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Situational Constraints and Personality as Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

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SITUATIONAL CONSTRAINTS AND PERSONALITY
AS ANTECEDENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Industrial and Organizational Psychology

by
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May 2008

Accepted by:
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ABSTRACT

Current job performance research distinguishes between task performance and extra-role performance or organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). While possible antecedents of OCBs have been studied, most research involves either personality variables or other employee characteristics (e.g., job satisfaction) while the environment within which an employee functions has been thus far overlooked. Such situational variables are aspects of the environment employees have little or no control over but impact performance nonetheless. The present study goes beyond prior research by investigating the role of situational variables on OCBs as well as their possible moderating effects on the personality - OCB relationship. Task identity and feedback from others was found to be positively related to OCBs directed at individuals while only task identity was positively to OCBs directed at the organization. Support was also found for a moderating effect of perceived autonomy on the agreeableness-OCBO relationship. Findings and limitations of the study are discussed. Directions for future research and implications for applied settings were also considered.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wonderful wife, Kimberly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I must thank my advisor and committee chair, Dr. Pat Raymark. Pat has been a constant source of guidance, whose patience and professional expertise throughout the project were unparalleled. Pat was a steady, calming influence through the tribulations of data gathering (and Clemson football). He has an uncanny ability to listen, guide, and influence, providing incredibly sound insight in a positive, thoughtful manner. Given the obstacles faced throughout the implementation of the study, one can imagine any number of reactions to my exasperated phone calls and emails. Above all, I am most grateful for his inspiration to me as a student and professional in our field.

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I wish to thank my family and friends for your persistent and unwavering support. For years you have listened, empathized, supported, and cajoled me at all the appropriate steps in the process. I wish especially to thank my parents and brother for being a constant source of inspiration and encouragement throughout my life. Lastly, I must thank my wife, Kim, for her endless patience, thoughtfulness, and encouragement.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

There is a long history of interest in the construct of job performance in industrial-organizational psychology (Austin & Villanova, 1992). The two central issues in this literature concern the structure of job performance and the determinants of job performance. Structural issues concern the dimensionality of job performance. Although there is not universal agreement on the dimensionality of performance, researchers generally agree on the distinction between task performance and extra-role performance (Organ, 1988). Task performance concerns those actions produced to meet the formal requirements for the job (i.e., as found in a job description) and refers to an employee's contributions to the organization's technical core (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). These contributions either directly affect the organization's technical core, as in front line manufacturing positions, or support the technical core, as in maintenance positions. Many researchers have become interested in contextual performance or Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Conway, 1999; Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo, & Borman, 1998; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). OCB (and contextual performance) refers to behaviors that support the motivational and social context in which the task performance takes place (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Examples of OCB include helping new employees, volunteering at work, and being punctual.

Performance determinants research concerns the antecedents of various performance behaviors. One of the central distinctions between task and contextual performance concerns their antecedents -- contextual performance is thought to be more a

function of motivational variables than ability (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) whereas task performance is more a function of cognitive ability and/or prior experience.

However, despite growing interest in OCB, most research has focused on a limited range of possible antecedents. For instance, Organ and Ryan (1995) conducted a meta-analytic review of 55 studies of organizational citizenship behavior. Their review focused on job attitudes, such as fairness and organizational commitment, leader consideration, and personality variables (such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, and affective orientations). Although these classes of variables are important, they typically account for small proportions of variance in performance measures, leaving room for consideration of other types of antecedents.

One class of performance antecedent that is beginning to receive some attention concerns the situational context of the job. Although situational constraints have been examined by researchers interested in task performance (e.g., Blumberg & Pringle, 1982; McCloy, Campbell, & Cudeck, 1994; Peters, O'Connor, & Eulberg, 1985), few studies have examined how situational variables might influence OCB. Although others have pointed to the need for this research (e.g., Van Scotter, 1998), relatively few studies have explored how the situation influences contextual performance. Therefore, one purpose of this study is to describe a number of situational variables that might influence OCB and to evaluate their relationship with supervisor ratings of citizenship behaviors. In addition, this study will also examine the extent to which these situational variables may moderate the relation between personality variables and organizational citizenship behaviors. With that in mind, the literature on OCBs will be reviewed.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) was introduced by Dennis Organ and his colleagues in the early 1980's (cf. Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Organ (1988) defined OCB as

individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By *discretionary*, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable (p. 4).

Organ (1988) was influenced by previous work from Barnard (1938) and especially Katz, (1964), and Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978). Barnard's notion of organizational members' "willingness to cooperate" in an informal way toward the organization or its members was viewed by Organ (1988) to be analogous to OCB. Further, Barnard (1938) discussed satisfaction with the organization as a primary antecedent for members being willing to cooperate. Job satisfaction was thought to be the primary antecedent for OCBs in the early stages of conceptual development of OCB (e.g., Smith, et al., 1983).

Organ drew more heavily from the work of Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) who argued for three different behavior patterns elicited from organizational members: a)

organizations must attract and keep individuals in the organization; b) members must (and preferably exceed) minimal role performance; and c) members must evoke “innovative and spontaneous behavior” (p. 337). It is this third component of employee behavior that Organ and colleagues (1988) draw parallels to OCB. These behaviors included cooperating with other organizational members, protecting the organizational system, self-training, and behaviors that promote a favorable social environment within the organization. Also important for Katz and Kahn (1966) were the differences in motivational variables that affect each of the three behavior patterns. For instance, individual reward systems (e.g., merit pay) may motivate individuals to perform effective in-role behaviors, but may not be sufficient to increase cooperative behaviors between organizational members. In fact, organizational systems that may enhance one category of necessary behaviors may work against the elicitation of the other necessary behavior patterns (Organ, 1988). Not only did Katz and Kahn (1966, 1978) provide a theoretical basis for OCB but also provided support for Organ’s assertion that motivational bases for in-role versus extra-role performance are likely to differ.

Katz (1964) provided dimensions for “innovative and spontaneous behavior.” These included: a) cooperating with others, b) protecting the organization, c) volunteering constructive ideas, d) self-training, and e) maintaining a favorable attitude toward the company. As will be shown below, these initial dimensions are very similar to conceptualizations of current dimensions of OCB.

From the definition given above a number of important qualifications must be met for behaviors to be regarded as OCBs. The behaviors must be discretionary, must not be

directly or formally rewarded by the organization, and must promote the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). By discretionary, the behavior must not be formally recognized as part of an individual's job duties thereby distinguishing it from in-role performance.

Another requirement was that the behavior goes unrewarded by the formal organizational system. An employee who exceeds role requirements by helping other members when he/she is not required to do so may positively influence their bosses' impressions of them in the long run causing that behavior to be rewarded. However, the returns for those helping behaviors must not be guaranteed by any formal reward system in place (Organ, 1988). It is important to note that Organ did understand the difficulties in relegating OCBs to only those behaviors that are not part of the formal reward system: "at the present state of theory development, this seems the best we can do; perhaps conceptual refinements in the future will enable us to treat this issue more precisely" (p. 5).

Requiring that the behaviors contribute to effective functioning of the organization means that, in the aggregate, these non-role behaviors allow for a more smoothly functioning organizational system.

Related Concepts

A number of related theoretical constructs have been introduced since the inception of OCB. These include, most notably, contextual performance (cf. Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), prosocial organizational behaviors (POB; cf. Brief and Motowidlo,

1986), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), and extra-role behavior (cf. Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995).

Organizational Spontaneity

George and Brief (1992) defined organizational spontaneity as extra role behaviors voluntarily performed that contribute to organizational effectiveness. The following five dimensions were hypothesized: helping coworkers, protecting the organization, developing oneself, making constructive suggestions, and spreading goodwill. This construct is differentiated from OCB by allowing reward systems to be designed for recognizing organizational spontaneity (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

Prosocial Organizational Behavior

Prosocial organizational behavior (POB, Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) was defined as behavior intended to promote the welfare of individuals or groups to whom the behavior was directed (see also, Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). POB is further defined by behavior directed toward an individual, group, or organization that promotes the welfare of that individual, group, or organization. POB is distinguished from OCB by allowing for the behaviors to be extra-role or role-prescribed by the organization and for the behavior to be either functional or dysfunctional to the organization. An example of dysfunctional POB would be that of helping a coworker to the detriment of meeting an organizational deadline. Dimensions of POB have included civic virtue (responsible participation in political life of organization) and loyalty (defending/promoting the organization) (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Extra-Role Behavior

Extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, et al., 1995) is defined as behavior which benefits or is intended to benefit an organization. It is also discretionary and goes beyond existing role expectations. While very similar to the traditional definition of OCB, Van Dyne, et al., (1995) also include elements of prosocial organizational behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), whistle blowing, and Principled Organizational Dissent (POD; Graham, 1986). Their conceptualization thus goes beyond that of OCB by including actions by members that are challenging or prohibitive to the organization as a whole.

Contextual Performance

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) distinguish the structure of job performance into two dimensions: task and contextual performance. Task performance is described as those behaviors directly or indirectly contributing to the technical core of an organization. The technical core is defined as the processing and transformation of raw materials into organizational products. An example of employees directly contributing to the technical core includes maintenance personnel within an industrial facility, or employees working on an assembly line. Indirect contributions include the distribution of finished products to customers (i.e., delivery of products), or the purchasing of raw material for use by the organization. Many manager roles are also seen as indirect contributors to the technical core. These employees are not directly producing products but are making decisions that affect the manner with which those products are made.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) define contextual performance as those behaviors that support the motivational and social context in which the task performance takes

place. Often these are behaviors that are not role-prescribed (i.e., not found in formal job descriptions). These behaviors do not fit into the definition of task performance yet are important for organizational effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). There are many examples of contextual performance: helping new employees, being punctual, or volunteering at work.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) offer four ways in which task and contextual activities differ. First, task activities either directly or indirectly contribute to the technical core. Contextual activities, rather, support the social, psychological, and organizational environment in which the technical core functions. It is possible to find some contextual activities that seem to contribute to the technical core; however, it is within the initiative of the behavior that makes it contextual, not the behavior itself. An example includes helping a coworker who has fallen behind on an assembly line task. While this behavior may have a positive effect on the functioning of this assembly line (e.g., thwarting a stoppage of the assembly line) it is within the initiative of the helpful employee that causes the behavior to be contextual in nature.

