M_{age} = 30.27$, $SD_{age} = 3.31$). In the videos, students were asked to describe their proudest prior accomplishments at work. We decided to use this question as it is one of the most common interview questions (e.g., Haden, 2016), and thus presenting this question in the videos was likely to increase realism for participants. All of the videos were recorded in English, and all of the students had sufficient English fluency. The majority of the videos lasted between 2 and 2.5 min ($M = 133$ s, $SD = 26$ s). Importantly, another key reason why we decided to use these students' videos as our study stimuli was that we had access to peer-rated indicators of students' task-related and interpersonal contextual performance, as described below.

4.4. Measures: Archival data of actual performance in the team

Unless noted, we used 5-point scales (1 = "*Not at all*" to 5 = "*To a very great extent*").

Task-related performance in the team. Since students worked in teams for various course assignments and projects throughout the MBA program, we had student round-robin survey data wherein each student was rated by their team members on a number of qualities and behaviors. Research has suggested that one's behaviors and performance in teams can be accurately assessed from the eyes of one's coworkers or team members (e.g., Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Hence, as an indicator of task-related performance in the team, we used students' averaged round-robin peer-rated scores on an item adapted from Marks et al.'s (2001) team process model measuring team task performance ("[Name] organized our team activities and defined how tasks need to be accomplished by the team"; ICC(1) = 0.39, ICC(2) = 0.74, $r_{wg} = 0.51$, $F = 3.81$, $p < .001$). According to the team process

model (Marks et al., 2001), orchestrating team task actions and defining team resources and conditions for mission accomplishment are essential activities in a team action phase, in which members engage in tasks that directly contribute to the team's goal accomplishment. Hence, we posit that a peer-rated score on this item is a good indicator of task-related performance in the team context.

Interpersonal contextual performance in the team. Similar round-robin peer ratings were used to measure each student's actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team. We used students' averaged round-robin peer-rated scores on an item adapted from the helping dimension from the organizational citizenship behavior scale of Moorman and Blakely (1995) ("[Name] showed genuine care and concern for other team members"; ICC(1) = 0.15, ICC(2) = 0.43, $r_{wg} = 0.62$, $F = 1.77$, $p < .001$).[4] This dimension focuses on behaviors that would contribute to building good interpersonal relationships and has been used in studies to capture such behaviors in teams (e.g., Ellington et al., 2014; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). We thus posit that a peer-rated score on this item is a good indicator of interpersonal contextual performance.

4.5. Measures: Managers' person Perceptions, Predictions, and selection decisions

Competence and warmth perceptions. Participants were asked to rate their perceptions of each candidate they watched in the videos in terms of competence ("competent", "capable", "skillful"; α = 0.95) and warmth ("warm", "good-natured", "friendly"; α = 0.92; 1 = "*Strongly disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly agree*") (e.g., Fiske et al., 2002).

Predicted task-related performance in the team. Participants rated candidates' task-related performance in their future team, using the same item adapted from Marks et al. (2001) from the archival round-robin survey data ("This person will organize team activities and define how tasks need to be accomplished by the team").

Predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team. Participants rated candidates' interpersonal contextual performance in their future team in the job, using the same one-item measure adapted from Moorman & Blakely (1995) from the archival round-robin survey data ("This person will show genuine care and concern for other team members").

Selection decisions. We used two measures of selection decisions. First, participants were again presented with the candidate's desired position and the corresponding task description and asked if they would hire the candidate (0 = "*no*"; 1 = "*yes*"). Second, they ranked the candidate on a scale ranging from 0 (lowest) to 100 (highest). The score

---

[4] The F statistics for all aggregated measures in Studies 1 and 2 were significant, suggesting aggregation is meaningful. In both studies, the ICC(2) values for task-related performance showed good convergence (above 0.70) while the ICC(2) values for interpersonal contextual performance were below the suggested cut-off of 0.60 (Glick, 1985). But they were largely in typical values obtained (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Published papers that used similar ICC(2) values are: Dong et al. (2015); Guenter et al. (2017); Liao & Chuang (2007); Lorinkova & Perry (2019); Mayer et al. (2009); Sherf et al. (2018). Research also notes that low ICC(2) value alone should not prevent aggregation if it is theoretically justified and supported by other indices (Chen & Bliese, 2002; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992). The lower ICC(2) values for interpersonal contextual performance may stem in part from the small number of raters in both Study 1 (between 2 and 5 raters) and Study 2 (2 or 3 raters) (see Bliese, 1998; Liao et al., 2009). We modeled how ICC(2) values would change if we had 10 raters by using the Spearman-Brown formula (Bliese, 2000). Results showed that the ICC(2) values for interpersonal contextual performance would have been between 0.64 and 0.75 for Studies 1 and 2, respectively. We also think that lower ICC(2) values for interpersonal contextual (but not for task-related) performance reflect our phenomenon to some extent: It is generally harder for people to make warmth-related evaluations, resulting in more variance and less agreement in such evaluations.

constituted a continuous ranking of the candidates in terms of quality as potential hires.

Control variables. We controlled for: (a) the manager's gender, as male and female interviewers tend to evaluate job candidates differently (Parsons & Liden, 1984; Raza & Carpenter, 1987); (b) the candidate's gender, as male and female candidates tend to behave differently in interviews (Huffcutt et al., 2011); (c) the manager's age and (d) the candidate's age, as the age of both interviewers and interviewees can have stereotyping effects in hiring situations (e.g., Avolio & Barrett, 1987; Morgeson et al., 2008); (e) hiring frequency (i.e., how frequently the manager claimed to be involved in making hiring decisions on average), as those who have more experience may be more accurate in predicting job candidates' performance; and (d) the number of managers who evaluated a given video. Our results were largely unaffected by the control variables, and thus we present our results without controls (Spector & Brannick, 2011). The results using the control variables are available in Online Appendix B.

4.6. Analytical strategy

OLS regression was used to analyze the predicted and actual task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the team, as well as the ranking. Logistic regression was used to analyze the binary selection decision. Since each participant rated two candidate videos and each candidate video was rated by multiple participants, we clustered standard errors by participant (i.e., rater), as well as by candidate (i.e., ratee). To do so, we used a multi-way clustering algorithm developed by Cameron et al. (2011), which provides robust standard errors. We standardized all explanatory variables to facilitate the comparison of coefficients, and we used Wald tests to compare coefficients of predictors from the same models.

5. Study 1: Results

Table 1 displays descriptive statistics and correlations of the focal variables.

Hypothesis 1 test.. As seen in Table 2 (Model 1), perceptions of competence were positively and significantly related to predicted task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.49$, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$). Perceptions of warmth were also positively related to predicted task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.26$, $SE = 0.04$, $p < .001$). The coefficient for competence was significantly larger than the coefficient for warmth ($\chi^2 = 8.01$, $p = .007$). There was no significant interaction between warmth and competence perceptions on predicted task-related performance in the team ($b = -0.02$, $SE = 0.03$, $p = .397$).

As seen in Table 2 (Model 2), perceptions of competence were positively and significantly related to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = 0.24$, $SE = 0.04$, $p < .001$). Perceptions of warmth were also positively and significantly related to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = 0.53$, $SE = 0.04$, $p < .001$). The coefficient for warmth was significantly larger than that for competence ($\chi^2 = 20.56$, $p < .001$). There was a significant interaction between warmth and competence perceptions on predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = -0.06$, $SE = 0.03$, $p = .041$). The simple slopes suggested that when perceptions of competence were lower, the relationship between perceptions of warmth and predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team was stronger ($b = 0.57$, $SE = 0.04$, $p < .001$) compared to when perceptions of competence were higher ($b = 0.46$, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$). These results suggest that when perceived competence was relatively lower, there was higher specificity in terms of warmth mapping onto predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team, though this effect was not hypothesized. Overall, we find support for Hypothesis 1, such that perceptions of competence are more strongly related to predictions about task-related performance in the team than perceptions of warmth,

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 1)[a]

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Rater gender[b]	0.60	0.49													
2. Ratee gender[b]	0.63	0.48	-0.02												
3. Rater age	47.66	11.46	0.13*	-0.08											
4. Ratee age	30.40	3.41	0.01	0.17**	-0.01										
5. Rater hiring frequency	4.01	1.45	-0.17**	-0.00	-0.05	0.03									
6. Number of raters	6.40	1.80	0.02	0.06	-0.05	0.22**	-0.01								
7. Competence perceptions	3.90	1.00	-0.12*	-0.05	-0.03	0.01	-0.01	0.00							
8. Warmth perceptions	3.78	0.97	-0.02	0.01	-0.06	-0.01	-0.01	0.08	0.60**						
9. Predicted task-related performance	3.58	0.89	-0.08	0.00	0.03	0.00	-0.01	0.08	0.72**	0.62**					
10. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance	3.63	0.89	0.01	-0.06	0.00	0.05	-0.04	0.10	0.62**	0.75**	0.73**				
11. Actual task-related performance	3.63	0.73	-0.03	0.17**	-0.02	-0.04	0.05	0.14*	0.16**	0.14*	0.15*	0.09			
12. Actual interpersonal contextual performance	3.86	0.51	-0.01	0.07	0.04	-0.16**	0.05	-0.01	0.03	0.06	0.05	0.05	0.51**		
13. Selection decision[c]	0.61	0.49	-0.09	-0.01	-0.08	-0.03	0.02	0.07	0.65**	0.50**	0.65**	0.56**	0.19**	0.07	
14. Ranking	66.64	22.80	-0.05	-0.04	0.00	0.05	-0.02	0.07	0.79**	0.62**	0.78**	0.71**	0.19**	0.09	0.75**

Note. $N_{Observations} = 297$; $N_{Raters} = 149$. [a] Correlations are raw correlations not taking into account the clustering; [b] Dummy coded: 0 = female, 1 = male; [c] Dummy coded: 0 = no, 1 = yes. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 2
Hypothesis 1 Test: Regression Analysis Results (Study 1)[a.]

	Predicted task-related performance Model 1		Predicted interpersonal contextual performance Model 2	
Variables	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	3.58***	(0.03)	3.63***	(0.04)
Competence perceptions	0.49***	(0.05)	0.24***	(0.04)
Warmth perceptions	0.26***	(0.04)	0.53***	(0.04)
R^2	0.57		0.61	

Note. $N_{Observations} = 297$; $N_{Raters} = 149$. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

whereas perceptions of warmth are more strongly related to predictions about interpersonal contextual performance in the team than perceptions of competence.

Hypothesis 2 test. Next, we examined the effect of predictions about task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the team on selection decision and ranking. As seen in Table 3 (Models 3 and 4), predicted task-related performance was positively associated with selection decision ($b = 1.85$, $SE = 0.26$, $p < .001$) and ranking ($b = 12.56$, $SE = 1.64$, $p < .001$). Predicted interpersonal contextual performance was also positively associated with selection ($b = 0.71$, $SE = 0.28$, $p = .011$) and ranking ($b = 7.06$, $SE = 1.78$, $p < .001$). The coefficient for predicted task-related performance was significantly larger than that for predicted interpersonal contextual performance for selection decision ($\chi^2 = 7.26$, $p = .007$), but for ranking the difference was not significant ($\chi^2 = 2.71$, $p = .106$), providing partial support for Hypothesis 2.

Mediation analyses. We also conducted a mediation analysis to examine the indirect effect of warmth and competence perceptions on both selection decision and ranking through predicted task-related performance in the team using a bootstrap method with 5000 bias-corrected samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The indirect effect of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance was significant ($b = 1.24$, $SE = 0.19$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.83, 1.61]). The indirect effect of warmth perceptions on the selection decision through predicted task-related performance was also significant ($b = 0.64$, $SE = 0.15$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.38, 0.98]), but there was a significant difference between the indirect effects ($b = -0.59$, $SE = 0.25$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-1.09, −0.08]), suggesting that the indirect effect of competence perceptions was stronger. Repeating this analysis by looking at ranking yielded identical results: a significant indirect effect of competence perceptions ($b = 9.78$, $SE = 1.13$, $CI_{95\%}$: [7.66, 11.95]) and of warmth perceptions ($b = 5.09$, $SE = 1.04$, $CI_{95\%}$: [3.03, 7.10]), and a significant difference between the indirect effects ($b = -4.70$, $SE = 1.96$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-8.61, −1.01]), suggesting that competence perceptions influenced ranking through predicted task-related performance more strongly than warmth perceptions through predicted task-related performance.

We then examined the indirect effect of warmth and competence perceptions on both selection decision and ranking through predicted

interpersonal contextual performance. The indirect effect of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance was significant ($b = 0.92$, $SE = 0.12$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.70, 1.17]). The indirect effect of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance was also significant ($b = 0.41$, $SE = 0.11$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.22, 0.65]), but there was a significant difference between the indirect effects ($b = 0.51$, $SE = 0.13$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.22, 0.74]), suggesting that the indirect effect of warmth perceptions was stronger. Repeating the analysis with ranking again yielded identical results: a significant indirect effect of warmth perceptions ($b = 9.67$, $SE = 0.87$, $CI_{95\%}$: [7.85, 11.23]) and of competence perceptions ($b = 4.32$, $SE = 0.90$, $CI_{95\%}$: [2.69, 6.28]), and a significant difference between the indirect effects ($b = 5.35$, $SE = 1.38$, $CI_{95\%}$: [2.14, 7.63]), suggesting warmth perceptions influenced ranking through predicted interpersonal contextual performance more strongly than competence perceptions through predicted interpersonal contextual performance.

We also modeled the difference between two paths: (a) competence perceptions → predicted task-related performance → selection decision and (b) warmth perceptions → predicted interpersonal contextual performance → selection decision. Although both paths were significant (warmth: $b = 0.42$, $SE = 0.15$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.14, 0.73]; competence: $b = 1.03$, $SE = 0.20$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.67, 1.45]), the difference between the paths was also significant, showing that the effect of the competence path was stronger ($b = 0.61$, $SE = 0.28$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.05, 1.14]). Repeating this analysis with ranking, both paths were again significant (warmth: $b = 4.19$, $SE = 0.88$, $CI_{95\%}$: [2.43, 5.96]; competence: $b = 6.93$, $SE = 1.08$, $CI_{95\%}$: [5.04, 9.21]), but the difference between the paths was not significant ($b = 2.73$, $SE = 1.76$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.74, 6.28]).