Second, task activities vary from organization to organization. Contextual activities, however, are generally similar across all jobs and all are most likely important to the functioning of organizations.

Third, knowledge, skills, and abilities are the fundamental determinants of task proficiency. Volition and dispositional variables are more likely to affect contextual behaviors than knowledge, skills, and abilities. For this reason it is thought that

motivational and personality characteristics are more likely to predict contextual performance.

Fourth, task activities are role-prescribed where contextual activities are much less likely to be prescribed formally. It is important to note that while most contextual behaviors are not found in a traditional job description, it is not unlikely to find some that are role-prescribed. Taken as a whole, contextual performance is seen as important for organizational effectiveness because it allows for efficient functioning of organizational processes.

Distinctions between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Contextual Performance

Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) differentiate OCB and contextual performance in theoretical terms. OCB was developed as a standalone dimension of job performance developed to apply across jobs. Contextual performance, on the other hand, was developed within an overall model of the construct of job performance: task versus contextual performance. Importantly, Organ (1997) has discontinued the initial requirements for behaviors to be extra-role and not directly rewarded. The current requirements are that OCBs are voluntary (discretionary) and that they contribute to organizational effectiveness.

Dimensions of OCB

Recent research concerning the dimensionality of the OCB construct includes two major themes (see Table 1): behaviors oriented toward individuals versus those toward the organization itself.

Citizenship Behaviors Directed Toward Individuals

Behaviors immediately benefiting specific individuals within an organization and thereby contributing indirectly to organizational effectiveness are the first form to be discussed. Williams and Anderson (1991; see also Lee & Allen, 2002) label this dimension OCBI or “behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization” (p. 602).

In their review, Podsakoff, et al. (2000) labeled this dimension helping behavior and defined it as voluntarily helping others with work related problems. The authors found this common to most research within the OCB literature. Other researchers have addressed this category of behavior in a number of ways though all are similar to Williams and Anderson’s (1991) definition of OCBI. Organ (1988) referred to the dimensions of altruism (helping immediate coworkers with work-related problems), courtesy (providing foresight to others), peacemaking (prevention/resolution of interpersonal conflict), and cheerleading (encouragement and reinforcement).

Table 1

Summary of Conceptual Overlap Among Extra-Role Performance Dimensions.¹

Dimensions of Citizenship Performance	Organ (1988)	Van Scotter & Motowidlo, (1996)	Williams & Anderson (1991)	Lee & Allen (2002)	Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)	Smith, et al. (1983)	George & Brief (1992)
Helping Behavior	Altruism, Courtesy, Peacemaking, Cheerleading,	Interpersonal Facilitation	OCB-I	OCB-I	Helping and Cooperating with Others	Altruism	Helping Coworkers
Sportsmanship	Sportsmanship				Helping and Cooperating with Others (i.e., Org'l courtesy; not complaining)		
Org'l Loyalty					Endorsing, Supporting and Defending Org'l Objectives		Spreading Good Will
Org'l Compliance		Job Dedication	OCB-O	OCB-O	Following Org'l Rules/Procedures	Generalized Compliance	
Individual Initiative	Conscientiousness	Job Dedication			Persisting w/ Extra Enth/Eff; Volunt to Carry Out Task Activities		Making Constructive Sugg's
Civic Virtue	Civic Virtue						Protecting the Organization
Self Development							

¹ Adapted from Podsakoff, et al., 2000

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) used the term interpersonal facilitation to indicate interpersonally oriented behaviors encouraging accomplishment of goals, cooperation, improving morale, removing barriers to performance, and helping others with task-oriented activities. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) labeled this dimension helping and cooperating with others. Similarly, George and Brief (1992) referred to simply “helping others” while Smith et al., (1983) named this dimension altruism.

Citizenship Behaviors Directed Toward the Organization

The second dimension with OCB includes behaviors benefiting the organization without actions aimed specifically toward any organizational members (e.g., adhering to informal rules, volunteering for committees). Podsakoff et al. (2000) label this organizational compliance which involves an internalization of company rules and policies. Williams and Anderson (1991) label this broad dimension OCBO and define it as “behaviors that benefit the organization in general” (p.601). These behaviors may include given prior notice when being absent from work or informally adhering to rules designed to maintain order.

Smith et al., (1983) found this to be one of two general factors of the OCB construct in the early stages of its theoretical development, though the authors used the term “generalized compliance.” Generalized compliance was seen as impersonal and representing compliance with internalized norms of the organization that define what a “good employee ought to do” (p. 657). Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) label this dimension job dedication referring to self disciplined behaviors (i.e., following rules). Importantly, the authors state that job dedication encompasses Smith, et al.’s (1983)

generalized compliance dimension. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) simply provided the label of “following organizational rules and procedures.”

Regardless of labels, OCBO or organizational compliance is regarded as citizenship behavior simply because many employees do not follow the rules of the organization whether formal or informal. An employee who does so, especially when breaking the rules would go unknown, is a good citizen (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

Recent meta-analytic reviews of the OCB construct were conducted to investigate the dimensionality of the OCB construct and the OCB-task performance distinction (Lepine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). Lepine, et al. (2002) focused on dimensions of OCB proposed by Organ (1988) and others. The findings indicate strong relationships among these dimensions with similar relationships between the predictors measured (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, fairness). The authors did not include antecedents related to the situational characteristics of the job. Thus, while the findings were interesting to the domain of OCB, the current study involves antecedents not studied and likely to differentially contribute to the prediction of OCBI and OCBO. Hoffman, et al. (2007) used Confirmatory Factor Analysis to examine the conceptual distinction between OCBI, OCBO, and task performance. The meta-analytic study included a latent construct approach to understanding the nature of OCB (as opposed to an aggregated approach). The authors argue for a unidimensional operationalization of the OCB construct that is highly related to, but distinct from, task performance. Bowler and Brass (2006) point to a real

distinction between these two broad categories by way of their differing correlates (see also Settoon & Mossholder, 2002).

While other dimensions have been proposed, these two broad categories underscore the major dimensionality of OCB and have thus received the most research emphasis within the field (see Table 1). Podsakoff et al., (2000) provides a synthesis of less-researched dimensions which have included sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self development.

Antecedents of OCB

A large number of possible antecedents of OCB have been measured by many researchers (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). These generally fall into four major categories: employee characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics, and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

Employee Characteristics

Employee characteristics (e.g., satisfaction, personality) were the first antecedents to be empirically tested. Bateman and Organ (1983) initiated this line of research investigating the effects of job satisfaction on OCB. Supervisors of seventy-seven nonacademic university employees twice rated subordinates on frequency of thirty citizenship behaviors (one and a half months apart). Subordinates provided ratings of job satisfaction using the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969).

Through the longitudinal design, the authors hoped to provide a basis for inferences of satisfaction's direct effects on OCB as well as assessing the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB. Results supported the covariance between satisfaction

and OCB at the first wave of data collection ($r = .41$) and at the second wave ($r = .41$). However, it was not possible to determine whether satisfaction caused OCB, OCB caused satisfaction, both, or whether some other variable was responsible for both OCB and satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988). This was due to a significant correlation found between OCB in the first wave and satisfaction in the second wave ($r = .39$).

Smith et al. (1983) proposed and measured three alternative models for the determinants of OCB (see Figure 1).

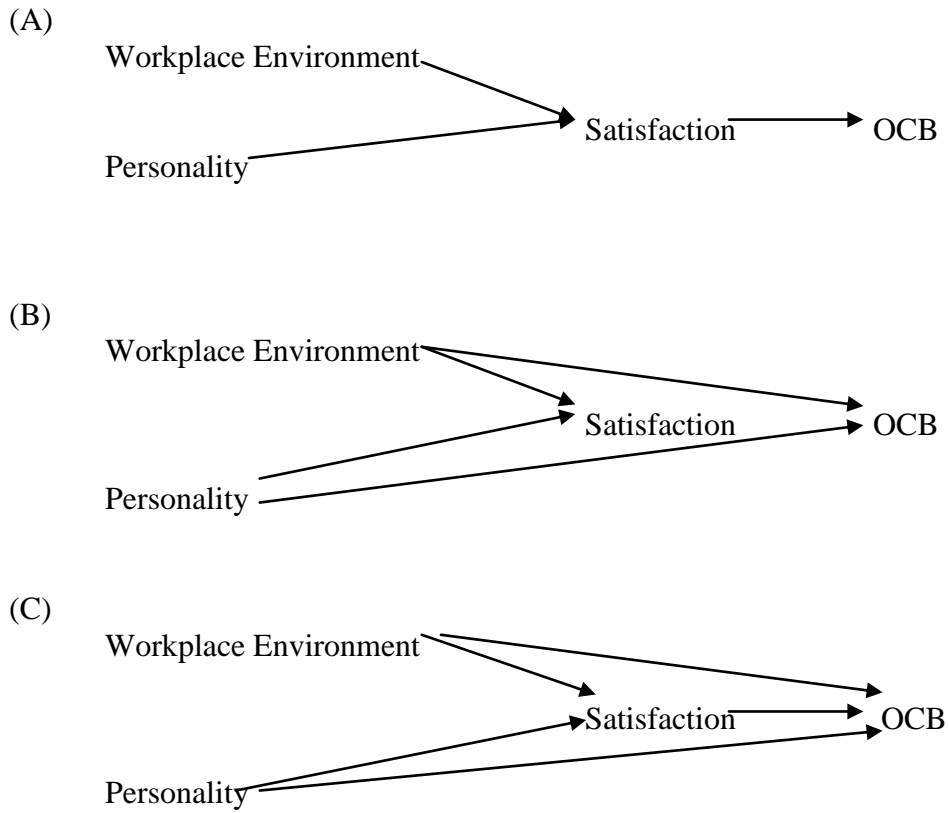


Figure 1. Competing models of OCB determinants¹.