Hypothesis 4 test. Finally, the accuracy of performance predictions was examined. For this analysis, our clustering method also included the Team ID of the candidates as belonging to a specific team during their MBA might have affected their actual performance. As seen in Table 4 (Models 5 and 6), predicted task-related performance was significantly related to actual task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.11$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .047$); whereas, predicted interpersonal contextual performance was not related to actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = 0.03$, $SE = 0.03$, $p = .278$). Hence, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Exploratory analysis. Our intention behind giving the information about the candidates' desired jobs (e.g., Marketing Manager) was to enhance realism. However, we utilized this information to provide a post hoc exploration of the moderating role of team task interdependence (Hypotheses 3a and 3b). Two research assistants (RAs) independently coded the jobs on the extent to which it requires team task interdependence. We found a significant interaction between coded team task interdependence and predicted task-related performance on selection decision ($b = 0.31$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = 0.003$). Under both low ($b = 0.21$, $SE = 0.03$, $p < .001$) and high team task interdependence ($b = 0.25$, $SE = 0.02$, $p < .001$), predicted task-related performance was positively

Table 3
Hypothesis 2 Test: Regression Analysis Results (Study 1)[a.]

	Selection decision[b] Model 3[c]		Ranking Model 4	
Variables	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	0.70***	(0.18)	66.64***	(1.00)
Predicted task-related performance	1.85***	(0.26)	12.56***	(1.64)
Predicted interpersonal contextual performance	0.71*	(0.28)	7.06***	(1.78)
R^2	.43[d]		0.63	

Note. $N_{Observations} = 297$; $N_{Raters} = 149$. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses; [b] Dummy coded: 0 = no, 1 = yes; [c] Binary Logistic Regression; [d] Estimate of Cox and Snell R-square. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 4
Hypothesis 4 Test: Regression Analysis Results (Study 1)[a.]

	Actual task-related performance Model 5		Actual interpersonal contextual performance Model 6	
Variables	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	3.63***	(0.10)	3.86***	(0.07)
Predicted task-related performance	0.11*	(0.04)		
Predicted interpersonal contextual performance			0.03	(0.03)
R^2	0.02		0.00	

Note. $N_{Observations} = 297$; $N_{Raters} = 149$. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses.. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

related to selection decision, but this effect was stronger for jobs higher on team task interdependence. Contrary to our prediction, the interaction between coded team task interdependence and predicted interpersonal contextual performance on selection decision was not significant ($b = 0.01$, $SE = 0.17$, ns). We discuss a potential reason below.

6. Study 1: Discussion

Study 1 showed that competence perceptions generally mapped onto predicted task-related performance in the team and warmth perceptions onto predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team. The results also suggested that, although people relied on both task-related and interpersonal contextual performance predictions when selecting a candidate, their reliance on predicted interpersonal contextual performance was erroneous due to their poor predictive accuracy. Our exploratory post hoc analysis found that the importance of predicted task-related performance in selection decision was elevated when the desired job was coded as higher on team task interdependence, but, contrary to our expectations, this was not the case for predicted interpersonal contextual performance. One potential explanation could be that the job titles and brief descriptions provided gave the participants only vague information about team task interdependence. Because of that, the concept of task interdependence may not have been sufficiently salient in participants' minds to elevate the weight of interpersonal contextual performance. Study 2 was therefore designed to provide a cleaner test of Hypotheses 3a and 3b by directly manipulating team task interdependence in an experiment.

In Study 2, we additionally explore whether team task interdependence moderates the relationship between predicted and actual task-related performance and/or the relationship between predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance. Though Hypothesis 4 generally posits a lack of accuracy in predicting interpersonal contextual performance and better accuracy in predicting task-related performance, team task interdependence might affect such accuracy. For example, given the elevated importance of interpersonal contextual performance in a highly task-interdependent team, team members might be more accurate in predicting that performance. It is also possible that task-related performance prediction may become more accurate under high team task interdependence, as team members may feel more dependent upon each other's performance capabilities. Conversely, under low team task interdependence, the context might reduce team members' automatic vigilance to performance cues based on swift judgments. To explicate these possibilities, we pre-registered that we would explore the potential influence of team task interdependence on team members' performance prediction accuracy.

7. Study 2: Method

Given that the main focus of our theory is on how team members perceive and select prospective members, in Study 2, we sought to situate our experiment in a general workplace team member selection context. We conducted two studies that constituted Study 2.

7.1. Overall Study design

First, we conducted a *Stimuli Creation Study* (AsPredicted #70428) using a panel of working adults. During this study, participants (a) recorded a short self-introduction video, (b) did a team task under a low team task interdependence context and then another task under a high team task interdependence context (*within-subjects* manipulation of team task interdependence), and (c) rated each other's behavior during the study.

Next, we conducted a *Rating Study* (AsPredicted #74609), using another panel of working adults. Participants (i.e., raters) (a) imagined working in a team with high versus low team task interdependence (*between-subjects* manipulation of team task interdependence), (b)

watched the self-introductory videos recorded in the Stimuli Creation Study imagining the individuals in the videos as prospective team members and rated their warmth and competence, (c) predicted their task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the team, and (d) decided if they would select the prospective member to join the team.

The purpose of using such paired design was twofold. Via the Stimuli Creation Study, wherein participants worked on tasks and rated each other's behaviors, we were able to obtain performance scores and behavioral indicators of task-related and interpersonal contextual performance. These performance scores and behavioral indicators built solid foundations for the Rating Study, through which we could examine team members' performance predictions about prospective members and the accuracy of these predictions in a more rigorous manner.

As noted above, the Stimuli Creation Study had a within-subjects design, such that the participants completed tasks in both high and low interdependence contexts. This enabled measuring their actual performance in both contexts. The Rating Study had a between-subjects design, such that the raters were randomly assigned to either a high or low task interdependence condition. Such a design was important for testing Hypothesis 4 about prediction accuracy so that the predictions are compared with actual performance in matched interdependence contexts. That is, the performance score provided by the rater in a high (low) interdependence context was compared to the actual performance score of the ratee obtained in a high (low) interdependence context. Fig. 1 visually depicts the overall design and procedures of Study 2.

7.2. Stimuli Creation Study: Sample

Working adults were recruited via Prolific Academic (Palan & Schitter, 2018). We recruited those who (a) were based in the U.K., (b) were between the age of 30 and 40, (c) had current and/or prior work experience, (d) were willing to participate in a team study over the video conferencing platform Zoom, (e) agreed to be recorded during the study, and (f) agreed that their recorded videos would be used as experimental materials for another study. Each participant signed up for an online team study at a specific time and date. Each study slot allowed a maximum of 4 participants, such that each team consisted of 3 or 4 members. Next, the Zoom link for the online team study was sent out to those participants who signed up so that they could participate in the team study at the time and date that they signed up for. As per our pre-registration, we had 60 participants who signed up for the study, but 8 did not show up and 4 did not complete the study. Thus our final sample resulted in 48 participants (50 % female; $M_{age} = 34.63$, $SD_{age} = 3.05$; 81 % White, 10 % African-American, 6 % Asian, and 2 % identified as "others"; 77 % held a Bachelor's degree or higher; 93 % had more than 5 years of work experience; 85 % had more than 5 years of experience working in team contexts). Each was paid £20 for completing the study. In total, we had 14 teams (8 teams with 3 members each and 6 teams with 4 members each).

7.3. Stimuli creation study: Procedures and measures[5]

The study procedure is depicted in Fig. 1. When participants joined the Zoom link for the study, the experimenter first let them know that they would be working as a team during the study and had them briefly introduce themselves to each other by sharing their nicknames, where they were from, and their favorite food. Next, the experimenter put participants in individual breakout rooms, wherein each participant recorded a short video talking about their proudest accomplishment in their past or current work, similar to the MBA student videos used in

---

[5] There were 3 measures that we pre-registered and captured in our Stimuli Creation Study which were not used in the Rating Study. See Footnote 4 in Online Appendix F (https://bit.ly/3pJXQ8C).
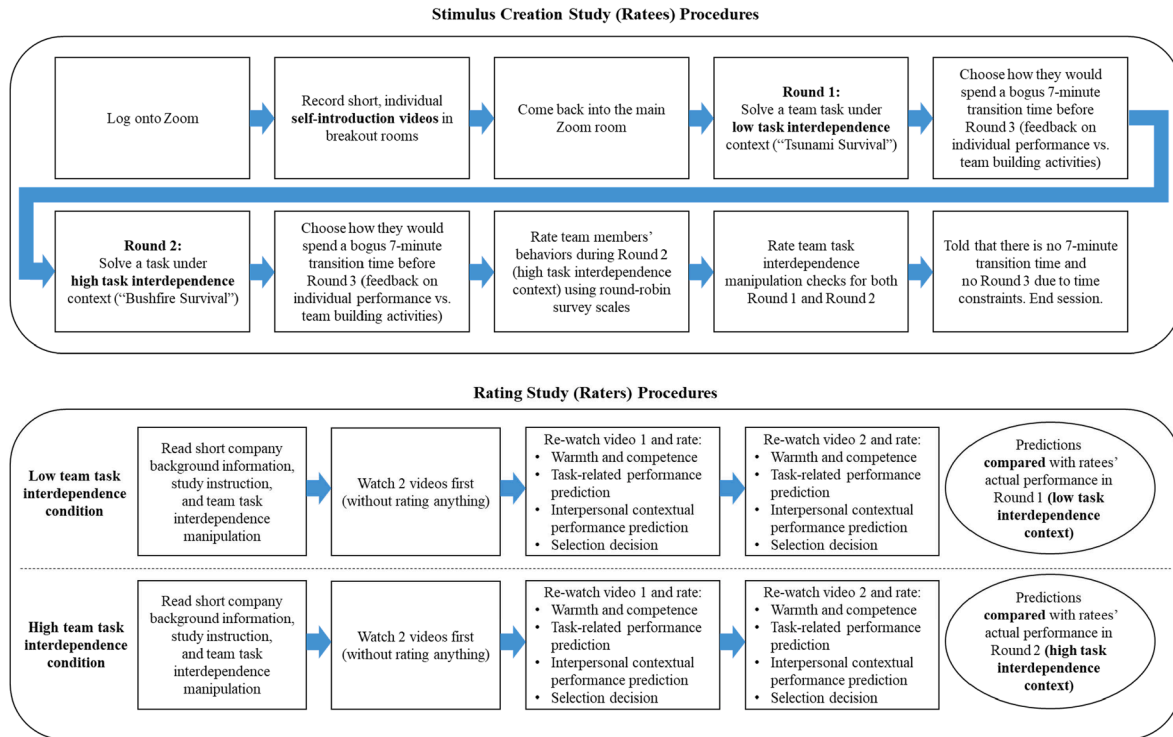
Fig. 1. Overall Study Design (Study 2).

Study 1. All of the videos were in English, and all participants had either native or sufficient English fluency, such that the videos were easily understandable by native English speakers. The majority of the videos had running times between 1 and 2 min ($M = 101$ s, $SD = 35$ s). After participants finished recording videos in breakout rooms, they gathered back in the main Zoom room to proceed to the next part of the study.

As aforementioned, to manipulate team task interdependence in a Stimuli Creation Study, we adopted *a within-subjects design*, such that the participants first completed a task in a low team task interdependence condition, and then they did a task in a high team task interdependence condition. We used different markers of task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in high versus low team task interdependence conditions. Below we introduce these markers, as well as the rationale for using them (see Table 5 for a summary of all measures).

Low task interdependence context. Participants were first put in a situation where they had to complete a task in a team environment that was *low* on team task interdependence. Participants were given a structured problem-solving task called the "Tsunami Survival Simulation" (Tsunami survival simulation, 2017). In this task, participants were given a hypothetical simulation scenario of a tsunami disaster and asked to rank eight items in order of importance for survival in the situation. This task was particularly apt for our purpose in that it not only allowed us to capture participants' objective task performance easily but also reflected a variety of skills considered important in organizations, such as problem-solving, critical thinking, analysis, and application of knowledge (Tsunami survival simulation, 2017). Similar survival tasks have frequently been used in prior research on task-related performance, especially in team settings (e.g., Bottger & Yetton, 1988; Littlepage et al., 1997; Tarakci et al., 2016).

Participants were explicitly told that each team member should complete the task independently without communicating, sharing information, or discussing the task, as each had all the information required. Each was provided with the same piece of expert clue for solving the task (created based on the expert solution provided by Tsunami survival simulation, 2017), and participants were informed of that. They were also told that their individual performance would be

Table 5
Summary of Different Performance Measures (Study 2).

	Low Team Task Interdependence Condition	High Team Task Interdependence Condition
Task-related Performance	**Ratee:** Individual performance score in the survival task	**Ratee:** Round-robin peer-rated score of task-related behavior (3 items)
	Rater: Ratee's performance in the survival task (in percentile)	**Rater:** Ratee's received score on task-related behavior (3 items)
Interpersonal Contextual Performance	**Ratee:** Choice of how much of the bogus 7-minute transition time to spend on team building activities (vs individual performance feedback)	**Ratee:** (1) Round-robin peer-rated score of interpersonal contextual behavior (3 items) (2) Choice of how much of the bogus 7-minute transition time to spend on team building activities (vs individual performance feedback)
	Rater: How much of the 7-minute transition time the ratee chose to spend on team building activities (vs individual performance feedback)	**Rater:** (1) Ratee's received score on interpersonal contextual behavior (3 items) (2) How much of the 7-minute transition time the ratee chose to spend on team-building activities (vs individual performance feedback)

evaluated based on how close their answer was to the expert solution and that their team's performance would be the sum of its members' individual performance scores. Participants had 8 min to work on the task. To create some tension between individual and team incentives and to make sure that the team context was meaningful despite the low

task interdependence, participants were told that the 10 best-performing individuals each would be awarded a £5 prize and the 5 best-performing teams would each get £20 distributed equally among the team members.

Task-related performance in the team (low task interdependence context). Each participant's task-related performance in the low team task interdependence condition was measured using their score on the "Tsunami Survival Simulation" task, which was calculated based on how close their answer was to the expert solution (Tsunami survival simulation, 2017).

Interpersonal contextual performance in the team (low task interdependence context). After completing the "Tsunami Survival Simulation" task, participants were individually told that later on, they would be given a 7-minute transition time before moving on to the final study round. In reality, there was no final round (at the end of the study, participants were eventually told that the final round would not be conducted due to time constraints). They could spend the 7-minute transition time (a) getting feedback on their performance that would be helpful for their individual performance and (b) engaging in team-building activities that would be helpful for their team spirit in the final round of task. Each was asked how they would split the 7-minute time between the two activities in the unit of minutes (*0 min to 7 min*). The amount of time that participants chose to allocate to team-building was used to measure their interpersonal contextual performance in the low task interdependence condition.