¹Adapted from Smith, Organ, & Near (1983)

This was the first study to empirically measure OCB and its possible antecedents beyond that of job satisfaction. The first model concerns a mood explanation of OCB with job satisfaction acting as an indicator of chronic mood state. Mood state was thought to contribute to OCB based on social psychological research linking mood to prosocial behavior (Organ, 1988). Also in the model, environmental and dispositional variables affect OCB only indirectly through their effects on satisfaction. The second proposes a direct influence of environmental and personality variables on OCB while rendering satisfaction correlated with, but not directly responsible for, these behaviors. The third model accounts for OCB through a combination of direct effects from environmental and personality variables as well as indirect effects through job satisfaction (Smith, et al., 1983).

In their study, environmental variables included leader supportiveness and task interdependence among workgroups. Dispositional variables included extraversion, neuroticism, and belief in a just world. Demographic measures were also included: sex, age, years of school, tenure with company, and years in present position. A final interesting demographic variable was also included: whether subjects were raised in a rural setting, a small city with population less than 100,000, or a city of over 100,000 people.

Factor analytic results produced a two-factor solution for the OCB measure which the authors labeled altruism and generalized compliance (i.e., similar to OCBI and OCBO). Path analyses were then conducted on each form of OCB. Altruism was directly influenced by job satisfaction, education, and urban/rural background (Smith, et

al., 1983) while leader supportiveness and neuroticism had indirect effects through job satisfaction. Generalized compliance was not shown to be directly influenced by job satisfaction. Leader supportiveness did show a direct path to generalized compliance as did urban/rural origin and subjects' lie scale scores derived from the personality measure.

Organ (1988) sums up the two studies above as strongly supporting an association between OCB and job satisfaction but that other determinants are likely to exist. At this point in the history of the construct, few studies looked at variables other than satisfaction (e.g., Motowidlo, et al., 1986). Organ (1988) concludes his discussion of OCB determinants stating "we should not ignore the findings regarding other, independent predictors of OCB...However, the evidence for these factors as determinants of OCB remains somewhat limited and inconsistent" (pp. 44-45). As we will see, developments in the search for predictors of OCB have gone well beyond this early research and has established possible antecedents past that of job satisfaction.

Personality variables have been regarded as important predictors of OCB as well (e.g., Organ, 1988). Organ and Ryan (1995) provided a comprehensive review of the available literature linking personality variables with OCB by using meta-analytic methods. The four personality traits included conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive affectivity and negative affectivity. The authors considered altruism (behaviors benefiting a specific individual) and generalized compliance (behaviors benefiting the organization in general) as the components of OCBs. Conscientiousness and agreeableness were related significantly to both forms of OCB. Conscientiousness was correlated .22 with altruism and .30 with generalized compliance. However, when

factoring for common method variance (done by excluding self-reported OCBs) the correlation between conscientiousness and altruism became nonsignificant ($r = .04$) as did the relationship between positive affectivity and altruism ($r = .15$ dropped to $r = .08$). Although the conscientiousness-generalized compliance correlation did decrease when controlling for common-method variance, it remained significant.

In Borman and Motowidlo's (1993, 1997) discussion of contextual performance it is contended that personality is the main antecedent of citizenship performance and that cognitive ability is the main antecedent of task performance. Borman et al. (2001) attempted to update the Organ and Ryan (1995) meta-analysis based on studies conducted post-1995. The authors did find slightly higher correlations and that "personality, at least the conscientiousness and dependability constructs, correlates more highly with citizenship performance than with task performance" (p.52). Mean uncorrected correlations for the post-1995 studies were somewhat higher than the Organ and Ryan meta-analysis: .24 for conscientiousness, .13 for agreeableness, .18 for positive affectivity, and -.14 for negative affectivity. Further, they estimate a corrected correlation of .32 for the conscientiousness-citizenship performance relationship across 12 post-1995 studies they reviewed.

Podsakoff et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis of OCBs and their antecedents also included conscientiousness, agreeableness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity as the only personality variables. Their findings were similar to those addressed above. The authors state that with the exception of conscientiousness, dispositional variables (once common method variance was controlled for) were not found to be strongly related to

dimensions of OCB. Given the central nature afforded personality (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Organ, 1988) these findings seem fairly damaging to the theoretical notions of the construct. One explanation may be that only a small set of these variables have been considered (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Regardless, personality has been shown to be correlated with OCB though the magnitude of those associations has been somewhat lower than researchers anticipated.

H1 = Personality variables (agreeableness and conscientiousness) will be positively related to supervisor ratings of OCB.

H2 = Personality variables (agreeableness and conscientiousness) will be more strongly related to supervisor ratings of OCB than supervisor ratings of task performance.

Organizational Characteristics

Mixed support has been found for organizational characteristics (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). While group cohesiveness and organizational support have shown significant, positive relations to various dimensions of OCB, no consistent support has been found for either organizational formalization or organizational inflexibility.

Leadership Behaviors

A third category of antecedent research includes leadership behaviors as operationalized through recent leadership theories (i.e., transactional, transformational, LMX, Path-Goal). Transformational leadership has provided consistent, positive relations with OCB while two forms of transactional leadership have been supported. These include contingent reward behavior (positively related) and noncontingent reward behavior (negatively related). Supportive leader behavior, a dimension of Path-Goal

theory, and Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX) has also shown positive relationships with OCB (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

Task Characteristics

While task characteristics have been investigated in a rather limited fashion, researchers have found relationships between variables such as task feedback and routinization and OCB. Podsakoff, et al. (2000) sum up this area of research stating: “although not emphasized in the existing OCB literature, it appears that task characteristics are important determinants of [OCB] and deserve more attention in future research” (p.531). Task characteristics studied in the past have generally come from the substitutes for leadership literature. A closer look at other characteristics of the task and employee environment is needed.

Situational Constraints

Situational constraints are features of a work environment that act as obstacles to performance by preventing employees from fully translating their ability and motivation into performance (Peters & O’Connor, 1980). Examples include lack of available time, lack of supplies, and excessive workload (Peters, O’Connor, & Eulberg, 1985). Several studies have examined the relationship between constraints and general task performance (i.e., performance in non-employment settings). The first such studies were conducted by Peters and O’Connor (1980) who offered a number of hypotheses and a conceptual framework regarding the manner with which situational constraints influence work outcomes. Peters, et al. (1985) summarized the literature on situational constraint effects by distinguishing between its sources and its consequences for employee performance.

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Data from a number of studies employing open-ended questionnaires utilizing independent raters sorted the constraints into meaningful categories (O'Connor, et al., 1984; Peters, O'Connor, & Rudolf, 1980). Peters et al., (1985) taxonomized these past findings into 11 general constraint categories: job-related information, tools and equipment, materials and supplies, budgetary support, required services and help from others, task preparation, time availability, work environment, scheduling of activities, transportation, and job-relevant authority. They advised measuring each category in terms of level of quality and resource availability.

More recent research has examined the relationship between situational constraints and employee performance (e.g., Kane, 1997; Klein & Kim, 1998). In general this research provides some support for the hypothesis that increased constraints are associated with reduced job performance and that the severity of constraints vary across jobs (Olson & Borman, 1989; Peters & O'Connor, 1980).

Kane (1997) notes that the relationship between constraints and performance has not been found to be strong. Peters and O'Connor (1988) suggest that the weak relationships obtained in these studies are attributable to the work settings examined. Kane (1997) summarizes this point through four possible causes: (a) work standards were not high enough for constraints to occur, causing a restriction on the upper limits of effectiveness; (b) a tolerance of poor performance, even when formal standards are high; (c) organizational culture encouraged raters to informally adjust for situational constraints

when rating performance; and (d) a low magnitude of constraints and/or abundant organizational resources (see also Peters, O'Connor, & Eulberg, 1985).

One additional reason that some previous studies may have obtained a weak relationship between constraints and performance is that most previous research has used a relatively narrow definition of situational constraints. Most of this research focuses on time constraints or employees' access to material resources and information (Kane, 1997; Peters et al., 1985).

However, Peters and O'Connor's (1980) definition of constraints left room for consideration of other features of situations that may constrain employees' contextual performance. Focusing on only situational factors related to time/resources leaves out other features of the environment also outside of an employee's control. These may include access to performance feedback, job autonomy, among others. To date, the most widely studied of these possible factors can be found in the job characteristics research initiated by Hackman and Oldham (1974). Therefore, the current study proposes two forms of constraints and situational contextual variables: (1) resource constraints and (2) job characteristics which will be discussed in detail below.

Situational Constraints and OCBs

Resource constraints

Resource constraints are defined as physical, environmental obstacles or circumstances outside of the employee's control which may limit performance. Examples include insufficient time, shortages of supplies or raw materials, and absence of needed equipment (Peters & O'Connor, 1980, Peters et al., 1985). Resource

constraints have been shown to be negatively related to measures of task performance (Kane, 1997; Peters et al., 1985).

One of the ways that increased resource constraints may influence contextual performance could be similar to the effects of job stressors on performance. Hobfoll (1989) suggests that stressors have their deleterious effects by stripping away coping resources. Under conditions of resource constraint, employees may be required to devote more motivational effort to performance of core job tasks. This increased allocation of motivational resources to task performance may reduce the amount of resources available for contextual performance. Job stress tends to evoke affective reactions (e.g., frustration, anxiety) as well as cognitive reactions (e.g., distraction, narrowing of attention; Driskell & Salas, 1996) which may result in a lowering of employee motivation. Driskell and Salas (1996) note that social effects of stress may include a reduction in assistance to others and less cooperation among team members. Further, Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986) found stress-causing events to be associated with decrements in interpersonal aspects of employee performance.

H3 = Resource constraints will be negatively related to OCB.

Job characteristics

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) as proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) argues that jobs which are regarded by employees to be enriched or complex are associated with increased job satisfaction, motivation, and performance. The model proposes six core job dimensions which affect employee outcomes on the job: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job performance feedback. Skill

variety refers to the degree a job requires a number of different skills on the part of the employee. Task identity is the degree a job requires completion of a “whole” piece of work (ability to start and finish a project/task). Task significance refers to the degree a job substantially impacts the lives or work of other people. These three characteristics are thought to influence meaningfulness of the job (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Autonomy refers to the degree to which a job provides freedom and independence for the employee to schedule or determine procedures for his/her work. There are two forms of job-related feedback. Feedback from the job itself is a measure of the degree to which a job provides clear information as to the effective performance of the individual. Feedback from agents refers to supervisors or coworkers providing the employee with clear indications of performance. In combination, these job characteristics reflect job scope.