High team task interdependence context. Participants were then asked to work on another task in a team environment that was *high* on team task interdependence. Participants were given a similar survival task but with a different disaster scenario, called the "Bushfire Survival Simulation" (Bushfire survival simulation, 2018). A sudden bushfire disaster was described, and participants were asked to rank 12 items in order of importance for survival.

This time participants were told that they would need to submit their individual rankings and also a team ranking that all members were required to develop together. To ensure task interdependence and intensive interaction, each member was given a different piece of expert clue (created based on the expert solution provided by Bushfire survival simulation, 2018) via the private chat function on Zoom. Participants were told that each member held a different clue and that they could still solve the task without clues, but that sharing the clues and their interpretation would probably help every-one's individual performance as well as the team's performance. They were further told that although individual performance scores would be calculated based on how close their individual answers were to the expert solution, the team's performance would be calculated based on how close the team's answer was to the expert solution. Participants were told that their individual answers could be different from their team's answer. The team was given 15 min to work on this task. Participants were reminded of the prizes described earlier.

Task-related performance in the team (high task interdependence context). Since the team members closely interacted to come to a team decision, individual performance on the bushfire task was not used to measure task-related performance in the team (as it was in the low-interdependence task).[6] In a highly dependent context, members contribute "in ways that are difficult to disentangle" (Wageman & Baker, 1997, p. 141), and thus each member's individual performance is less salient and can be compensated by the performance of others (Thomas et al., 2019), making the use of such measure theoretically meaningless. Instead, after completing the "Bushfire Survival Simulation" task, participants were asked to think about their team's discussion and rate the extent to which each member displayed task-related behavior, using 3 items adapted from Fast et al. (2014), Marks et al. (2001), and Mayer & Davis (1999). Items were: "[Name] organized team discussions and

defined how tasks need to be accomplished" (consistent with Study 1); "[Name] was very capable of performing the task"; and "[Name]'s ideas and suggestions were valuable in accomplishing the task" (1 = "*Not at all*" to 7 = "*Very much*"; α = 0.87). We then aggregated peer-ratings on the 3 items for each member (ICC(1) = 0.50, ICC(2) = 0.71, $r_{wg(j)}$ = 0.66, F = 3.49, p <.001).

Interpersonal contextual performance in the team (high task interdependence context). We used two measures to capture this. First, after completing the "Bushfire Survival Simulation" task, each participant was asked to rate how much each of their members displayed interpersonal contextual behaviors, using 3 items adapted from Carmeli et al. (2010) and Moorman and Blakely (1995). Items were: "[Name] showed genuine care and concern for other team members" (consistent with Study 1); "[Name] went out of their way to try to help other team members"; and "[Name] listened carefully and was open to others' ideas, suggestions, or concerns" (1 = "*Not at all*" to 7 = "*Very much*"; α = 0.77). We then aggregated peer-ratings on the 3 items for each member (ICC(1) = 0.23, ICC(2) = 0.42, $r_{wg(j)}$ = 0.57, F = 1.73, p =.018). Participants were told that their ratings on task-related and interpersonal contextual behaviors would not be shared with other members.

Second, after completing the "Bushfire Survival Simulation" task, participants were again individually told that they would be given an additional 7-minute transition time before the final round of study. Again, in reality, there was no final round. They were asked to indicate how they would split this time between getting feedback to improve their individual performance and engaging in team building activities. The amount of time participants allocated to spend in team-building activities was used as a second measure of their interpersonal contextual performance in the team in the high task interdependence condition (*0 min to 7 min*).

Team task interdependence manipulation check. The effectiveness of the team task interdependence manipulation in the Stimuli Creation Study was assessed by asking participants to rate the task interdependence in the Tsunami (low interdependence context) and Bushfire (high interdependence context) survival tasks. Four items adapted from Pearce and Gregersen's (1991) task interdependence scale were used: "I worked closely with others in doing the task"; "The task encouraged me to consult with others frequently"; "In order to do the task well, I had to spend some time talking to other people"; and "I worked fairly independently of others during the task" (reverse-coded) (1 = "*Strongly disagree*" to 7 = "*Strongly agree*"; $\alpha_{Low\ task\ interdependence}$ = 0.82 and $\alpha_{High\ task\ interdependence}$ = 0.68). Supporting the efficacy of our manipulation, participants rated higher the level of interdependence for the Bushfire survival task (M = 5.86, SD = 0.91) than for the Tsunami survival task (M = 1.90, SD = 1.19), $F(1, 46)$ = 215.10, p <.001, η^2 = 0.82.

7.4. Rating Study: Sample

The videos, performance data, and round-robin survey data from the Stimuli Creation Study were used as materials for the Rating Study. One video was excluded as it was too long (over 6 min) and contained irrelevant information. We used a combination of scenario and video stimuli that provided the "participants with adequate contextual background" (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014, p. 361) so that participants could realistically place themselves in the given situation. We recruited working adults via Prolific who (a) were based in the U.K., (b) were able to watch and listen to videos, (c) had current and/or prior work experience, and (d) had experience working with others. There were 501

---

[6] We note that this is a deviation from our pre-registration given our realization once data were collected.

participants[7] (74 % female; $M_{age} = 31.39$, $SD_{age} = 10.09$; 86 % White, 8 % Asian, 3 % African-American, 1 % Hispanic or Latino, and 3 % identified as "other"; 55 % held a Bachelor's degree or higher; 70 % had more than 5 years of work experience). As no participant missed an attention check, submitted duplicate answers, or completed the study too fast, none were excluded as per our pre-registration.

7.5. Rating Study: Procedure

Fig. 1 depicts the study procedure. Participants were asked to take on the role of an employee working in a team with four other people at a company called Globex Inc. They were instructed to watch videos of two prospective team members talking about their proudest accomplishments in their past work experience. They were told that they would re-watch each video, give their first impression about each member, make predictions about the member on various qualities, and then evaluate whether they would like each member to join their team. It was emphasized that the two candidates were not competing, that they should evaluate each of them independently, and that they could choose to have either, both, or neither join their team.

Team task interdependence manipulation. Given that the main focus of our theory is on how team members perceive and select prospective members, participants imagined working in a team and were given a short description of their team that served to manipulate the team's task interdependence. As they were part of the team, high (vs low) team task interdependence manipulation implied that they (similar to other putative members in their team) also had high (vs low) task interdependence with the prospective team member. As noted above, we adopted a *between-subjects* design, such that participants were randomly assigned to either a low or high team task interdependence condition. The wording of this manipulation closely matched that used in the Stimuli Creation Study. Participants in the low condition ($N = 255$) read:

> In your team, all team members work on their own tasks independently of each other. The tasks do not require you and your team members to communicate or interact with each other at all or come to decisions as a team. You do not need to share information or discuss the tasks with each other either. Every day, when you come to work, you just focus on your own work and can get it done without having to talk, ask, or interact with anyone within your team. Your team performance is the sum of performances by individual members.

Participants in the high team task interdependence condition ($N = 246$) read:

> In your team, all team members work on the tasks highly depending on each other. The tasks require you and your team members to actively communicate or interact with each other and come to decisions as a team. You need to frequently share information and discuss the tasks with each other very often. Every day, when you come to work, you have to talk, ask, and interact with other members of your team to get the tasks done. Your team performance is based on how you work together as a team.

For manipulation check, we used the same 4 items used in the Stimuli Creation Study ($\alpha = 0.98$). Supporting the efficacy of our manipulation, participants in the high team task interdependence condition rated the level of task interdependence higher ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 0.46$) than those in the low team task interdependence condition ($M = 1.44$, $SD = 0.91$), F $(1, 500) = 2518.43$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.84$).

7.6. Rating Study: Measures

To help the participants make meaningful performance predictions, they were given some background information about the Stimuli Creation Study and survival tasks. As in the Stimuli Creation Study, different markers of task-related and interpersonal contextual performance were used for high and low task interdependence conditions (see Table 5 for a summary of measures).

Competence and warmth perceptions. The same 3-item measures of competence ($\alpha = 0.86$) and warmth ($\alpha = 0.87$) perceptions were used as in Study 1.

Predicted task-related performance in the team (low task interdependence condition). Participants predicted how well the prospective member performed in the survival task. They were asked to indicate their prediction in terms of a percentile, where a higher percentile meant better performance (*0* to *100th*).

Predicted task-related performance in the team (high task interdependence condition). Participants predicted how much the prospective member displayed task-related behaviors (1 = "*Not at all*" to 7 = "*Very much*"; $\alpha = 0.82$) using the same 3-item measure of task-related performance as in the Stimuli Creation Study for the high task interdependence condition.

Predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team (low task interdependence condition). Participants predicted how much of the 7-minute transition time the prospective member chose to spend on team-building activities (vs getting feedback for individual performance), consistent with the measure used in the Stimuli Creation Study for the low interdependence context.

Predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team (high task interdependence condition). We used two measures to capture this. First, participants predicted the extent to which the prospective member displayed interpersonal contextual behaviors (1 = "*Not at all*" to 7 = "*Very much*"; $\alpha = 0.91$) using the same 3-item measure of interpersonal contextual performance as in the Stimuli Creation Study for the high team task interdependence condition. Second, we used the same measure as the one in the low interdependence condition: participants predicted how much of the 7-minute transition time the prospective member chose to spend on team-building activities (vs getting feedback for individual performance).

Selection decision. Participants chose whether or not to select the prospective member to join their team (0 = "*no*"; 1 = "*yes*"), and they ranked the member on a scale ranging from 0 to 100. Zero indicated that the prospective member was not fitting at all for their team, whereas 100 indicated that the prospective member would be an ideal team member to work with.[8]

Control variables. Similar to Study 1, we controlled for: (a) the gender of the rater, (b) the gender of the prospective member, (c) the age of the rater, (d) the age of the prospective member, (e) the number of raters that evaluated each of the videos, and (i) team size. Our results were largely unaffected by the control variables, so the results are reported without them (Spector & Brannick, 2011). Results with controls are presented in Online Appendix B.

---

[7] Best practices for collecting experimental data were applied in determining sample size. Although there were 2 conditions (high vs low task interdependence), our analysis included testing a three-way interaction between the type of performance prediction (task-related vs interpersonal contextual), performance prediction score, and task interdependence condition (high vs low). We used the rule of thumb of at least 50 participants per condition (Simmons et al., 2013). Accordingly, we pre-registered 500 participants (about 62 participant per condition).

[8] As pre-registered, participants also rated how much they would like to work with each candidate using 3 items adapted from Ohland et al. (2012) and Thomas et al. (2020): "I would like to work with this person as my team member", "I would like to get together with this person as my team member", "I would like this person to be on my team as a team member" (1 = "*Strongly disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly agree*"; $\alpha = 0.96$). The results using this measure were identical to those of the other selection measures (see Online Appendix D: https://bit.ly/3pJXQ8C).

7.7. Analytical strategy

Since each participant rated two videos and each video was rated by multiple participants, we used the same clustering method as in Study 1. All explanatory variables were standardized to facilitate the comparison of coefficients, and Wald tests were performed to compare the coefficients of the predictors from the same models. As aforementioned, we used different markers of performance across the interdependence conditions (see Table 5). All performance measures were standardized within each domain before creating the measures of task-related and interpersonal contextual performance to enable looking at them across conditions. We also repeated all analyses using one item as a marker for task-related performance ("organized team discussions and defined how tasks need to be accomplished") and one item as a marker for interpersonal contextual performance ("showed genuine care and concern for other team members") for the high interdependence condition, similar to operationalizations in Study 1. The results were identical (see Online Appendix D).

8. Study 2: Results

Table 6 displays descriptive statistics and correlations for the focal variables.

Hypothesis 1 test.. Predicted task-related performance in the team was regressed against both warmth and competence perceptions. As we had no a-prior hypothesis about the role of team task interdependence in Hypothesis 1, the interdependence condition was included only as a control (the results were unchanged without the control). As seen in Table 7 (Model 7), competence perceptions were positively and significantly related to predicted task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.46$, $SE = 0.04$, $p <.001$); warmth perceptions were also positively related to predicted task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.03$, $p <.001$). The coefficient for competence was significantly larger than that for warmth ($\chi^2 = 34.93$, $p <.001$). We note that there was no significant interaction between warmth and competence perceptions in predicting task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.04$, $SE = 0.04$, $p =.416$).

As shown in Table 7 (Model 8), warmth perceptions were positively and significantly related to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team when interpersonal contextual performance for the high interdependence condition was assessed through peer-rated behaviors ($b = 0.45$, $SE = 0.04$, $p <.001$). Perceptions of competence were not significantly related to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = -0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p =.476$). The coefficient for warmth was significantly larger than the coefficient for competence ($\chi^2 = 72.01$, $p <.001$). There was no significant interaction between warmth and competence perceptions ($b = 0.03$, $SE = 0.03$, $p =.319$).

Repeating the same analyses using predictions about the choice to engage in team-building activities as a marker of interpersonal contextual performance in the team in the high interdependence condition (Table 7, Model 9) revealed that perceptions of warmth were positively and significantly related to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = 0.40$, $SE = 0.04$, $p <.001$). Perceptions of competence were (marginally) negatively related to predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = -0.08$, $SE = 0.04$, $p =.090$). The coefficient for warmth was significantly larger than the coefficient for competence ($\chi^2 = 54.54$, $p <.001$). There was no significant interaction between warmth and competence perceptions ($b = -0.01$, $SE = 0.03$, $p =.949$). Overall, we find support for Hypothesis 1, such that perceptions of competence were more strongly associated with predicted task-related performance in the team than perceptions of warmth, whereas perceptions of warmth were more strongly associated with predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team than perceptions of competence.