In general, Hackman and Oldham (1975) define three personal outcomes for employees: general satisfaction, internal work motivation, and specific satisfactions (e.g., social, growth, and pay satisfaction). They suggest that jobs that are greater in scope should be more motivating to employees.

A meta-analysis and review of the JCM literature by Fried and Ferris (1987) suggested that not only is there a moderate relationship between job characteristics and psychological outcomes, it tends to be stronger and more consistent than the relationship between job characteristics and behavioral outcomes. In their meta-analysis, Podsakoff, et al. (1996a) found positive relationships between each task feedback, task variety, and intrinsically satisfying tasks with OCB. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) propose

contextual performance to be motivational in nature (see also Borman, Motowidlo, & Schmit, 1997; Organ, 1988) allowing for employee perceptions of job scope to be positively related to contextual performance.

H4 = Feedback from the job itself, feedback from agents, skill variety, task significance, and autonomy will be positively related to OCBI.

Although all of the components of the JCM are proposed to be related to OCBI, there is reason to question whether this will be the case for OCBO. Specifically, the logical link between feedback from agents and OCBO does not appear as strong as the other links. Thus, hypothesis 5 will not include this JCM component in the prediction of OCBO.

H5 = Feedback from the job itself, skill variety, task significance, and autonomy will be positively related to OCBO.

Empirical Support

While very little research has looked at situational constraints as possible antecedents (Podsakoff et al., 2000), a conceptual approach that is analogous to this relationship can be found in the substitutes for leadership research (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). This body of research surfaced as a response to leadership research in which it was assumed that “*some* leadership style will *always* be effective *regardless* of the situation” (Kerr & Jermier, 1978, p. 375.). The authors contend that a number of individual, task, and organizational characteristics influence the relationships between leaders and subordinate satisfaction and performance. While some may influence choice

of leader behavioral style, others tend to negate a leader's ability to improve or impair subordinate satisfaction and performance (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). These include subordinate characteristics (e.g., ability, experience; indifference toward organizational rewards), task characteristics (e.g., unambiguous and routine, provides its own feedback, intrinsically satisfying), and organization characteristics (e.g., formalization, inflexibility, rewards outside of leader control). They were believed to act as moderators between leadership style and subordinate outcomes.

In the same article, the authors speculated differences in how these characteristics may affect a leader's ability to make a difference among subordinates. For instance, "neutralizers" were differentiated from "substitutes" and "enhancers." Here, neutralizers are a moderator variable when uncorrelated with both predictors and criterion, but act as a suppressor when correlated with predictors but not the criterion. In essence, these make it impossible for leadership to make a difference (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Substitutes "render relationship and/or task-oriented leadership not only impossible but also *unnecessary*" (p. 395) while enhancers strengthen the impact of leader behaviors on employee outcomes whether or not there is a main effect of their own.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996b) conducted a meta-analysis of the effects of transformational leader behavior within the context of substitutes for leadership. Importantly, the search for and description of moderating relationships were provided graphically and empirically. What is most salient for present purposes is the analogous argument being made for characteristics of a situation influencing subordinate behavior. Whereas the substitutes for leadership research focuses on the moderating

effects of the situation between leader behavior and employee outcomes, the present paper seeks to determine the potential moderating effect of situational characteristics on the relationship between personality and employee outcomes (specifically OCBs).

Interestingly, from this research, task characteristics have been found to be related to citizenship behaviors (e.g., Podsakoff, et al., 1996b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996a; Podsakoff, Niefhoff, MacKenzie, & Williams, 1993). In fact all three task characteristics were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Podsakoff, et al., 1996). Intrinsically satisfying tasks and tasks that provided their own performance feedback were positively related to OCB while task routinization was negatively related to OCB. Unfortunately, the above research did not include generalized compliance as a criterion measure (i.e., OCBO; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Based on this information, Podsakoff et al. (2000) conclude “although not emphasized in the existing OCB literature, it appears that task characteristics are important determinants of citizenship behavior and deserve more attention in future research” (p. 531). Further, the authors state that while task variables have not garnered much attention, “this may be an important omission” (p. 551) and that other task variables beyond the substitutes for leadership should be examined, notably Hackman and Oldham’s (1975) factors discussed above.

Moderating Effects of Situational Constraints on Personality-OCB relationship

From the above discussion of the personality-OCB linkages, it was concluded that the research to date has provided a less than desirable level of support for the initially

held beliefs of dispositional variables predicting citizenship behaviors. One possible explanation may lie in the existence of moderators of this relation. For instance, personality as a predictor of performance is best predicted when it is left unconstrained by the situation (Bem & Allen, 1974). Further, because behavior is a function of the person and the situation, both can constrain or facilitate an individual's behavior or performance; when situations are sufficiently strong, most individuals tend to behave similarly regardless of personality (Barrick, Parks, & Mount, 1995).

Schneider and Hough (1995) point to strength of the situation as one type of situational moderator. If situations constrain the expression of individual differences, strength would serve as a moderator between personality and performance. Further, the authors provide a list of possible situational moderator variables including amount of time pressure to complete a task and the five components of Hackman and Oldham's (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey (i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback). Because not every moderator variable will moderate every personality-performance relationship, researchers must develop and test theories "specifying linkages among personality, situational, and job performance constructs if our field is to advance" (Schneider & Hough, 1995, p. 120). For example, empirical support was found by Barrick and Mount (1993) for job autonomy (as an index of situational strength). Additionally, Podsakoff, et al. (2000) claim that the omission of task variables (e.g., Job Characteristics; Hackman & Oldham (1974)) from the antecedent literature is an important one. Therefore, not only is it possible for situational constraints to have direct effects on OCB but it is also likely that they act in indirect manners as well

(i.e., moderating personality-OCB relationship). The potentially moderating effects of the situation on the personality-OCB relationship have received very little attention in the literature thus far. However, given the lack of support for personality as a robust source of explained variance in OCBs, the potentially moderating effects of the situation are ripe for investigation.

H6a = There will be a moderating effect of situational constraints on the personality-OCB relationship such that agreeableness and conscientiousness will be more related to OCB when resource constraints are low than when high.

H6b = There will be a moderating effect of situational contextual variables on personality-OCB relationship such that agreeableness and conscientiousness will be more related to OCB when contextual variables are high

Figure 2 provides a graphical representation of hypothesized relationships.

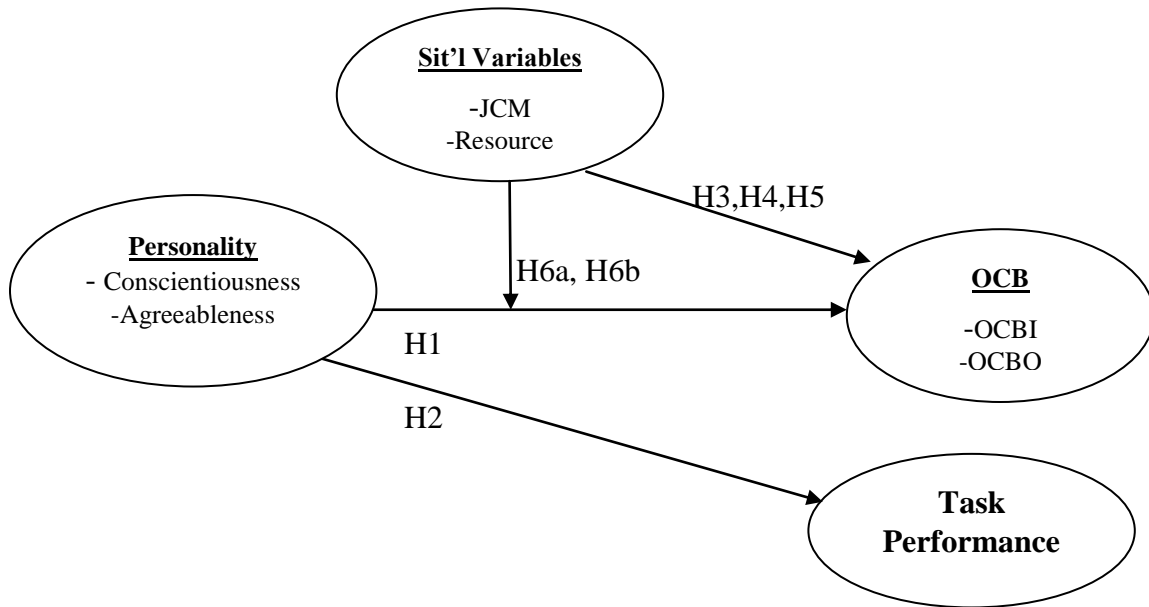


Figure 2. Proposed Direct and Moderated Relationships Between Personality, Situational Constraints, and OCBs.

CHAPTER III: METHOD

Participants

A total of 129 employees of a Southwestern construction company volunteered to participate in the present study. The jobs included in the study were part of an operating group responsible for technical and operational tracking of all aspects of construction projects. Positions included schedulers, cost controls, and construction representatives where the main functions of the jobs are to ensure each project is operating according to schedule and tracking all activities and materials. Employees in these positions have technical backgrounds (e.g., engineering) and are professional in nature. The positions were sampled across all operating divisions of the organization. All participants completed a self-report internet-based survey concerning their perceptions of their job tasks and the environment within which those tasks take place. Personality data was collected via web-based self-report instrument. Performance data was gathered from participant supervisors (N = 14).