Hypotheses 3a and 3b test.. Next, we tested the effects of task-related and interpersonal contextual performance predictions on team members' selection decision. As the hypothesis was that task interdependence would play a moderating role, to more robustly test this, we reshaped our data to a long format such that for each prospective member being rated, we created a column labeled "performance prediction" collating all the prediction scores (whether task-related or interpersonal contextual performance; all standardized within each domain), another column labeled "prediction type" specifying whether the prediction was of task-related performance in the team (coded as 1) or interpersonal contextual performance in the team (coded as 0), and a column specifying the level of task interdependence (low = 0; high = 1). Hypotheses 3a and 3b were tested by estimating logistic regressions predicting the selection decision (0 = no; 1 = yes) using performance prediction score, prediction type, and the task interdependence condition, all possible two-way interactions, and importantly the three-way interaction among these variables. The three-way interaction was significant ($b = -1.48$, $SE = 0.12$, $p <.001$; see Table 8, Model 12). The simple slopes (Fig. 2) indicated that in the low interdependence condition, predicted interpersonal contextual performance did not affect selection decision ($b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $p =.282$) whereas predicted task-related performance did ($b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.01$, $p <.001$). In the high interdependence condition, however, both predicted interpersonal contextual performance ($b = 0.19$, $SE = 0.01$, $p <.001$) and predicted task-related performance ($b = 0.18$, $SE = 0.02$, $p <.001$) positively affected selection decision. Thus, as hypothesized, the importance of interpersonal contextual performance prediction on selection decision was elevated when task interdependence was high. Repeating the analysis with the predictions about the choice of team building activities as a marker for interpersonal contextual performance in the high interdependence condition, we obtained similar results: the three-way interaction was significant ($b = -1.06$, $SE = 0.27$, $p <.001$; Table 9, Model 15). The simple slopes (Fig. 3) showed that in the low interdependence condition, predicted interpersonal contextual performance did not affect selection decision ($b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $p =.282$), whereas predicted task-related performance did ($b = 0.17$, $SE = 0.01$, $p <.001$). In the high interdependence condition, both predicted interpersonal contextual performance ($b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.02$, $p <.001$) and predicted task-related performance ($b = 0.18$, $SE = 0.02$, $p <.001$) positively affected selection decision.

Finally, the results were similar when predicting the prospective member's ranking (Table 10, Model 18), as the three-way interaction was significant ($b = -11.47$, $SE = 1.51$, $p <.001$). The simple slopes (Fig. 4) showed that in the low interdependence condition, predicted interpersonal contextual performance did not affect ranking ($b = 1.95$, SE = 1.18, $p =.107$), whereas predicted task-related performance did ($b = 12.87$, $SE = 0.72$, $p <.001$). In the high interdependence condition, both predictions positively affected ranking ($b = 13.87$, $SE = 0.78$, $p <.001$ for predicted interpersonal contextual performance; $b = 13.31$, $SE = 0.74$, $p <.001$ for predicted task-related performance). We repeated the analysis using predictions about choice of team building activities as a marker for interpersonal contextual performance in the high interdependence condition and obtained similar results (Table 11, Model 21) with a significant three-way interaction ($b = -7.99$, $SE = 1.56$, $p <.001$). Plotting the simple slopes (Fig. 5) showed that in the low interdependence condition, predicted interpersonal contextual performance did not affect ranking ($b = 1.95$, $SE = 1.19$, $p =.107$) but predicted task-related performance did ($b = 12.87$, $SE = 0.72$, $p <.001$). In the high interdependence condition, both predicted interpersonal contextual performance ($b = 10.39$, $SE = 1.01$, $p <.001$) and predicted task-related performance ($b = 13.31$, $SE = 0.74$, $p <.001$) affected ranking.

Moderated mediation analyses. We also conducted a moderated mediation analysis to examine indirect effects of competence and warmth perceptions on selection decision and ranking through predicted task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 2).[a]

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Rater gender[b]	0.25	0.44																		
2. Rater gender[c]	0.74	0.44																		
3. Rater gender[d]	0.00	0.06																		
4. Ratee gender[e]	0.51	0.50	-0.00																	
5. Rater age	31.39	10.09	0.03	-0.03	-0.00															
6. Ratee age	34.52	2.99	0.06	-0.06	-0.02	0.01														
7. Number of raters	21.39	1.24	-0.02	0.03	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04													
8. Team Size	3.49	0.50	0.00	-0.00	-0.01	0.06	-0.02	-0.02	-0.15**											
9. Task interdependence (TI)[f]	0.49	0.50	-0.03	0.02	0.03	-0.07*	0.04	-0.08*	-0.05	0.00										
10. Competence perceptions	4.29	0.66	-0.03	0.04	-0.06*	0.00	-0.06	0.01	0.01	-0.07*	0.02									
11. Warmth perceptions	4.10	0.73	-0.15**	0.15**	-0.03	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.05	0.02	0.00	0.37**								
12. Predicted task-related performance[g]	0.00	1.00	-0.08**	0.09**	-0.06	-0.09**	-0.08*	0.01	0.03	-0.07*	0.00	0.51**	0.30**							
13. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance[h]	0.00	1.00	-0.04	0.04	-0.00	0.00	0.04	-0.01	0.01	0.08**	0.00	0.14**	0.44**	0.26**						
14. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance: Team building activities[i]	0.00	1.00	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	0.01	0.03	-0.08*	0.11**	0.00	0.07*	0.37**	0.16**	0.84**					
15. Actual task-related performance[g]	0.00	1.00	0.03	-0.03	-0.01	-0.00	0.04	0.03	-0.11**	-0.02	0.00	0.05	-0.01	0.04	0.06*	0.06				
16. Actual interpersonal contextual performance[h]	-0.01	1.01	0.01	-0.01	0.07*	-0.00	0.00	-0.07*	-0.04	0.02	-0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.07*	0.01	-0.01	0.40**			
17. Actual interpersonal contextual performance: Team building activities[i]	0.00	1.00	0.04	-0.04	-0.01	-0.09**	0.00	-0.02	0.11**	0.18**	0.01	-0.04	-0.07*	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.49**		
18. Selection decision[j]	0.78	0.41	-0.09**	0.10**	-0.04	-0.07*	-0.03	-0.01	0.02	0.00	-0.02	0.45**	0.45**	0.50**	0.32**	0.25**	0.01	0.02	-0.04	
19. Ranking	71.70	20.08	-0.08**	0.08**	-0.05	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.03	0.53**	0.52**	0.65**	0.39**	0.30**	0.04	-0.02	-0.06*	0.78**

Note. $N_{observations} = 1002$; $N_{Raters} = 501$. [a] Correlations are raw correlations not taking into account the clustering; [b] Dummy coded: 0 = female or non-binary, 1 = female; [c] Dummy coded: 0 = male or non-binary, 1 = male; [d] Dummy coded: 0 = female or male, 1 = non-binary; [e] Dummy coded: 0 = female, 1 = male; [f] Dummy coded: 0 = low TI, 1 = high TI; [g] Predicted (actual) task-related performance measured as predicted (actual) performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition (z-scored); [h] Predicted (actual) interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted (actual) choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (z-scored); [i] Predicted (actual) interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted (actual) choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (z-scored); [j] Dummy coded: 0 = no, 1 = yes. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

team, respectively, differentially for the low versus high interdependence conditions. The bootstrap method was again applied with 5000 bias-corrected samples (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). The indirect effect of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance in the team was significant in both the high ($b = 0.94$, $SE = 0.12$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.72, 1.19]) and low ($b = 0.96$, $SE = 0.13$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.73, 1.24]) task interdependence conditions. The indirect effect of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance in the team was also significant in both the high ($b = 0.23$, $SE = 0.08$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.10, 0.40]) and the low ($b = 0.24$, $SE = 0.07$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.11, 1.41]) interdependence conditions. But there was a significant difference between the indirect effect of competence perceptions and that of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance for both the high ($b = 0.71$, $SE = 0.13$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.46, 0.96]) and low ($b = 0.73$, $SE = 0.14$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.47, 1.02]) interdependence conditions. This suggested that the effect of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance was stronger than the effect of warmth perceptions through predicted task-related performance. There was no difference in the effect of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance between the high and low interdependence conditions ($b = -0.02$, $SE = 0.14$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.32, 0.24]). There was no difference in the effect of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted task-related performance between the high and low interdependence conditions either ($b = -0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.08, 0.07]).

Repeating this analysis looking at ranking yielded identical results: a significant indirect effect of competence perceptions (high interdependence: $b = 9.35$, $SE = 0.82$, $CI_{95\%}$: [7.72, 10.92]; low interdependence: $b = 9.03$, $SE = 0.89$, $CI_{95\%}$: [7.31, 10.78]), a significant indirect effect of warmth perceptions (high interdependence: $b = 2.30$, $SE = 0.71$, $CI_{95\%}$: [1.03, 3.78]; low interdependence: $b = 2.22$, $SE = 0.67$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.99, 3.60]), and a significant difference between the indirect effects in both conditions (high interdependence: $b = 7.05$, $SE = 1.07$, $CI_{95\%}$: [4.88, 9.12]; low interdependence: $b = 6.82$, $SE = 1.13$, $CI_{95\%}$: [4.49, 8.96]), with no difference between the indirect effects of competence ($b = 0.31$, $SE = 0.70$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-1.10, 1.66]) or warmth ($b = 0.08$, $SE = 0.18$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.24, 0.49]) on ranking through predicted task-related performance between the high and low interdependence conditions.

We then examined the indirect effects of warmth and competence perceptions on both selection decision and ranking through predicted interpersonal contextual performance. There was a significant indirect effect of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance only in the high interdependence condition ($b = 0.98$, $SE = 0.13$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.76, 1.25]) but not in the low interdependence condition ($b = 0.09$, $SE = 0.07$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.05, 0.24]). The indirect effect of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance was not significant in the high interdependence condition ($b = -0.07$, $SE = 0.08$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.23, 0.08]) nor in the low interdependence condition ($b = -0.01$, $SE = 0.01$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.04, 0.01]). The difference between the indirect effects of competence and warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance was only significant in the high interdependence condition ($b = -1.04$, $SE = 0.16$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-1.40, −0.78]) and not in the low interdependence condition ($b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.08$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.25, 0.05]), suggesting that the indirect effect of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance is stronger only when team task interdependence is high. Importantly, there was no difference between the high and low interdependence conditions in the indirect effects of competence perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance between the high and low interdependence conditions ($b = -0.06$, $SE = 0.07$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.22, 0.07]), but there was a significant difference in the indirect effects of warmth perceptions on selection decision through predicted interpersonal contextual performance between the high and low interdependence conditions

Table 7

Hypothesis 1 Test: Regression Analysis Results (Study 2)[a].

Variables	Predicted task-related performance[b] Model 7		Predicted interpersonal contextual performance[c] Model 8		Predicted interpersonal contextual performance: Team-building activities[d] Model 9	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	0.01	(0.04)	0.00	(0.07)	−0.00	(0.07)
Task interdependence (TI)[e]	−0.02	(0.06)	−0.00	(0.06)	−0.00	(0.05)
Competence perceptions	0.46***	(0.04)	−0.03	(0.04)	−0.08[†]	(0.04)
Warmth perceptions	0.13**	(0.03)	0.45***	(0.04)	0.40***	(0.04)
R^2	0.28		0.20		0.14	

Note. $N_{Observations}$ = 1000 for predicted task-related performance; $N_{Observations}$ = 1001 for both measures of predicted interpersonal contextual performance; N_{Raters} = 501. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses; [b] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition (z-scored); [c] Predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (z-scored); [d] Predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (z-scored); [e] Dummy coded: 0 = low TI, 1 = high TI. [†] $p <.10$, * $p <.05$, ** $p <.01$, *** $p <.001$.

Table 8

Hypotheses 3a/b Test of Three-way Interaction between Prediction Score, Prediction Type (Task-related and Interpersonal Contextual Performance), and Task Interdependence on Selection Decision (Study 2)[a].

Variables	Selection decision[b] Model 10[c]		Model 11[c]		Model 12[c]	
	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	1.58***	(0.15)	1.35***	(0.13)	1.32***	(0.12)
Prediction score (PS)[d]	1.02***	(0.08)	0.36**	(0.13)	0.14	(0.11)
Prediction type (PT)[e]	−0.01	(0.07)	0.24**	(0.09)	0.43***	(0.13)
Task interdependence (TI)[f]	−0.15	(0.12)	0.15	(0.12)	0.32*	(0.15)
PS × PT			0.68***	(0.15)	1.23***	(0.20)
PS × TI			0.83***	(0.13)	1.44***	(0.17)
PT × TI			−0.07	(0.14)	−0.57**	(0.18)
PS × PT × TI					−1.48***	(0.12)
R^2	0.15 [g]		0.18 [g]		0.19 [g]	

Note. $N_{Observations}$ = 2001; N_{Raters} = 501. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses; [b] Dummy coded: 0 = no, 1 = yes; [c] Binary Logistic Regression; [d] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition and predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (all z-scored); [e] Dummy coded: 0 = predicted interpersonal contextual performance, 1 = predicted task-related performance; [f] Dummy coded: 0 = low TI, 1 = high TI; [g] Estimate of Cox and Snell R-square. [†] $p <.10$; * $p <.05$, ** $p <.01$, *** $p <.001$.
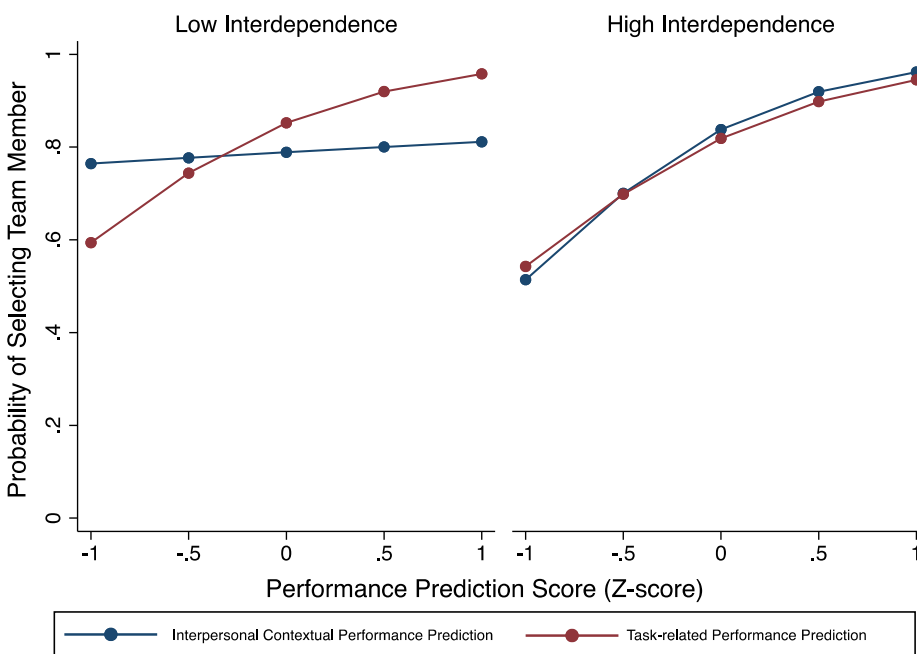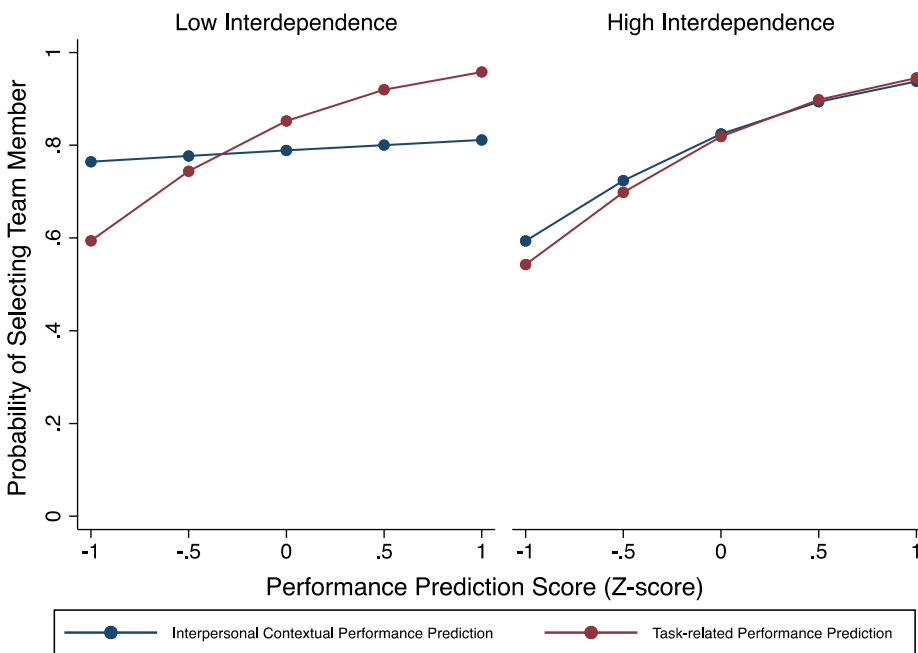

Fig. 2. Three-Way Interaction: Probability of Selection as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual), and Team Task Interdependence (Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (all z-scored).

Table 9

Hypotheses 3a/b Test of Three-way Interaction between Prediction Score, Prediction Type (Task-related and Interpersonal Contextual Performance [Team Building Activities]), and Task Interdependence on Selection Decision (Study 2)[a].

| | Selection decision[b] | | | | | |
| | Model 13[c] | | Model 14[c] | | Model 15[c] | |
Variables	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	1.55***	(0.15)	1.34***	(0.13)	1.32***	(0.12)
Prediction score (PS)[d]	0.93***	(0.08)	0.31*	(0.12)	0.14	(0.13)
Prediction type (PT)[e]	−0.02	(0.07)	0.28**	(0.09)	0.43***	(0.12)
Team interdependence (TI)[f]	−0.12	(0.12)	0.10	(0.11)	0.23[†]	(0.13)
PS × PT			0.80***	(0.15)	0.57*	(0.26)
PS × TI			0.62***	(0.13)	0.23***	(0.20)
PT × TI			−0.10	(0.11)	−0.47**	(0.17)
PS × PT × TI					−1.06***	(0.27)
R^2	0.13[g]		0.15[g]		0.16[g]	

Note. $N_{Observations}$ = 2001; N_{Raters} = 501. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses; [b] Dummy coded: 0 = no, 1 = yes; [c] Binary Logistic Regression; [d] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition and predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (all z-scored); [e] Dummy coded: 0 = predicted interpersonal contextual performance, 1 = predicted task-related performance; [f] Dummy coded: 0 = low TI, 1 = high TI; [g] Estimate of Cox and Snell R-square. [†] $p < .10$; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Fig. 3. Three-Way Interaction: Probability of Selecting Team Member as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual [Team-Building Activities]), and Team Task Interdependence (Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (all z-scored).

Table 10

Hypotheses 3a/b Test of Three-way Interaction between Prediction Score, Prediction Type (Task-related and Interpersonal Contextual Performance), and Task Interdependence on Ranking (Study 2)[a].

| | Ranking | | | | | |
| | Model 16 | | Model 17 | | Model 18 | |
Variables	B	SE	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	71.11***	(1.17)	71.10***	(1.20)	71.10***	(1.21)
Prediction score (PS)[b]	10.45***	(0.67)	4.77***	(1.04)	1.95	(1.19)
Prediction type (PT)[c]	0.02	(0.65)	0.04	(0.65)	0.04	(0.80)
Team interdependence (TI)[d]	1.17	(1.05)	1.19	(1.15)	1.19	(1.17)
PS × PT			5.27***	(0.97)	10.91***	(1.39)
PS × TI			6.18***	(0.80)	11.92***	(1.17)
PT × TI			−0.04	(0.99)	−0.04	(1.04)
PS × PT × TI					−11.47***	(1.51)
R^2	0.27		0.31		0.33	

Note. $N_{Observations}$ = 2001; N_{Raters} = 501. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses; [b] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition and predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (all z-scored); [c] Dummy coded: 0 = predicted interpersonal contextual performance, 1 = predicted task-related performance; [d] Dummy coded: 0 = low TI, 1 = high TI. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.
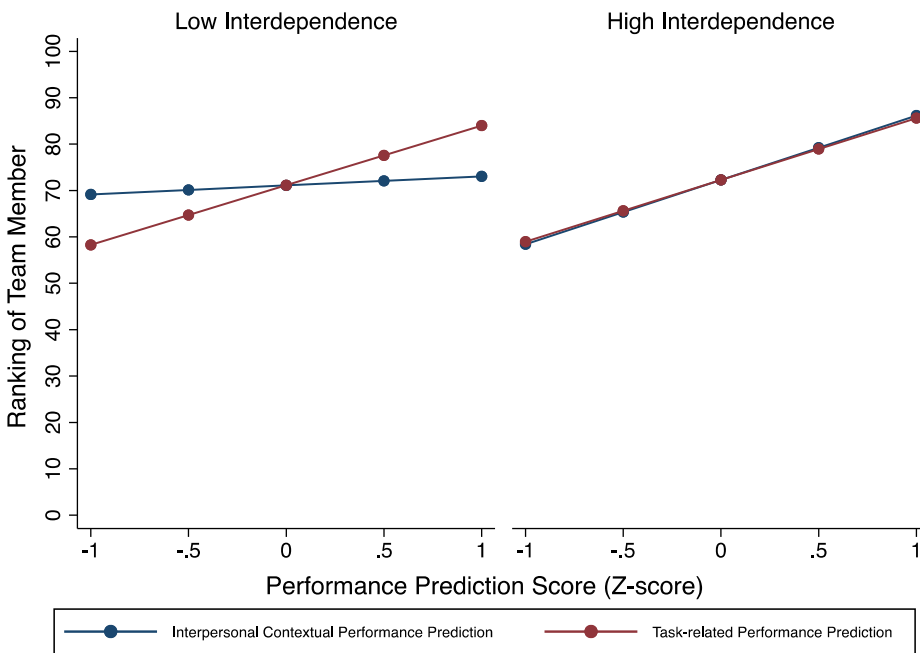
Fig. 4. Three-Way Interaction: Ranking as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual), and Team Task Interdependence (Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (all z-scored).

Table 11
Hypotheses 3a/b Test of Three-way Interaction between Prediction Score, Prediction Type (Task-related and Interpersonal Contextual Performance [Team Building Activities]), and Task Interdependence on Ranking (Study 2)[a].

Variables	Ranking Model 19 B	SE	Model 20 B	SE	Model 21 B	SE
Constant	71.11***	(1.19)	71.10***	(1.20)	71.10***	(1.21)
Prediction score (PS)[b]	0.59***	(0.68)	3.92***	(1.01)	1.95	(0.18)
Prediction type (PT)[c]	0.02	(0.65)	0.04	(0.68)	0.04	(0.80)
Team interdependence (TI)[d]	1.17	(1.09)	1.19	(1.19)	1.19	(1.19)
PS × PT			6.98***	(0.96)	10.91***	(1.39)
PS × TI			4.45***	(0.88)	8.44***	(1.35)
PT × TI			−0.04	(0.99)	−0.04	(0.98)
PS × PT × TI					−7.99***	(1.56)
R^2		0.23		0.27		0.28

Note. $N_{Observations} = 2001$; $N_{Raters} = 501$. [a] Robust standard errors in parentheses; [b] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition and predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (all z-scored); [c] Dummy coded: 0 = predicted interpersonal contextual performance, 1 = predicted task-related performance; [d] Dummy coded: 0 = low TI, 1 = high TI. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

$(b = 0.89, SE = 0.14, CI_{95\%}: [0.65, 1.19])$. This suggested that warmth received additional importance in selection decision in the high interdependence condition.

Repeating this analysis with ranking yielded similar results: a non-significant indirect effect of competence perceptions (high interdependence: $b = -0.63, SE = 0.68, CI_{95\%}: [-1.95, 0.73]$; low interdependence: $b = -0.09, SE = 0.11, CI_{95\%}: [-0.39, 0.07]$), a significant indirect effect of warmth perceptions (high interdependence: $b = 8.55, SE = 0.83, CI_{95\%}: [7.00, 10.27]$; low interdependence: $b = 1.20, SE = 0.64, CI_{95\%}: [0.002, 2.53]$), and a significant difference between the indirect effects (high interdependence: $b = -9.17, SE = 1.16, CI_{95\%}: [-11.48, -6.94]$; low interdependence: $b = -1.29, SE = 0.68, CI_{95\%}: [-2.69, -0.02]$). The indirect effects of competence were not different between the high and low interdependence conditions ($b = -0.54, SE = 0.60, CI_{95\%}: [-1.77, 0.62]$) but the indirect effects of warmth showed a significant difference ($b = 7.34, SE = 0.95, CI_{95\%}: [5.59, 9.32]$). This again suggests that the importance of warmth perceptions was elevated under high team task interdependence. Using the choice of team building activities as the measure of interpersonal contextual performance for the high interdependence condition yielded similar results (see Online Appendix D).

Hypothesis 4 test.. Finally, we examined if performance predictions related to actual performance. As in Study 1, we also nested our analysis within the different teams because being part of a specific team could affect individual performance.[9] Results showed that predicted task-related performance was not significantly related to actual task-related performance ($b = 0.002, SE = 0.03, p = .929$), nor predicted interpersonal contextual performance was related to actual interpersonal contextual performance ($b = -0.02, SE = 0.03, p = .386$). We repeated the analysis using the choice of team building activities as a measre of interpersonal contextual performance in the team for the high interdependence condition, and the results did not change. That is, predicted task-related performance in the team was not significantly related to actual task-related performance in the team ($b = 0.02, SE = 0.03, p = .470$), nor predicted interpersonal contextual performance in the team was related to actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = 0.001, SE = 0.03, p = .970$). Hence, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

---

[9] With only 14 teams, the clustering command developed by Cameron et al. (2011) was not applicable. We thus used multilevel mixed-effects linear regressions nesting participants within teams and ratees within raters.
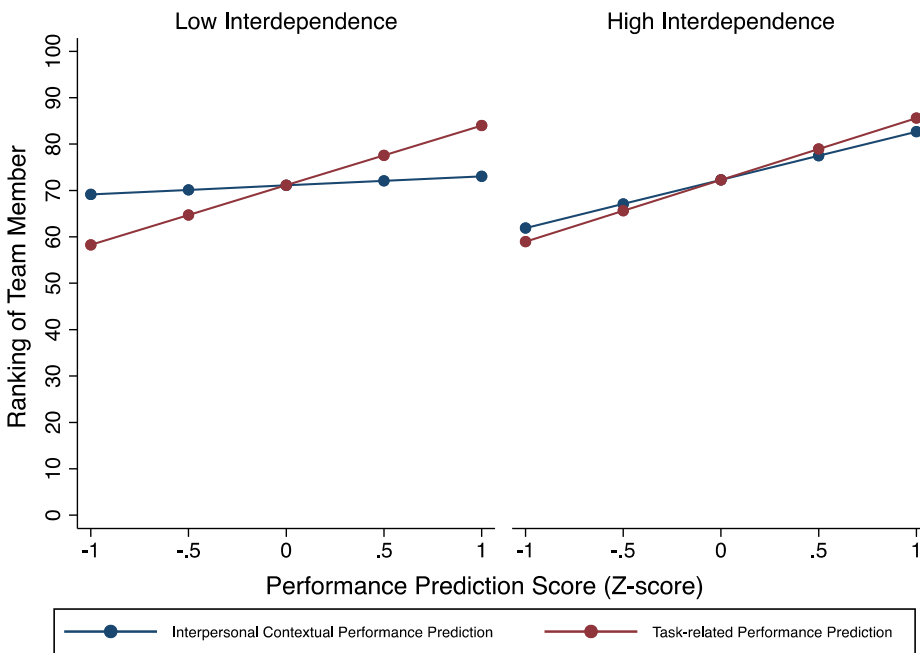
Fig. 5. Three-Way Interaction: Ranking as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual [Team Building Activities]), and Team Task Interdependence (Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted task-related performance measured as predicted performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition. Predicted interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (all z-scored).