Sample Demographics

The sample consisted of 78% male (n = 101) and 22% female (n = 28). Average age for study participants was 39.4 years of age (23 participants declined to provide age information). Average tenure with the company was 7.05 years. Time in current position was unavailable. Self-reported ethnicity of the sample included 76.2% White employees (n = 96), 2.4% Black (n = 3), 14.3% Hispanic (n = 18), 3.2% Asian (n = 4), and 3.9% “other ethnicity” (n = 5). Three participants declined to report their ethnicity. The

majority of supervisors were male (92.8%, n = 13) and white (64.3%, n = 9). One supervisor was female (7.2%) while 5 supervisors were of Hispanic ethnicity (35.7%).

Measures

Job Characteristics

Job characteristics was measured using the short form of the Job Diagnostics Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974; see Appendix A). It was slightly adapted such that the survey was made up of a total of 18 items divided among six dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job itself, and feedback from agents. Each dimension was made up of three items averaged together to yield a summary score for each variable (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). Scales not related to the above dimensions, yet included in the original short form of the JDS were omitted from the present study. Coefficient alphas for the six scales were sufficient: skill variety (.71), task identity (.59), task significance (.66), autonomy (.66, feedback from job (.71), and feedback from agents (.78).

Three of the scales can be combined to create composite scale labeled meaningfulness by averaging an individual's task identity, skill variety, and task significance scale scores (Fried & Ferris, 1987). This composite scale creates an overall estimate of one's perception of the meaningfulness of their work. This scale was used to tap overall perceptions of the nature of the tasks and has been shown to be distinct to both autonomy and feedback (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

Material Resources

Material resource constraints were measured by utilizing a twelve-item scale derived from past situational constraint research (Peters & O'Connor, 1980; Peters, et al., 1985; see Appendix B). Participants were asked to indicate how often each item affected their ability to perform their job using a five-point scale (1 = never, 5 = constantly). Examples of the constraints include not having enough supplies or materials, excessive workload, inconsistent quality of raw materials, and unpredictable workload. Coefficient alpha for this scale is .82.

Personality

Personality was measured using the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI; Hogan & Hogan, 1995). The HPI assesses characteristics facilitating or inhibiting one's ability to achieve goals and get along with others (Hogan & Hogan, 1995). This is a measure based on the Five Factor Model and includes seven scales: adjustment, ambition, sociability, interpersonal sensitivity, prudence, intellectance, and learning approach. See Table 2 for a comparison of HPI scales to the Five Factor Model of personality. Hogan and Holland (2003) compared the HPI to various measures of the Five Factor Model: NEO PI-R., Goldberg's (1992) Big-Five Markers (Hogan & Hogan, 1995), Personal Characteristics Inventory (Mount & Barrick, 1995), and the Inventario de Personalida de Cinco Factores (Salgado & Moscoso, 1999). Reported correlation ranges included: Adjustment/Emotional Stability/Neuroticism (.66 to .81), Ambition/Extraversion/Surgency (.39 to .60), Sociability/Extraversion/Surgency (.44 to .64), Interpersonal Sensitivity/Agreeableness (.22 to .61),

Intellectance/Openness/Intellect (.33 to .69). Learning Approach/Openness/Intellect (.05 to .35).

The HPI consists of 206 items that are combined to produce the seven primary scales and a validity scale. The HPI was untimed and completed via a web-based questionnaire. The scale has shown to have adequate psychometric properties (Axford, 2004; Lobello, 2004) with internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) ranging between .70 (Interpersonal Sensitivity) and .89 (Adjustment). Average test-retest reliability of .70 was measured with ranges from .57 (Interpersonal Sensitivity) to .79 (Learning Approach; Lobello, 2004).

Table 2

Comparing the Five Factor Model of Personality to Hogan Personality Inventory Scales and Definitions.

FFM Scale	HPI Scale	HPI Scale Definition (median r)
Adjustment	Adjustment	Degree to which one appears calm and self-accepting. (.73)
Extraversion	Ambition	Degree to which one seems confident, competitive, and energetic. (.56)
	Sociability	Degree to which one seems to need and/or enjoy social interaction. (.62)
Agreeableness	Interpersonal Sensitivity	Degree to which one is seen as tactful and socially sensitive. (.50)
Conscientiousness	Prudence	Degree to which one seems reliable, conscientiousness, and dependable. (.51)
Openness to Experience	Intellectance	Degree to which one is perceived as bright and creative (.57)
	Learning Approach	Degree to which one seems to enjoy education for its own sake. (.30)

¹ Median correlations between HPI scales and Five Factor Model from Hogan & Holland (2003).

Job performance

Two levels of organizational citizenship behaviors were measured using a scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002; see Appendix D). Organizational citizenship behaviors that benefit specific individuals (OCBI) and citizenship behaviors that benefit the organization as a whole (OCBO) were assessed using a 16-item scale (8 items per scale). The measure was designed to assess citizenship behaviors based on their intended target: individuals or the organization. Items were drawn from previously created OCB scales and included only if they directly tapped the beneficiaries at either the individual or the organizational level. Items were removed that conceptually overlapped with workplace deviance, as well. Lee and Allen (2002) report reliabilities of .83 (OCBI) and .88 (OCBO). Also, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis supported a 2-factor model over a single-factor OCB model (Lee & Allen, 2002). Other studies have reported similar results using the Lee and Allen scales (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006). In-role (task) performance is assessed using a 3-item questionnaire adapted from Williams and Anderson (1991).

Procedure

Employees provided personality scale scores by completing the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI; Hogan & Hogan, 1995). These employees also completed a questionnaire consisting of the job characteristics and material resource scales. Internet-based surveys were used to collect the above information. Estimated completion time per employee is 15-20 minutes. Criterion measures (task performance, OCBI, OCBO) were

obtained from each employee's direct supervisor. This information was collected for research purposes only and communicated as such to the employees and managers.

Participants were notified of the study via electronic mail one week prior to receiving the survey. This message contained information regarding the nature of the study as well as a request for their participation. One week after the initial notification and request for participation, an electronic mail message was sent to participants seeking consent along with instructions for accessing the web-based survey.

One week and two weeks later, electronic mail reminders were sent to those who had not completed the survey asking that they do so. As participants completed the survey, an electronic mail message was sent to their supervisors requesting performance information. Initial supervisor requests were followed with reminders at one- and two-week intervals for those individuals not responding.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Because supervisor ratings of performance were used in this study, the clustered nature of the dependent variables may be responsible for a portion of the variance in the ratings themselves. In other words, raters may differ in the leniency or harshness by which they rate performance. To test for such rater effects, Intraclass Correlation Coefficients (ICCs) were estimated for each of the dependent variables using the procedure outlined by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2002). The ICC for OCBI, OCBO, and Task Performance was .11, .20, and .11, respectively. This suggests that raters are a significant source of variance that must be accounted for prior to the zero-order correlation and regression analyses. Mean-centering by individual rater was used to account for such rater effects. This is done by subtracting an individual's rating from the supervisor's overall mean for each group.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are provided in Table 3. Reliability estimates in the form of alpha coefficients are found in the diagonal.

Statistical Assumptions

The statistical procedures used in this study all assume multivariate normality for the included variables. To test this assumption, skewness and kurtosis statistics were generated (see Table 4 below). The traditional criteria for assessing an appropriate amount of positive or negative skew is to compare the skew statistic to its standard error.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Correlations of Study Variables.

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. OCBI	3.48	.67	.93												
2. OCBO	3.42	.65	.71	.93											
3. Task Performance	3.56	.74	.61**	.69**	.80										
4. Agreeableness	18.61	2.48	.01	-.17	-.18*	.61									
5. Conscientiousness	20.30	4.48	.10	-.07	-.06	.32**	.73								
6. Task Identity	5.02	1.17	.20*	.22*	.19*	.03	.15	.67							
7. Skill Variety	5.54	1.08	.02	.02	.10	.03	.19*	.42**	.63						
8. Task Significance	5.58	1.15	.11	-.02	.01	.15	.20*	.25**	.46**	.58					
9. Meaningfulness	5.38	.86	.15	.10	.13	.09	.23**	.74**	.81**	.75**	.64				
10. Autonomy	5.46	1.15	.03	.00	.01	.05	.05	.29**	.44**	.33**	.46**	.70			
11. Feedback Agents	4.77	1.43	.19*	.14	.08	-.01	.05	.31**	.28**	.38**	.43**	.40**	.84		
12. Feedback Job	5.02	1.21	.06	.07	.05	.14	.14	.29**	.33**	.49**	.49**	.51**	.53**	.76	
13. Resource Constraints	2.22	.50	-.05	.02	.10	-.03	-.12	-.23**	.01	-.03	-.11	-.18*	-.19*	-.14	.82

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

-Reliability (coefficient alpha) estimates are reported in the diagonal.

-Meaningfulness is a composite scale created by averaging the Task Significance, Skill Variety, and Task Identity scales.

Skewness statistics that are more than 2 times the standard error are considered significantly skewed in either the positive or negative direction. The direction of the skewed data is indicated by a positive or negative sign in the skewness statistic. The same criteria (statistic ≥ 2 times standard error) is used to determine whether the sample is too tall (i.e., leptokurtotic) or too flat (i.e., platykurtotic). Having a sample that is skewed or that violates assumptions of mesokurtosis is problematic in that the effects or multivariate relationships may be masked and difficult to detect.

One alternative to analyzing a skewed sample is to perform transformations (e.g., logarithmic transformations) on the skewed variables such that the resulting sample attains a normal distribution and increased power to detect relationships (Levine & Dunlap, 1982). There are disadvantages to this procedure as well. First, the resulting sample having been transformed must also have differing means and standard deviations from the original sample (Dunlap, Chen, & Greer, 1994). This calls into question any benefits to increased power being caused simply by less skew. Second, transformed relationships must not be interpreted in terms of the original, untransformed variables in the study. The result is an increased complexity in interpretation of the study's findings. It was decided that the current study would not be analyzed using transformed variables and instead rely on the original variables as measured. Given that large sample sizes can lead to trivial deviations being found to be significant, it is not thought imperative to rely solely on skewness statistics to inform a decision to transform (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001).

Table 4

Estimates of Skewness and Kurtosis.