Per our pre-registration, we also explored whether the accuracy is moderated by team task interdependence. The three-way interaction between performance prediction, type of prediction, and interdependence condition on actual performance yielded marginally significant results ($b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = .08$). Plotting the simple slopes (Figs. 5 and 6), we found that in the low interdependence condition, there was no relationship between predicted and actual task-related performance in the team ($b = -0.06$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .108$) or between predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = -0.02$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .620$). In contrast, in the high interdependence condition, although there was no relationship between predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance ($b = -0.02$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .666$), the relationship between predicted and actual task-related performance was positive and marginally significant ($b = 0.07$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .076$),

suggesting accuracy of task-related performance prediction only under high task interdependence, a context that is similar to that of the student teams in Study 1. In a similar analysis using the choice of team building activities as a marker of interpersonal contextual performance in the high interdependence condition, the three-way interaction was not significant ($b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = .108$), but we still examined the simple slopes and found a similar pattern. Specifically, in the low interdependence condition, there was no relationship between predicted and actual task-related performance in the team ($b = -0.04$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .367$) or between predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = 0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .844$). In contrast, in the high interdependence condition, there was no relationship between predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance ($b = -0.005$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .902$), but the relationship between predicted and actual
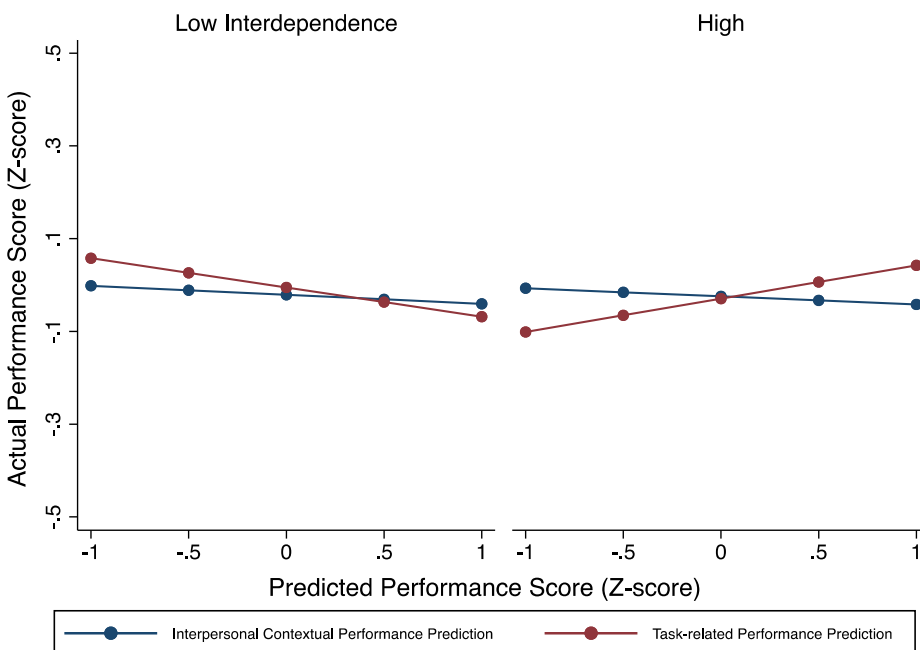

Fig. 6. Three-Way Interaction: Actual Performance Score as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual), and Team Task Interdependence (Exploratory Analysis, Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted (actual) task-related performance measured as predicted (actual) performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition. Predicted (actual) interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted (actual) choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of interpersonal contextual behaviors in the high TI condition (all z-scored).

task-related performance in the team was marginally significant ($b = 0.08$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .050$).

Repeating the analysis using only one item as a marker for task-related performance ("organized team discussions and defined how tasks need to be accomplished") and one item as a marker for interpersonal contextual performance ("showed genuine care and concern for other team members") in the high interdependence condition, similar to our measure in Study 1, yielded a significant three-way interaction ($b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = .043$). Looking at the simple slopes (Fig. 7), in the low interdependence condition, predicted and actual task-related performance in the team were not significantly related ($b = -0.05$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .224$) nor were predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = -0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .715$). In contrast, for the high interdependence condition, there was no relationship between predicted and actual interpersonal contextual performance in the team ($b = -0.06$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .170$), but the relationship between predicted and actual task-related performance in the team was marginally significant ($b = 0.07$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .090$).Fig. 8.

Finally, a *meta*-analysis of the relationship between predicted and actual performance was performed. Given the findings from the exploratory analysis in Study 2, only the simple slopes in the high task interdependence condition (which is aligned with Study 1's context) were used.[10] Predicted task-related performance was significantly related to actual task-related performance (when task-related performace is stacked with the behavioral measure of interpersonal contextual performance: $b = 0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.02, 0.15]; when task-related performance is stacked with choice of team building activities as a measure of interpersonal contextual performance: $b = 0.09$, $SE = 0.03$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.03, 0.16]; including pilot studies with the behavioral measure of interpersonal contextual performance for Study 2: $b = 0.07$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.03, 0.10]; including pilot studies with choice of team building activities as a measure of interpersonal contextual performance for Study 2: $b = 0.07$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.03, 0.10]). In contrast, predicted interpersonal contextual performance was largely not related to actual interpersonal contextual performance (with the behavioral measure of interpersonal contextual performance: $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.03, 0.06]; with choice of team building activities as a measure of interpersonal contextual performance: $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.06]; including pilot studies with the behavioral measure of interpersonal contextual performance for Study 2: $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.04]; including pilot studies with choice of team building activities as a measure for interpersonal contextual performance for Study 2: $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.04]). Our findings suggest that when selecting a prospective member, team members rely on their predictions about both task-related performance (derived from competence perceptions) and interpersonal contextual performance (derived from warmth perceptions), with a heavier reliance on the latter when the team's tasks are more interdependent. However, although their

predictions about task-related performance in the team have some validity, that is not the case for predictions about interpersonal contextual performance in the team, making reliance on the latter erroneous.

9. General discussion

We developed and tested a holistic model of how team members' swift judgments about a prospective team member impact their selection decisions and how accurate those judgments are in predicting actual performance in the team. Two studies provided convergent evidence that team members' swift perceptions of a prospective member's competence shape their predictions about the member's task-related performance in the team and warmth perceptions shape the predictions about interpersonal contextual performance in the team. Predicted task-related and interpersonal contextual performance both influence selection decisions, and the importance of the latter is elevated when the team is high on task interdependence. That is, the differential reliance on predicted task-related versus interpersonal contextual performance in selection decisions is less (more) pronounced when team task interdependence is high (low).

Importantly, we theorized that task-related performance predictions (derived from competence perceptions) have more validity than interpersonal contextual performance predictions (derived from warmth perceptions), and we found support for this in Study 1 but not in Study 2. Yet, exploratory analysis revealed that in a low task interdependence condition, both task-related and interpersonal contextual performance predictions had low validity, making the reliance on both erroneous. Under a high task interdependence condition (wherein interpersonal contextual performance predictions received an elevated weight in selection), task-related performance predictions showed validity and interpersonal contextual performance predictions ironically did not, making reliance on the latter erroneous.

9.1. Theoretical contributions

We contribute to scholarly understanding of team member selection in several ways. First, previous research has primarily looked at the importance of competence and warmth perceptions in evaluating team members based on prolonged interactions or having full (presumably accurate) information about the person's competence and warmth (Belmi & Pfeffer, 2018; Casciaro & Lobo, 2008; Thomas et al., 2020). Drawing on theories from social psychology on person perception, we extend this line of scholarship by delineating how competence and warmth perceptions of a prospective member relate to predictions about the member's task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the team, which then influence selection decisions. Our work thus brings psychological theories of person perception into the realm of teams, providing important insights on the role of person perception in a work team context.

Second, we challenge the dominant perspective in the literature that emphasizes warmth as a primary determinant of evaluations (e.g., Casciaro & Lobo, 2005, 2008; Fiske et al., 2007; Van Der Lee et al., 2017; Ybarra et al., 2001). Instead, we extend the research that has highlighted that competence can take primacy in organizational contexts (e.g., Belmi & Pfeffer, 2018) by showing that team members rely on their predictions about a prospective member's task-related performance (derived from competence perceptions) more than on predictions about interpersonal contextual performance (derived from warmth perceptions). Thus, our research suggests that one cannot automatically apply findings from social psychology to understand organizations. In organizations, well-defined institutionalized and enforced rules and norms about acceptable behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Jansen & Von Glinow, 1985) resolve issues of trust and benevolence and thus may make warmth-related inferences less important. Thus, a prospective member's competence in the team's tasks becomes the primary consideration. We further explicate that, when the team is high on task

---

[10] Other than two pilot studies and Study 2 collected during the revision process, another pilot study was also conducted during the process, in which we explored the role of job type (job that requires technical skills vs people skills) using the videos in Study 1. However, this pilot study was conducted before we decided on reframing our paper to be about team member selection and performance predictions in team context. Importantly, this was also before we realized that, to empirically look at accuracy of predictions about such task-related and interpersonal contextual performance in the team, we should not use the MBA videos and impose upon such putative job in a noisy and unrealistic manner but would instead have to create new stimuli in which participants actually engage in a task that requires low or high task interdependence (as in Study 2). In addition, there were 2 studies (available in OSF) used in our original submission of the paper (i.e., prior to the review process) that were fundamentally different and showed different results with regards to accuracy. In this *meta*-analysis, we include Studies 1 and 2 reported in the paper, but in parenthesis we also report the *meta*-analysis results for the accuracy prediction across all studies (8 in total).
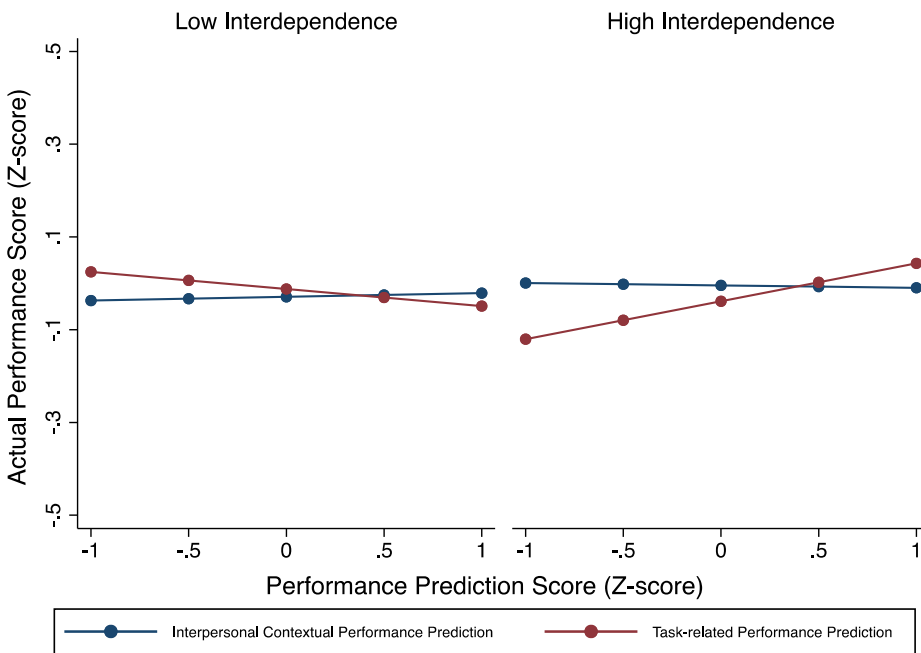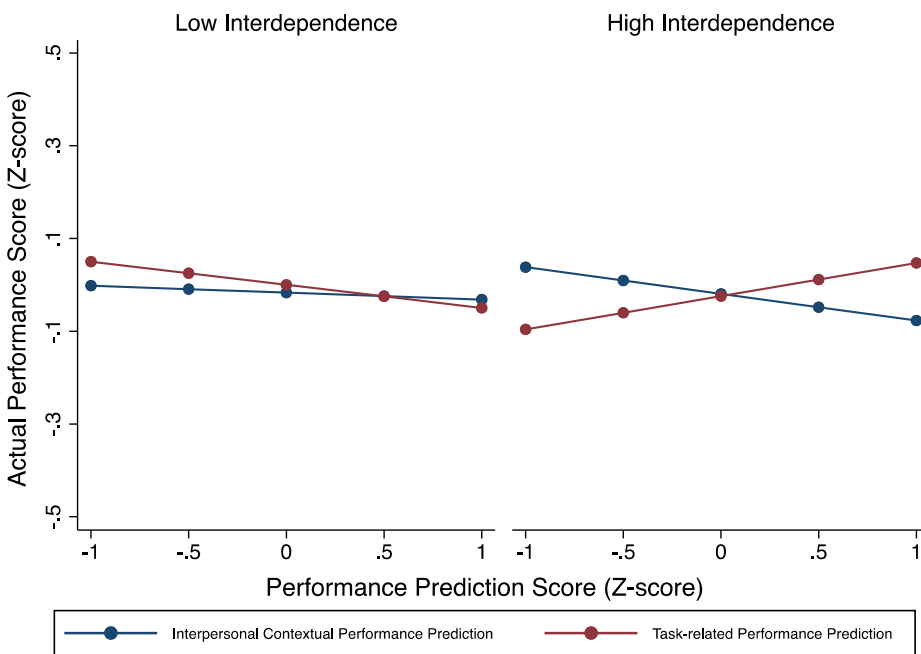
Fig. 7. Three-Way Interaction: Actual Performance Score as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual [Team Building Activities]), and Team Task Interdependence (Exploratory Analysis, Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted (actual) task-related performance measured as predicted (actual) performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of task-related behaviors in the high TI condition. Predicted (actual) interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted (actual) choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low and high TI conditions (all z-scored).

Fig. 8. Three-Way Interaction: Actual Performance Score as a Function of Performance Prediction Score, Type of Performance Prediction (Task-related vs Interpersonal Contextual), and Team Task Interdependence (Exploratory Analysis, Study 2)[a]. *Note.* [a] Predicted (actual) task-related performance measured as predicted (actual) performance in the survival task in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of task-related behaviors using one item ("organized team discussions and defined how tasks need to be accomplished") in the high TI condition. Predicted (actual) interpersonal contextual performance measured as predicted (actual) choice to spend time on team-building activities in the low TI condition and predicted (actual) display of interpersonal contextual behaviors using one item ("showed genuine care and concern for other team members") in the high TI condition (z-scored) (akin to Study 1).

interdependence, the influence of the prospective member's predicted interpersonal contextual performance on selection is elevated. In doing so, we highlight how task interdependence can not only shape team dynamics (Courtright et al., 2015) but also affect how teams select prospective members. Thus, we provide a more nuanced understanding of the relative weights given to competence and warmth in organizations and add to the emerging evidence that such weights may change under different forms of interdependence (e.g., Belmi & Pfeffer, 2018; Thomas et al., 2020).

Third, although scholars have primarily found high predictive validity of structured tools such as structured interviews (Huffcutt & Arthur, 1994; Levashina et al., 2014), there are conflicting perspectives on the predictive validity of quick perceptions formed in interviews. The social psychological perspective on thin slices (e.g., Ambady &

Rosenthal, 1992) argues for a reasonable accuracy of person perceptions, whereas the organizational and personnel literature (e.g., Dipboye et al., 2012; Huffcutt & Culbertson, 2011) largely treats swift judgments as noise. We add to this discourse by being the first to explore the accuracy of quick perceptions in the context of team member selection and to consider the translation of competence and warmth perceptions into task-related and interpersonal contextual performance predictions. Importantly, we highlight that such quick judgments have validity in predicting task-related performance but not in predicting interpersonal contextual performance. This is not to suggest that team members should be satisfied with quick judgments in preference to structured interviews. Rather, our results provide a deeper understanding of the validity of such quick perceptions. In line with the decision-making literature that advocates for the utility of both Type 1 (intuitive) and

Type 2 (reflective) processes (e.g., Kahneman, 2011), our findings open up the possibility that quick perceptions of competence may be useful for predicting task-related performance and thus should not be entirely disregarded. The findings also resolve a theoretical puzzle presented by previous research on person perception (e.g., Cuddy et al., 2008; Wojciszke & Abele, 2008) by demonstrating which perceptions show more validity in a hiring context.