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
OCBI	.34	.21	-.46	.42
OCBO	.64	.21	-.41	.42
Task Performance	.12	.21	-.38	.42
Conscientiousness	-.23	.21	.19	.42
Agreeableness	-.88	.21	.19	.42
Meaningfulness	-.66	.21	.14	.42
Autonomy	-1.1	.21	1.62	.42
Feedback Agents	-.68	.21	-.10	.42
Feedback Job	-.46	.21	-.42	.42
Resource Constraints	.41	.21	1.13	.42

Hypotheses 1-4 were determined by first considering zero-order correlations between each of the included variables. Hypothesis 1 predicted agreeableness and conscientiousness to be positively related to supervisor ratings of OCB. Correlation analyses do not support the hypothesized positive relationships between conscientiousness and OCBI ($r = .10$, ns) or between conscientiousness and OCBO ($r = -.07$, ns). Agreeableness was also unrelated to both OCBI ($r = .01$, ns) and OCBO ($r = -.17$, ns) in the study.

Hypothesis 2 predicted agreeableness and conscientiousness to be more strongly related to ratings of OCB than ratings of in-role task performance. This hypothesis is unsupported by the correlation results as discussed above. Further, while it was assumed that both agreeableness and conscientiousness would show some positive relationship to task performance, those hypotheses did not receive support. Agreeableness was unrelated to task performance ($r = -.17$, ns) as was conscientiousness ($r = -.06$, ns).

Hypothesis 3 predicted negative relationships between resource constraints and OCB. As seen in Table 3, no significant relationships were found between resource constraints and OCBI ($r = -.05$, ns) or OCBO ($r = .02$, ns).

Hypotheses 4 and 5 proposed a positive relationship between each of the job characteristics and OCBI or OCBO respectively. Hypothesis 4 differed only in that feedback from agents was not predicted to affect the OCBO relationship. Positive, significant relationships were supported between task identity ($r = .20$, $p < .05$) and feedback from agents ($r = .19$, $p < .05$) with OBI. Hypothesis 4, therefore, received

limited support. Hypothesis 5 received limited support as well as task identity ($r = .22$, $p < .05$) was the only job characteristic scale found to be related to OCBO in this sample.

Meaningfulness is a composite scale created by averaging task significance, task identity, and skill variety scales for each case. This scale was not found to be related to OCBI ($r = .15$, $p < .05$) and OCBO ($r = .10$, $p < .05$).

Moderated Regression Analyses

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to test the hypothesis that situational constraints exert a moderating effect on each of the personality-performance relationships. In other words, in strong situations, the personality-performance relationship was proposed to be constrained in such a way that even those likely to engage in OCBs will be less likely to do so. Separate moderated regression analyses were conducted for each hypothesized relationship using methods outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Aiken and West (1991). In the first step, the personality and constraint variables were entered. In the second step, the interaction term of the two predictors was entered. All predictor variables were centered prior to analysis to mitigate any collinearity effects (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

The unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients are reported for each step in Tables 5-8 for each of the hypothesized moderating relationships. Support for each hypothesized relationship is indicated by a significant interaction ($t \geq 1.96$) term in the second step of the hierarchical regression analysis. Main effects for each predictor are also possible and are indicated by significant results ($t \geq 1.96$) of the entered predictor in Step 2. It is also important to understand the amount of variance accounted for by the

model. The R^2 values are reported for Step 1 and Step 2, respectively. A significant increase in the amount of variance accounted for in the model from Step 1 to Step 2 indicates the interaction's effect on the overall relationship is accounting for unique variance in the model. Both steps are included in the following tables for clarity, though it should be noted that any discrepancies in the coefficients between the steps are due to rounding as the main effects for each step will be unchanged.

While discussion of the results in this study refers to the situation's moderating effects on the personality-performance relationship, it is important to note that this relationship can be interpreted in a reciprocal manner such that personality also moderates the impact of the situation on OCB. It is not in the scope of the present study to predict the cause-effect relationship of the personality-situation interaction. The indication of a moderating effect on its own is an important research question to investigate. Specific results are now discussed.

Citizenship Behaviors Directed at the Individual

Tables 5 and 6 report the results of the hierarchical regression analyses of the possible moderators of the agreeableness-OCBI and conscientiousness-OCBI relationship, respectively. Situational variables were hypothesized to moderate the direct effects of agreeableness and conscientiousness on OCBI. Specifically, these personality-OCBI relations were proposed to be stronger when resource constraints were low than when resource constraints were high. In contrast, the personality-OCBI relations were proposed to be stronger when the components of the JCM were high than when they were low.

Effects of Situational Variables on Agreeableness-OCBI Relationship

The hypothesized moderating relationships between situational variables and agreeableness on OCBI were not supported (see Table 5 below). However, there was a main effect found for the feedback from agents predictor ($\beta = .19, t = 2.12$). This main effect indicates that as individuals perceived more feedback from coworkers and managers, they were more likely to engage in OCBs that benefit their coworkers or others in the organization.

Table 5

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing the Impact of Situational Constraints and Agreeableness on OCBI (N=129).

Step and Predictor	B	SE	β	t	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1 (df=2, 126)					.01	.01
Autonomy	.00	.05	.03	.37		
Agreeableness	.02	.02	.01	.08		
Step 2 (df=1, 125)					.03	.02
Autonomy	.00	.05	.03	.56		
Agreeableness	.02	.02	.01	.11		
Autonomy x Agreeableness	.03	.02	.16	1.75		
Step 1					.02	.02
Meaningfulness	.10	.06	.14	1.68		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.10		
Step 2					.02	.00
Meaningfulness	.10	.06	.14	1.50		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.00		
Meaningfulness x Agreeableness	-.02	.02	-.08	-.93		
Step 1					.04	.04
Feedback from Agents	.08	.04	.19	2.12*		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.11		
Step 2					.04	.00
Feedback from Agents	.11	.04	.19	2.12*		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.12		
Feedback from Agents x Agreeableness	.01	.02	.04	.42		
Step 1					.00	.00
Feedback from Job	.03	.04	.06	.64		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.00	.01		
Step 2					.01	.01
Feedback from Job	.03	.04	.06	.64		
Agreeableness	.01	.02	.02	.26		
Feedback from Job x Agreeableness	.01	.02	.05	.56		
Step 1					.00	.00
Resources	-.06	.11	-.05	-.54		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.08		
Step 2					.01	.01
Resources	-.06	.11	-.05	-.52		
Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.06		
Resources x Agreeableness	-.2	.05	-.04	-.46		

B = Unstandardized regression weights; β = Standardized regression weights

* Significant at the 0.05 level;

Effects of Situational Variables on Conscientiousness-OCBI Relationship

Table 6 (see below) reports the results of the hierarchical regression analyses of the possible moderators of the conscientiousness-OCBI relationship. Situational variables were hypothesized to moderate the direct effects of conscientiousness on OCBI. Specifically, these personality-OCBI relations were proposed to be stronger when resource constraints were low than when resource constraints were high. In contrast, the personality-OCBI relations were proposed to be stronger when the components of the JCM were high than when they were low.

Hypothesized moderating relationships between situational constraints and conscientiousness on OCBI were not supported. However, there was a main effect found for the feedback from agents predictor ($\beta = .18, t = 2.12$). This main effect indicates that as individuals perceived more feedback from coworkers and managers, they were more likely to engage in OCBs that benefit their coworkers or others in the organization.

Table 6

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing the Impact of Situational Constraints and
Conscientiousness on OCBI (n=129).

Step and Predictor	B	SE	β	t	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1 (df=2, 126)					.01	.01
Autonomy	.01	.05	.02	.32		
Conscientiousness	.01	.05	.10	1.14		
Step 2 (df=1, 125)					.02	.01
Autonomy	.01	.05	.02	.32		
Conscientiousness	.01	.05	.10	1.14		
Autonomy x Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.01	-.86		
Step 1					.03	.03
Meaningfulness	.09	.06	.13	1.45		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.07	.80		
Step 2					.04	.01
Meaningfulness	.09	.06	.13	1.45		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.07	.80		
Meaningfulness x Conscientiousness	-.02	.01	-.11	-1.19		
Step 1					.04	.04
Feedback from Agents	.08	.04	.18	2.12*		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.09	1.06		
Step 2					.05	.01
Feedback from Agents	.08	.04	.18	2.12*		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.09	1.06		
Feedback from Agents x Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.05	.57		
Step 1					.01	.01
Feedback from Job	.02	.04	.04	.48		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.10	1.07		
Step 2					.02	.01
Feedback from Job	.02	.04	.04	.48		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.10	1.07		
Feedback from Job x Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.77		
Step 1					.01	.01
Resources	-.04	.11	-.04	-.40		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.10	1.09		
Step 2					.02	.01
Resources	-.04	.11	-.04	-.40		
Conscientiousness	.01	.01	.10	1.10		
Resources x Conscientiousness	.02	.03	.06	.71		

B = Unstandardized regression weights; β = Standardized regression weights

* Significant at the 0.05 level;

Citizenship Behaviors Directed at the Organization

The same logic was applied to the situational variable-personality relationships with citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization (as opposed to specific individuals). Tables 7 and 8 report the results of the hierarchical regression analyses of the possible moderators of the agreeableness-OCBO and conscientiousness-OCBO relationship, respectively.

Effects of Situational Variables on Agreeableness-OCBO Relationship

Table 7 (see below) reports the results of the hierarchical regression analyses of the possible moderators of the agreeableness-OCBO relationship. Support was found for the hypothesized interaction of autonomy and agreeableness with the OCBO dependent variable. Autonomy and agreeableness were entered into the first step of the hierarchical regression analysis. This model was not statistically significant, $F(2, 126) = .30$, ns, $R^2 = .03$. In the second step of the analysis, the interaction term was entered resulting in a non-significant model, $F(1, 125) = .22$, ns, $R^2 = .06$. The R^2 change from Step 1 to Step 2 was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$) suggesting that the interaction contributed significant variance beyond the proportion of criterion variance accounted for by the main effects of the predictors. The standardized regression coefficient of the interaction term ($\beta = .19$; $t = 2.12$) indicates the amount of increase in each 1 unit increase in the dependent variable. Figure 4 presents a graphical depiction of the agreeableness-autonomy interaction effect. As the situation moves from one of low autonomy to high autonomy, individuals higher in agreeableness tended to display more citizenship behaviors than their less agreeable counterparts.

Table 7

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing the Impact of Situational Constraints and Agreeableness on OCBO (N=129).

Step and Predictor	B	SE	β	t	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1 (df=2, 126)					.03	.03
Autonomy	.00	.04	.01	.09		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.17	-1.88		
Step 2 (df=1, 125)					.06*	.03
Autonomy	.01	.04	.01	.09		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.17	-1.88		
Autonomy x Agreeableness	.03	.02	.19	2.2*		
Step 1					.04	.04
Meaningfulness	.07	.06	.12	1.34		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.17	-1.95		
Step 2					.05	.01
Meaningfulness	.07	.06	.12	1.34		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.17	-1.95		
Meaningfulness x Agreeableness	-.02	.02	-.07	-.77		
Step 1					.05	.05
Feedback from Agents	.06	.03	.14	1.65		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.17	-1.90		
Step 2					.05	.00
Feedback from Agents	.06	.03	.14	1.65		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.17	-1.90		
Feedback from Agents x Agreeableness	.00	.02	.01	.11		
Step 1					.04	.04
Feedback from Job	.04	.04	.09	1.04		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.18	-1.90		
Step 2					.04	.00
Feedback from Job	.04	.04	.09	1.04		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.18	-1.90		
Feedback from Job x Agreeableness	.02	.02	.08	.90		
Step 1					.03	.03
Resources	.01	.10	.01	.13		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.16	-1.87		
Step 2					.03	.00
Resources	.01	.10	.01	.13		
Agreeableness	-.04	.02	-.16	-1.87		
Resources x Agreeableness	-.02	.04	-.05	-.53		

B = Unstandardized regression weights; β = Standardized regression weights

* Significant at the 0.05 level;

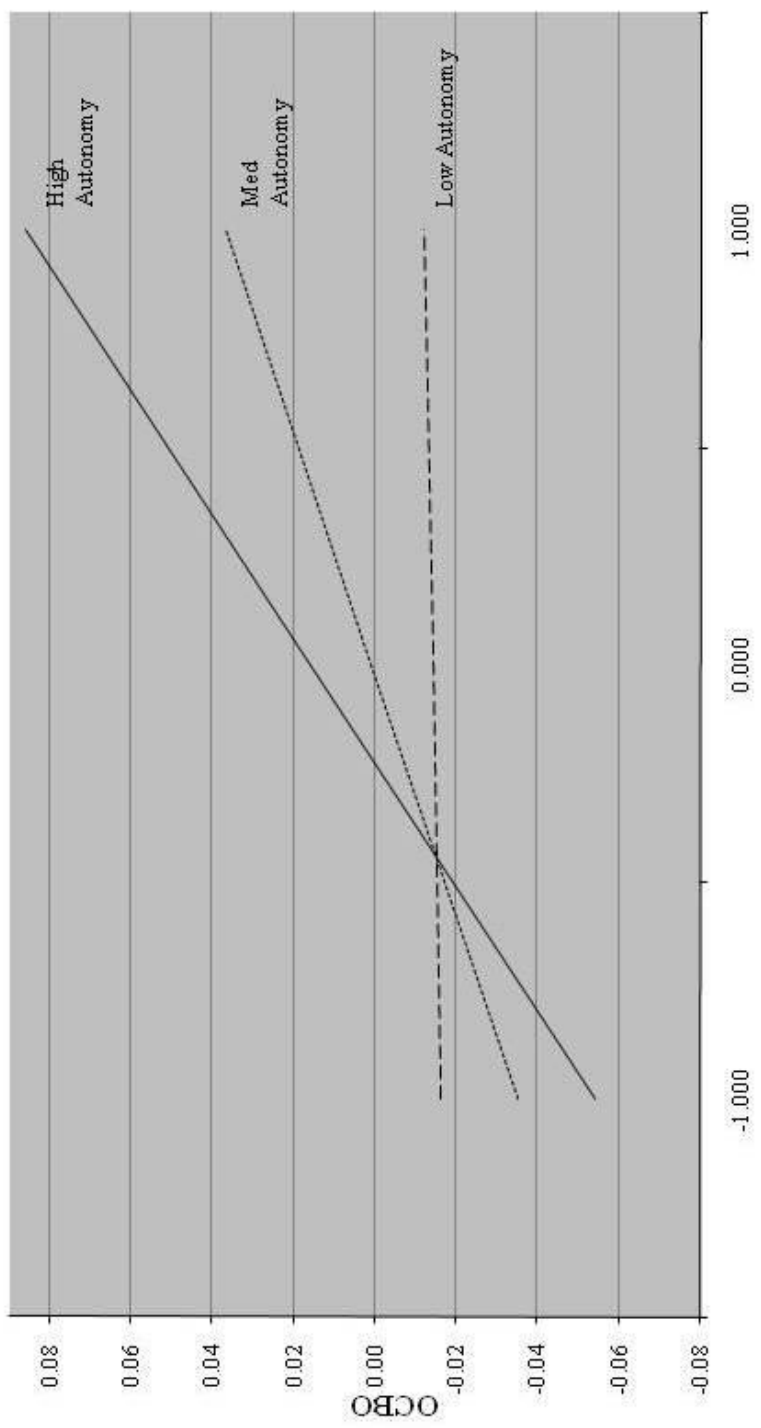


Figure 3. Graphical Representation of the Interaction Between Agreeableness and Autonomy for OCBO

No other situational variables were revealed as moderators in this analysis. A main effect was found for meaningfulness in the work ($\beta = .20, t = 2.22$) on OCBO. As individuals found the work more meaningful, they were more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors directed at the organization as a whole. A main effect was also found for the feedback from agents predictor ($\beta = .23, t = 2.70$). No other main effects for situational constraint predictors were supported.

Effects of Situational Variables on Conscientiousness-OCBO Relationship

Table 8 reports the results of the hierarchical regression analyses of the possible moderators of the conscientiousness-OCBO relationship. An examination of this table reveals that no support was found for any of the hypothesized moderated relationships between conscientiousness and OCBO.

Table 8

Hierarchical Regression Analyses Testing the Impact of Situational Constraints and
Conscientiousness on OCBO (N=129).

Step and Predictor	B	SE	β	t	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1 (df=2, 126)					.01	.01
Autonomy	.00	.04	.00	.03		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.77		
Step 2 (df=1, 125)					.01	.00
Autonomy	.00	.05	.00	.00		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.77		
Autonomy x Conscientiousness	.00	.01	-.03	-.27		
Step 1					.02	.02
Meaningfulness	.07	.06	.11	1.20		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.78		
Step 2					.02	.00
Meaningfulness	.07	.06	.11	1.20		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.77		
Meaningfulness x Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.06	-.60		
Step 1					.03	.03
Feedback from Agents	.06	.03	.15	1.69		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.08	-.87		
Step 2					.03	.00
Feedback from Agents	.06	.03	.15	1.69		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.08	-.87		
Feedback from Agents x Conscientiousness	.00	.01	.02	.24		
Step 1					.01	.01
Feedback from Job	.04	.04	.08	.88		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.08	-.89		
Step 2					.01	.00
Feedback from Job	.04	.04	.08	.88		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.08	-.89		
Feedback from Job x Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.05	-.51		
Step 1					.01	.01
Resources	.01	.10	.01	.09		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.76		
Step 2					.01	.00
Resources	.01	.10	.01	.09		
Conscientiousness	-.01	.01	-.07	-.76		
Resources x Conscientiousness	.03	.03	.10	1.04		

B = Unstandardized regression weights; β = Standardized regression weights
Significant at the 0.05 level;

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

General Discussion

Perhaps the most important finding from this study is that situational variables play a role in the display of citizenship behaviors directed at both individuals and the organization. More specifically, it was the components of the job characteristics model rather than resource constraints that were predictive of both types of OCBs. Thus, this discussion will begin by focusing on the relations between the components of the JCM and organizational citizenship behaviors.

JCM as Model of Situational Variables

The Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) is an intuitively appealing model to use as a framework for understanding the job specific situational variables that might influence job performance, especially those voluntary behaviors included within the domain of OCB. Specifically, this study proposed positive relationships between the various scales of the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) and OCB. Of these scales, feedback from agents and task identity were related to OCBI. Task identity is the sense that an individual feels that they complete an entire piece of work. As an employee feels more and more responsible for a significant portion of the work, they are more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors directed at both the organization and its individual members.

Feedback from others (e.g., peers, supervisor) was also shown to be positively related to OCBI. Meta-analytic studies (e.g., Podsakoff, et al., 1996a) have shown significant positive relationships for feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks (i.e.,

meaningfulness) on OCB. Organ, et al. (2006) re-analyzed the Podsakoff, et al., (1996) data to test for mediation of satisfaction between the task characteristics and OCB. Their results indicated both direct and indirect (mediation through satisfaction) relationships for OCB. They reported that satisfaction fully mediated task feedback (i.e., feedback from the job) on employee courtesy (i.e., OCBI) while partially mediating its effects on altruism and sportsmanship (i.e., OCBO). Task feedback is similar to, but conceptually distinct from feedback from others. This may explain a lack of support in the present study for feedback from the job as it was not found to be related to either OCBI or OCBO. There was no analysis of feedback from others in the referenced study.

There have been no studies examining the individual effects of task autonomy, variety, and significance on OCB. Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ (1990) used a combination of these scales along with task feedback and task variety on OCB. The authors labeled this composite scale 'job scope' and found that it was positively related to altruism (OCBI) and compliance (OCBO) after controlling for job satisfaction and perceived leader fairness. To be sure, there is much research still needed to understand the direct and indirect effects for job characteristics on OCBI and OCBO. Interestingly, after controlling for task scope, there were no significant results found for either job satisfaction or perceived leader fairness for compliance (again, a form of OCBO). It seems plausible that citizenship behaviors at the organizational level to be less influenced by job satisfaction than that of citizenship behaviors directed at the individual. This will, of course, continue to be only conjecture until further investigations take these aspects into account simultaneously. Prediction and explanation of these voluntary behaviors,

taking into account aspects of the situation in which the work takes place, deserves more attention.