9.2. Limitations and future directions

Our studies have limitations while opening avenues for future studies. First, the team members in our studies were only given initial perceptions, without any objective information about the prospective members' skills and competencies. Although this was done on purpose to isolate the effect of quick perceptions (assuming all else is equally unknown), future studies can examine how quick perceptions and their accuracy interact with more objective credentials.

Second, the prospective candidates in both studies were asked to talk about their proudest accomplishments, which might have focused them on task-related accomplishments, making the competence-related evaluations potentially more accurate than those of warmth. We chose this question as it is popularly asked in team member selection contexts (e.g., Haden, 2016; Kraus, 2022). Moreover, even if candidates emphasize task-related accomplishments, it should not necessarily result in greater prediction accuracy, unless they present those that are tightly related to the team's specific tasks in Study 1 or the survival task in Study 2 (which was not the case). Nonetheless, to address this concern, two research assistants who were blind to the study hypotheses were asked to watch all videos in both studies and rate the extent to which each person highlighted task-related or interpersonal contextual performance in terms of content. They also categorized each video as highlighting mostly task-related or mostly interpersonal contextual performance. Although the mean score for highlighting task-related performance was higher, there was also a significant number of videos that highlighted interpersonal contextual performance in both studies. We repeated all our analyses controlling for the RAs' task-related content scores, and the results remained largely the same (see Online Appendix G). Yet, we acknowledge that we could have included a question with a stronger emphasis on interpersonal contextual performance. This in fact connects to one of our practical implications: given the low accuracy of predicting interpersonal contextual performance coupled with its high importance in selection decisions, interviewers need to think creatively about what questions could be asked that would provide them with cues to making more accurate predictions about candidates' interpersonal contextual performance.

Future research examining additional possible moderators could also be fruitful. One of our pilot studies (see Online Appendix C) examined job type (i.e., whether the job primarily requires technical vs people skills). Although we did not find that job type significantly influenced the relative weights given to predicted task-related and interpersonal contextual performance, more research seeking influential moderators is called for. For instance, team members' personal beliefs about the importance of interpersonal contextual performance, as well as their own behaviors in this regard, may affect the extent to which they prefer interpersonal contextual performance (over task-related performance) in selecting a prospective member. There may also be cultural variation, such that team members from a culture valuing warmth (e.g., Spain, Italy; Cuddy et al., 2009) might be more influenced by warmth-related inferences. Moreover, given that the focus of our theory is on how team members' swift judgments about a prospective team member impact their selection decisions, we were particularly interested in looking at the moderating role of team task interdependence from the perspective of someone who was "inside" the team (e.g., a team member). Consequently, in that context, the decision maker (i.e., rater) automatically had direct task interdependence with the prospective team member. At the same time, the selection decision can also be made

by someone who is "outside" of the team. In that context, the decision maker (e.g., general hiring manager, recruiter) may not have such direct task interdependence with the prospective member but can still be in the position to select a new member for a job with high (vs low) team task interdependence. We thus encourage future research to examine the moderating role of team task interdependence in a context when the decision maker does not have direct task interdependence with a prospective team member.

Finally, our exploratory analyses revealed that in a low task interdependence condition, predictions about task-related performance had little validity. Although we are hesitant to offer a post hoc explanation, one reason might be that, despite team members' conscious reliance on performance predictions in selecting a prospective member, the low interdependence context might reduce their vigilance about the competence cues that would allow for better accuracy. As the team's performance is basically the sum of individual members' independent contributions in such context, team members may not seek to establish task coordination processes with each other (Campion et al., 1993; Courtright et al., 2015; Wageman, 1995). Future research could examine this possibility by identifying potential mediators that could explain why task-related performance predictions are less accurate under low team task interdependence.

9.3. Implications for practice

Our findings suggest that even experienced team members need to be more aware of how swift judgments affect their selection decisions. While selecting someone who will be helpful and supportive is crucial, team members need to be cautious about relying on warmth as a cue. This may be particularly hard to do, as intuition might suggest that such assessment can only be done through subjective judgments based on brief interactions (as opposed to the more structured, formal ways to make task performance predictions). Team members thus need better tools to help them make accurate predictions about interpersonal contextual performance (see Morgeson et al., 2005 for predictors of interpersonal contextual performance). Our findings also show that relying on swift judgments about warmth can potentially lead to overlooking good prospective members who may not be *perceived* as warm in brief interviews but in reality may be high on interpersonal contextual performance. The implications of our results are thus only accentuated, given that quicker virtual interviews have become increasingly popular.

Our findings also have implications for gender equality at work. Women's interpersonal contextual performance tends to be higher than men's (Carrigan et al., 2011; Diefendorff et al., 2002; Stamper & Dyne, 2001), sometimes at the expense of their individual task-related performance. If team members, however, do not accurately predict interpersonal contextual performance but still rely on those predictions for hiring, women may fail to reap the benefits of delivering high interpersonal contextual performance, as their performance is not accurately predicted. This highlights that it is important for organizations to develop better tools for assessing future interpersonal contextual performance. Similarly, given the low accuracy of task-related performance predictions under low team task interdependence, team members in such contexts should also be cautious about relying on swift judgments in their selection decisions and be encouraged to rely on structured tools for predicting task-related performance of prospective members. Ultimately, our research helps organizations and teams improve the effectiveness of their hiring process and encourages more future research on this topic.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data and Syntax are posted online on OSF page (link provided in paper)

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2022.104206.

References

Abele, A. E. (2003). The dynamics of masculine-agentic and feminine-communal traits: Findings from a prospective study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(4), 768–776. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.4.768

Abele, A. E., & Brack, S. (2013). Preference for other persons' traits is dependent on the kind of social relationship. *Social Psychology, 44*(2), 84–94. https://doi.org/10.1027/1864-9335/a000138

Abele, A. E., & Wojciszke, B. (2007). Agency and communion from the perspective of self versus others. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*(5), 751–763. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.93.5.751

Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J. (2014). Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies. *Organizational Research Methods, 17*(4), 351–371. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114547952

Amaral, A. A., Powell, D. M., & Ho, J. L. (2019). Why does impression management positively influence interview ratings? The mediating role of competence and warmth. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 27*(4), 315–327. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12260

Ambady, N. (2010). The perils of pondering: Intuition and thin slice judgments. *Psychological Inquiry, 21*(4), 271–278. https://doi.org/10.1080/1047840X.2010.524882

Ambady, N., Bernieri, F. J., & Richeson, J. A. (2000). Toward a histology of social behavior: Judgmental accuracy from thin slices of the behavioral stream. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 32, pp. 201–271). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(00)80006-4.

Ambady, N., & Gray, H. M. (2002). On being sad and mistaken: Mood effects on the accuracy of thin-slice judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*(4), 947–961. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.4.947

Ambady, N., & Rosenthal, R. (1992). Thin slices of expressive behavior as predictors of interpersonal consequences: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 111*(2), 256–274. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.111.2.256

Asch, S. E. (1946). Forming impressions of personality. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 41*(3), 258–290. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0055756

Avolio, B. J., & Barrett, G. V. (1987). Effects of age stereotyping in a simulated interview. *Psychology and Aging, 2*(1), 56–63. https://doi.org/10.1037/0882-7974.2.1.56

Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence: An essay on psychology and religion.* Rand McNally.

Bales, R. F. (1950). A set of categories for the analysis of small group interaction. *American Sociological Review, 15*(2), 257–263. https://doi.org/10.2307/2086790

Barrick, M. R., Dustin, S. L., Giluk, T. L., Stewart, G. L., Shaffer, J. A., & Swider, B. W. (2012). Candidate characteristics driving initial impressions during rapport building: Implications for employment interview validity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 85*(2), 330–352. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02036.x

Barrick, M. R., Swider, B. W., & Stewart, G. L. (2010). Initial evaluations in the interview: Relationships with subsequent interviewer evaluations and employment offers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(6), 1163–1172. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019918

Belmi, P., & Pfeffer, J. (2015). How "organization" can weaken the norm of reciprocity: The effects of attributions for favors and a calculative mindset. *Academy of Management Discoveries, 1*(1), 36–57. https://doi.org/10.5465/amd.2014.0015

Belmi, P., & Pfeffer, J. (2018). The effect of economic consequences on social judgment and choice: Reward interdependence and the preference for sociability versus competence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*(8), 990–1007. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2274

Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1974). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. *Human Communication Research, 1*(2), 99–112. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2958.1975.tb00258.x

Betancourt, J. R., Green, A. R., Carrillo, J. E., & Park, E. R. (2005). Cultural competence and health care disparities: Key perspectives and trends. *Health Affairs, 24*(2), 499–505. https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.24.2.499

Bliese, P. D. (1998). Group size, ICC values, and group-level correlations: A simulation. *Organizational Research Methods, 1*(4), 355–373. https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819814001

Bliese, P. D. (2000). Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein, & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research, and methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions* (pp. 349–381). Jossey-Bass.

Borkenau, P., Mauer, N., Riemann, R., Spinath, F. M., & Angleitner, A. (2004). Thin slices of behavior as cues of personality and intelligence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 86*(4), 599–614. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.4.599

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 99–109. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327043hup1002_3

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. M. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt, W. C. Borman, & Associates (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp. 71–98). Jossey-Bass.

Bottger, P. C., & Yetton, P. W. (1988). An integration of process and decision scheme explanations of group problem solving performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 42*(2), 234–249. https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(88)90014-3

Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(4), 710–725. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1986.4283909

Bushfire survival simulation. (2018). Human Synergistics Inc.

Cameron, A. C., Gelbach, J. B., & Miller, D. L. (2011). Robust inference with multiway clustering. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics, 29*(2), 238–249. https://doi.org/10.1198/jbes.2010.07136

Campion, M. A., Medsker, G. J., & Higgs, A. C. (1993). Relations between work group characteristics and effectiveness: Implications for designing effective work groups. *Personnel Psychology, 46*(4), 823–847. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1993.tb01571.x

Cappelli, P. (2019). Your approach to hiring is all wrong. *Harvard Business Review, 97*(3), 48–58.

Carmeli, A., Reiter-Palmon, R., & Ziv, E. (2010). Inclusive leadership and employee involvement in creative tasks in the workplace: The mediating role of psychological safety. *Creativity Research Journal, 22*(3), 250–260. https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2010.504654

Carrigan, C., Quinn, K., & Riskin, E. A. (2011). The gendered division of labor among STEM faculty and the effects of critical mass. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 4*(3), 131–146. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021831

Carton, A. M., & Cummings, J. N. (2012). A theory of subgroups in work teams. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(3), 441–470. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2009.0322

Casciaro, T., & Lobo, M. S. (2005). Competent jerks, lovable fools, and the formation of social networks. *Harvard Business Review, 83*(6), 92–99. https://doi.org/10.1225/R0506E

Casciaro, T., & Lobo, M. S. (2008). When competence is irrelevant: The role of interpersonal affect in task-related ties. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 53*(4), 655–684. https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.53.4.655

Chen, G., & Bliese, P. D. (2002). The role of different levels of leadership in predicting self-and collective efficacy: Evidence for discontinuity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 549–556. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.549

Courtright, S. H., Thurgood, G. R., Stewart, G. L., & Pierotti, A. J. (2015). Structural interdependence in teams: An integrative framework and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(6), 1825–1846. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000027

Cuddy, A. J. C., Fiske, S. T., & Glick, P. (2004). When professionals become mothers, warmth doesn't cut the ice. *Journal of Social Issues, 60*(4), 701–718. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-4537.2004.00381.x

Cuddy, A. J. C., Fiske, S. T., & Glick, P. (2008). Warmth and competence as universal dimensions of social perception: The stereotype content model and the BIAS map. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 40*, 61–149. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(07)00002-0

Cuddy, A. J. C., Fiske, S. T., Kwan, V. S. Y., Glick, P., Demoulin, S., Leyens, J., … Sleebos, E. (2009). Stereotype content model across cultures: Towards universal similarities and some differences. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 48*(1), 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1348/014466608X314935

Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Beninger, A. (2011). The dynamics of warmth and competence judgments, and their outcomes in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 31*, 73–98. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2011.10.004

Derfler-Rozin, R., Baker, B., & Gino, F. (2018). Compromised ethics in hiring processes? How referrers' power affects employees' reactions to referral practices. *Academy of Management Journal, 61*(2), 615–636. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2015.1355

Devine, D. J., Clayton, L. D., Philips, J. L., Dunford, B. B., & Melner, S. B. (1999). Teams in organizations: Prevalence, characteristics, and effectiveness. *Small Group Research, 30*(6), 678–711. https://doi.org/10.1177/104649649903000602

Diefendorff, J. M., Brown, D. J., Kamin, A. M., & Lord, R. G. (2002). Examining the roles of job involvement and work centrality in predicting organizational citizenship behaviors and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(1), 93–108. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.123

Dipboye, R. L., Macan, T., & Shahani-Denning, C. (2012). The selection interview from the interviewer and applicant perspectives: Can't have one without the other. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of personnel assessment and selection* (pp. 323–352). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199732579.001.0001.

Dong, Y., Liao, H., Chuang, A., Zhou, J., & Campbell, E. M. (2015). Fostering employee service creativity: Joint effects of customer empowering behaviors and supervisory empowering leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(5), 1364–1380. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038969

Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*(4), 735–754. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.46.4.735

Eisenkraft, N. (2013). Accurate by way of aggregation: Should you trust your intuition-based first impressions? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 49*(2), 277–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2012.11.005

Ellington, J. K., Dierdorff, E. C., & Rubin, R. S. (2014). Decelerating the diminishing returns of citizenship on task performance: The role of social context and interpersonal skill. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 99*(4), 748–758. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036102

Fast, N. J., Burris, E. R., & Bartel, C. A. (2014). Managing to stay in the dark: Managerial self-efficacy, ego defensiveness, and the aversion to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(4), 1013–1034. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2012.0393

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. McGraw-Hill.

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., & Glick, P. (2007). Universal dimensions of social cognition: Warmth and competence. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 11*(2), 77–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2006.11.005

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: Competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*(6), 878–902. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.82.6.878

Florea, L., Valcea, S., Hamdani, M. R., & Dougherty, T. W. (2019). From first impressions to selection decisions: The role of dispositional cognitive motivations in the employment interview. *Personnel Review, 48*(1), 249–272. https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-11-2017-0345

Gilbert, D. T., Pelham, B. W., & Krull, D. S. (1988). On cognitive busyness: When person perceivers meet persons perceived. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(5), 733–740.

Glick, W. H. (1985). Conceptualizing and measuring organizational and psychological climate: Pitfalls in multilevel research. *Academy of Management Review, 10*(3), 601–616. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4279045

Goodwin, G. P., Piazza, J., & Rozin, P. (2014). Moral character predominates in person perception and evaluation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 106*(1), 148–168. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034726

Guenter, H., Gardner, W. L., Davis McCauley, K., Randolph-Seng, B., & Prabhu, V. P. (2017). Shared authentic leadership in research teams: Testing a multiple mediation model. *Small Group Research, 48*(6), 719–765. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496417732403

Haden, J. (2016). *27 most common job interview questions and answers*. https://www.inc.com/jeff-haden/27-most-common-job-interview-questions-and-answers.html.

Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Bowler, W. M. (2007). Emotional exhaustion and job performance: The mediating role of motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 93–106. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.93

Hoffman, B. J., Blair, C. A., Meriac, J. P., & Woehr, D. J. (2007). Expanding the criterion domain? A quantitative review of the OCB literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(2), 555–566. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.555

Hollenbeck, J. R., Beersma, B., & Schouten, M. E. (2012). Beyond team types and taxonomies: A dimensional scaling conceptualization for team description. *Academy of Management Review, 37*(1), 82–106. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2010.0181

Huffcutt, A. I., & Arthur, W. (1994). Hunter and Hunter (1984) revisited: Interview validity for entry-level jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(2), 184–190. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.79.2.184

Huffcutt, A. I., & Culbertson, S. S. (2011). Interviews. In S. E. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 185–203). American Psychological Association. https://doi.org/10.1037/12171-000.

Huffcutt, A. I., Van Iddekinge, C. H., & Roth, P. L. (2011). Understanding applicant behavior in employment interviews: A theoretical model of interviewee performance. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*(4), 353–367. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2011.05.003

Ingold, P. V., Dönni, M., & Lievens, F. (2018). A dual-process theory perspective to better understand judgments in assessment centers: The role of initial impressions for dimension ratings and validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 103*(12), 1367–1378. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000333

Jansen, E., & Von Glinow, M. A. (1985). Ethical ambivalence and organizational reward systems. *Academy of Management Review, 10*(4), 814–822. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1985.4279104

Kabanoff, B. (1991). Equity, equality, power, and conflict. *Academy of Management Review, 16*(2), 416–441. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1991.4278961

Kacmar, K. M., & Carlson, D. S. (1999). Effectiveness of impression management tactics across human resource situations. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 29*(6), 1293–1315. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1999.tb02040.x

Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. Straus and Giroux: Farrar.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* ((2nd ed.).). Wiley.

Kim, P. H., Dirks, K. T., Cooper, C. D., & Ferrin, D. L. (2006). When more blame is better than less: The implications of internal vs. external attributions for the repair of trust after a competence-vs. integrity-based trust violation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 99*(1), 49–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.07.002

Kirmani, A., Hamilton, R. W., Thompson, D. V., & Lantzy, S. (2017). Doing well versus doing good: The differential effect of underdog positioning on moral and competent service providers. *Journal of Marketing, 81*(1), 103–117.

Kozlowski, S. W., & Hattrup, K. (1992). A disagreement about within-group agreement: Disentangling issues of consistency versus consensus. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77*(2), 161–167. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.77.2.161

Kraus, R. (2022). *The perfect formula for answering "What is your greatest accomplishment" in an interview*. https://www.themuse.com/advice/greatest-accomplishment-interview-question-answer-examples.

Leach, C. W., Ellemers, N., & Barreto, M. (2007). Group virtue: The importance of morality (vs. competence and sociability) in the positive evaluation of in-groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*(2), 234–249. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.93.2.234

LeBreton, J. M., & Senter, J. L. (2008). Answers to 20 questions about interrater reliability and interrater agreement. *Organizational Research Methods, 11*(4), 815–852. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106296642

Lee, S. Y., Pitesa, M., Thau, S., & Pillutla, M. M. (2015). Discrimination in selection decisions: Integrating stereotype fit and interdependence theories. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*(3), 789–812. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2013.0571

LePine, J. A., Hanson, M. A., Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2000). Contextual performance and teamwork: Implications for staffing. In G. R. Ferris, & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (pp. 53–90). JAI Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-7301(00)19003-6.

Levashina, J., Hartwell, C. J., Morgeson, F. P., & Campion, M. A. (2014). The structured employment interview: Narrative and quantitative review of the research literature. *Personnel Psychology, 67*(1), 241–293. https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12052

Levine, J. M., & Moreland, R. L. (1994). Group socialization: Theory and research. *European Review of Social Psychology, 5*(1), 305–336. https://doi.org/10.1080/14792779543000093

Liao, H., & Chuang, A. (2007). Transforming service employees and climate: A multilevel, multisource examination of transformational leadership in building long-term service relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 1006–1019. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.4.1006

Liao, H., Toya, K., Lepak, D. P., & Hong, Y. (2009). Do they see eye to eye? Management and employee perspectives of high-performance work systems and influence processes on service quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(2), 371–391. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013504

Littlepage, G., Robison, W., & Reddington, K. (1997). Effects of task experience and group experience on group performance, member ability, and recognition of expertise. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 69*(2), 133–147. https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1997.2677

Lorinkova, N. M., & Perry, S. J. (2019). The importance of group-focused transformational leadership and felt obligation for helping and group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 40*(3), 231–247. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2322

Marks, M. A., Mathieu, J. E., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2001). A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *Academy of Management Review, 26*(3), 356–376. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4845785

Marques, J., Abrams, D., Paez, D., & Martinez-Taboada, C. (1998). The role of categorization and in-group norms in judgments of groups and their members. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*(4), 976–988. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.75.4.976

Mathieu, J. E., Luciano, M. M., D'Innocenzo, L., Klock, E. A., & LePine, J. A. (2020). The development and construct validity of a team processes survey measure. *Organizational Research Methods, 23*(3), 399–431. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428119840801

Mayer, D. M., Kuenzi, M., Greenbaum, R., Bardes, M., & Salvador, R. B. (2009). How low does ethical leadership flow? Test of a trickle-down model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 108*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2008.04.002

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(1), 123–136.

McMullen, L. (2015). *9 ways to be an incredibly likable interviewee*. https://money.usnews.com/money/careers/articles/2015/03/11/9-ways-to-be-an-incredibly-likable-interviewee.

Moore, D. A., & Flynn, F. J. (2008). The case for behavioral decision research in organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Annals, 2*(1), 399–431. https://doi.org/10.5465/19416520802211636

Moorman, R. H., & Blakely, G. L. (1995). Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16*(2), 127–142. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030160204

Moreland, R. L., & Levine, J. M. (1982). Socialization in small groups: Temporal changes in individual-group relations. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 15*, 137–192. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60297-X

Morgeson, F. P., Reider, M. H., & Campion, M. A. (2005). Selecting individuals in team settings: The importance of social skills, personality characteristics, and teamwork knowledge. *Personnel Psychology, 58*(3), 583–611. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.655.x

Morgeson, F. P., Reider, M. H., Campion, M. A., & Bull, R. A. (2008). Review of research on age discrimination in the employment interview. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 22*(3), 223–232. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-008-9066-0

Ohland, M. W., Loughry, M. L., Woehr, D. J., Bullard, L. G., Felder, R. M., Finelli, C. J., … Schmucker, D. G. (2012). The comprehensive assessment of team member effectiveness: Development of a behaviorally anchored rating scale for self-and peer evaluation. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 11*(4), 609–630. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2010.0177

Orehek, E., & Forest, A. L. (2016). When people serve as means to goals: Implications of a motivational account of close relationships. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 25*(2), 79–84. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721415623536

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington Books.

Palan, S., & Schitter, C. (2018). Prolific. ac—A subject pool for online experiments. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Finance, 17*, 22–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbef.2017.12.004

Parsons, C. K., & Liden, R. C. (1984). Interviewer perceptions of applicant qualifications: A multivariate field study of demographic characteristics and nonverbal cues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69*(4), 557–568. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.4.557

Pearce, J. L., & Gregersen, H. B. (1991). Task interdependence and extrarole behavior: A test of the mediating effects of felt responsibility. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76* (6), 838–844. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.838

Peeters, G. (2002). From good and bad to can and must: Subjective necessity of acts associated with positively and negatively valued stimuli. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 32*(1), 125–136. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.70

Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(2), 262–270. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.82.2.262

Raza, S. M., & Carpenter, B. N. (1987). A model of hiring decisions in real employment interviews. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*(4), 596–603. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.72.4.596

Reeder, G. D., Kumar, S., Hesson-McInnis, M. S., & Trafimow, D. (2002). Inferences about the morality of an aggressor: The role of perceived motive. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*(4), 789–803. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.4.789

Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (1995). Psychological contracts and OCB: The effect of unfulfilled obligations on civic virtue behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16* (3), 289–298. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030160309

Rosenberg, S., Nelson, C., & Vivekananthan, P. S. (1968). A multidimensional approach to the structure of personality impressions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 9*(4), 283–294. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0026086

Rynes, S., & Gerhart, B. (1990). Interviewer assessments of applicant "fit": An exploratory investigation. *Personnel Psychology, 43*(1), 13–35. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1990.tb02004.x

Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (1998). The validity and utility of selection methods in personnel psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*(2), 262–274. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.124.2.262

Settoon, R. P., & Mossholder, K. W. (2002). Relationship quality and relationship context as antecedents of person-and task-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 255–267. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.2.255

Sherf, E. N., Sinha, R., Tangirala, S., & Awasty, N. (2018). Centralization of member voice in teams: Its effects on expertise utilization and team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 103*(8), 813–827. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000305

Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 7*(4), 422–445. https://doi.org/10.1037//1082-989X.7.4.422

Simmons, J. P., Nelson, L. D., & Simonsohn, U. (2013). *Life after p-hacking* (pp. 17–19). New Orleans, LA: Meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology.

Singh, R., & Tor, X. L. (2008). The relative effects of competence and likability on interpersonal attraction. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 148*(2), 253–256. https://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.148.2.253-256

Souter, C. (2020). *Virtual meeting platforms vs. video interview tools: Which is the best solution for you?* https://cognisess.com/2020/09/17/virtual-meeting-platforms-vs-video-interview-tools-which-is-the-best-solution-for-you/.

Spector, P. E., & Brannick, M. T. (2011). Methodological urban legends: The misuse of statistical control variables. *Organizational Research Methods, 14*(2), 287–305. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428110369842

Stamper, C. L., & Dyne, L. V. (2001). Work status and organizational citizenship behavior: A field study of restaurant employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*(5), 517–536. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.100

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology, 25*(1), 35–71. https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.1948.9917362

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research.* Free Press.

Swencionis, J. K., & Fiske, S. T. (2016). Promote up, ingratiate down: Status comparisons drive warmth-competence tradeoffs in impression management. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 64*, 27–34. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2016.01.004

Swider, B. W., Barrick, M. R., & Harris, T. B. (2016). Initial impressions: What they are, what they are not, and how they influence structured interview outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(5), 625–638. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000077

Tarakci, M., Greer, L. L., & Groenen, P. J. F. (2016). When does power disparity help or hurt group performance? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(3), 415–429. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000056

Tausch, N., Kenworthy, J. B., & Hewstone, M. (2007). The confirmability and disconfirmability of trait concepts revisited: Does content matter? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*(3), 542–556. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.3.542

Thomas, J. S., Loignon, A. C., Woehr, D. J., Loughry, M. L., & Ohland, M. W. (2020). Dyadic viability in project teams: The impact of liking, competence, and task interdependence. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 35*(5), 573–591. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-019-09647-6

Tsunami survival simulation. (2017). Human Synergistics Inc.

Van Der Lee, R., Ellemers, N., Scheepers, D., & Rutjens, B. T. (2017). In or out? How the perceived morality (vs. competence) of prospective group members affects acceptance and rejection. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 47*(6), 748–762. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2269

Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. A. (1998). Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(1), 108–119. https://doi.org/10.2307/256902

Van Scotter, J., Motowidlo, S. J., & Cross, T. C. (2000). Effects of task performance and contextual performance on systemic rewards. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(4), 526–535. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.4.526

Von Baeyer, C. L., Sherk, D. L., & Zanna, M. P. (1981). Impression management in the job interview: When the female applicant meets the male (chauvinist) interviewer. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 7*(1), 45–51. https://doi.org/10.1177/014616728171008

von Bertalanffy, L. (1973). *General systems theory.* Penguin.

Wageman, R. (1995). Interdependence and group effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 40*(1), 145–180. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393703

Wageman, R., & Baker, G. (1997). Incentives and cooperation: The joint effects of task and reward interdependence on group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18*(2), 139–158. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199703)18:2<139::AID-JOB791>3.0.CO;2-R

Willis, J., & Todorov, A. (2006). First impressions: Making up your mind after a 100-ms exposure to a face. *Psychological Science, 17*(7), 592–598. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2006.01750.x

Wojciszke, B. (1994). Multiple meanings of behavior: Construing actions in terms of competence or morality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67*(2), 222–232. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.67.2.222

Wojciszke, B., & Abele, A. E. (2008). The primacy of communion over agency and its reversals in evaluations. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 38*(7), 1139–1147. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.549

Wojciszke, B., Bazinska, R., & Jaworski, M. (1998). On the dominance of moral categories in impression formation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24*(12), 1251–1263. https://doi.org/10.1177/01461672982412001

Wojciszke, B., Dowhyluk, M., & Jaworski, M. (1998). Moral competence-related traits: How do they differ? *Polish Psychological Bulletin, 29*(4), 283–294.

Ybarra, O., Chan, E., & Park, D. (2001). Young and old adults' concerns about morality and competence. *Motivation and Emotion, 25*(2), 85–100. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1010633908298