Satisfaction may be the most commonly suggested mediator for the JCM-performance relationship, but others have been investigated as well. For example, Cardona, Lawrence, and Bentler (2004) investigated affective commitment as a potential mediator between two job characteristics and OCB. The authors found task feedback and autonomy influenced OCB through their impact on affective commitment toward the organization.

Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) explored the mediating effects for an employee's perceptions of the covenantal relationship with their organization. The authors argue that jobs higher in the various constructs identified by the JCM will experience heightened meaningfulness and accountability to the organization, thereby leading to increased rates of OCB. The authors used the JCM motivating potential score (combination of all JCM scales, Hackman & Oldham, 1974) as a measure of meaningfulness. They found perceived covenantal relationships to fully mediate most of the relationships between the job characteristics and forms of OCB (Van Dyne, et al., 1994). For example, covenantal relationship fully mediated positive relationships between job characteristics and organizational loyalty (one form of OCBO).

Material Resources and OCB

Hypothesis 3 posited that resource constraints would be negatively related to both forms of OCB. There was no correlational relationship found between resource constraints and either form of OCB. There has been little to no emphasis in the literature

regarding this relationship, and therefore, no past studies to indicate whether this finding is an anomaly. Resource constraints have been shown to be negatively related with task performance (e.g., Kane, 1997). Though not hypothesized in the present study, a review of the results indicates a lack of support for even this aspect of resource constraints. The overall variability of the scale in this sample was quite low. It is not possible to discern if this lack of variation was due to sample idiosyncrasies or was a function of a truly unconstrained working environment. In fact, it may be the case that this form of situational constraint is less likely in the context of the present study (professional jobs) than in a blue collar role where a lack of material resources is likely to have a more significant impact. When conducting studies in professional settings, this would have the effect of decreasing the amount of possible variance leading to a restriction of range issue and an inability to detect differences in the work environment if, in fact, they are present. Indeed, this study may well have borne the effects of just such a restriction of range on the material resources predictor.

Personality-Performance Relationship

The results of previous research indicated that agreeableness and conscientiousness would be positively related to both forms of OCB. Hypothesis 1 assumed a positive relationship for both agreeableness and conscientiousness with OCBI and OCBO. Hypothesis 2 assumed that the relationships between personality variables and OCB would be stronger than the personality-task performance relationships. Unfortunately, neither hypothesis received support in the present study. Not only were agreeableness and conscientiousness found not to be related to OCBI or OCBO, the two

personality variables were also found not to have a positive relationship with task performance. This is surprising, indeed. Past personality research has often cited an expected relationship between conscientiousness and agreeableness with OCB (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997), though empirical evidence revealed lower levels of relationships than expected (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Borman, et al., 2001). Podsakoff, et al.'s (2000) meta-analytic findings supported only conscientiousness as having a strong relationship with OCB after controlling for common method variance. One possible explanation for this lack of support in previous studies is inconsistencies in the operationalization of the OCB construct (Organ, et al., 2006). The present study sought to limit this effect by using a well-validated measure of OCB (Lee & Allen, 2002). Regardless, there was no support found for a relationship between agreeableness and OCBI/OCBO or conscientiousness and OCBI/OCBO.

Moderating Effects of Situational Variables on Personality-OCB Relationship

Hypothesis 6 predicted moderating effects of the situation on the personality-OCB relationship. Current personality research has found limited support for personality variables exerting much influence over OCB (Organ, et al., 2006) thus leaving room for moderating effects of other important variables. The present study hypothesized that the employee's work environment might suppress or enhance the effects of dispositional variables for one's expression of these voluntary behaviors. The results of this study found only autonomy to be a potential moderator of the agreeableness-OCBO relationships. The lack of support for the remaining situational variables may be a function of the difficulty in discovering moderators in field settings (McClelland & Judd,

1993; Stone & Hollenbeck, 1989). One reason concerns the measurement error inevitable in field settings as opposed to the more controlled environment within which experiments take place. These errors are often exaggerated in field settings especially when using the traditional method of computing interaction terms of two predictors to test for moderators. This difficulty leads researchers to interpret even very low levels of explained variance in the interaction term (i.e., $R^2 > .01$) to be practically significant because it is greater than zero and therefore tells us something about the model.

The present study found autonomy to potentially moderate the relationship between agreeableness and citizenship behaviors directed at the organization. In low autonomy situations, agreeableness was rather unrelated to the display of OCBs at the organizational level. In high autonomy situations, on the other hand, individuals high in agreeableness were more likely to engage in these citizenship behaviors. In other words, employees who perceived themselves as having little control over their work were similarly likely to engage in OCBs toward the organization regardless of individual levels of agreeableness. When employees did perceive themselves as having control over their work, those higher in agreeableness were rated as displaying more OCBs than their low agreeableness counterparts.

CHAPTER VI: IMPLICATIONS

Relative to current theories of job performance (i.e., those that include some form of OCBs), the findings of this study emphasize the importance of specifying the role of situational variables. Job performance does not exist in an organizational vacuum. Models of performance routinely focus on ability and motivation as determinants of performance but do not necessarily consider how the influence of these variables might differ in different job situations. As an example, Hogan et al., (1997) suggest that ambitious employees are more likely to engage in OCBs when they perceive opportunities for advancement.

An ongoing research question pertains to the usefulness of distinguishing between types of OCB (Humphrey, et al., 2006), and instead focusing on OCB as a single construct. As this debate continues, it is useful to investigate the manner in which antecedents might differently affect OCBI versus OCBO even when the two constructs are highly correlated. The present study did, in fact, find the two to be quite highly correlated. However, feedback from agents was found to influence OCBI over OCBO suggesting the importance for continuing to investigate the two types of OCBs separately. In practice, organizations may very well benefit from understanding how the job environment may impact OCBs through the influence of the situation on employee motivations. Organizations can benefit from removing obstacles that hinder employee performance or allow employees to perceive increased control over the work.

CHAPTER VII: LIMITATIONS

A major limitation of this study concerns the generalizability of the current study to the population. Small sample size within a cross-sectional research design does little to inform researchers of the relationships under investigation in other, non-analogous settings. Further, the sample size may not allow for the detection of small relationships and certainly makes it quite difficult to discover interaction effects that may be present but go undetected due to sample characteristics. A few of the situational constraint relationships were of comparable magnitude reported in other studies using larger sample sizes. With increased power, the present study may well have found that an increased number of the situational constraints were statistically significant or had moderating effects on the personality-OCB relationship. However, it is conversely true that hypotheses finding support were simply attributable to sampling error or other artifacts within the data. To further investigate the hypothesized relationships, replication studies in other organizations with larger samples must be done. The present study was conducted in a professional setting with a limited cross-section of employees. In the future, it is recommended that samples be drawn from a more diverse group of organizations and across a broader range of roles and job settings.

The present study did not include measures of job satisfaction which has been shown in the past to be positively related to OCBs (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and argued to commonly act as a mediator. Though it was not within the scope of the present study to do so, future investigations should include job satisfaction as a potential mediator of the job characteristics-OCB relationships.

Another limitation of the study involves the use of employee perceptions of as a measure of the job characteristics. Some researchers have suggested that employee perceptions may be unreliable as a measure of true characteristics of a given job. The argument specifies that individuals in the same role may perceive different levels of, say, autonomy, even when a 'true' level of autonomy exists for that role. The solution is to provide objective measures of job characteristics as a proxy for this 'true' amount. Hackman and Oldham (1975) contend that employees are able to accurately perceive levels of job enrichment and, hence, employee ratings are a suitable measure. The present study may very well have benefited from including objective measures of job characteristics in addition to employee perceptions. This may have been accomplished through extensive job analysis of the included positions. However, because OCBs are expected to have a motivational component, employee perceptions of job characteristics are more meaningful in this research context

CHAPTER VIII: FUTURE DIRECTIONS

More research is needed to better understand the complexities of the job characteristics-OCB relationships. The small amount of research to date focusing on the situation in which an employee finds himself must continue to be investigated. The present study is one of the first to investigate the potential moderating impact of situational constraints on personality-OCB relationships. Further, studies thus far have relied by far on correlational methods. Recent advances in covariance analysis and latent model analysis through structural equations models extend a researcher's ability to evaluate scientific hypotheses in field settings (Bentler, 2007). While this does not automatically allow one to test for causal relationships, it does have the potential so long as the research is conducted in such a way that this is possible (e.g., longitudinal studies). Advances in testing interaction effects within latent models as opposed to traditional multiple moderated regression methods also benefits future researchers. Structural equation modeling also allows for more sophisticated treatments of potential mediating variables.

The present study is fairly exploratory in nature due to a lack of previous research around the situational variable -personality-OCB relationship. Research should continue to focus on the situation as a source of meaningful variation and influence over and above the influence of personality on OCB.

CHAPTER IX: SUMMARY

The current study sought to extend the literature as it pertains to antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors directed at others in the organization and toward the organization in general. Past research has focused on personality or other employee characteristics while seemingly overlooking the environment in which the behavior takes place. This study utilized the Job Characteristics Model and material resource availability to operationalize situational variables that may affect an employee's ability or motivation to elicit OCBs in the workplace. The most important finding from this study is that situational variables play a role in the display of citizenship behaviors directed at both individuals and the organization. More specifically, it was the components of the job characteristics model rather than resource constraints that were predictive of both types of OCBs. Task identity and feedback from others was found to be positively related to OCBs directed at individuals and the organization. Support was also found for a moderating effect of perceived autonomy on agreeableness-OCBO relationships. Findings and limitations of the study are discussed. Directions for future research and implications for applied settings were also considered.

APPENDIX

Job Diagnostic Survey

Please describe your job as objectively as you can by circling the number that corresponds to your rating. Please do not use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as possible.

1. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very Little

My job gives me almost no personal “say” about how and when the work is done.

Moderate Autonomy

Many things are standardized and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.

Very Much

My job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done

2. To what extent does your job involve doing a “whole” and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Small Part

My job is only a part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service

Moderate Sized

My job is a moderate sized “chunk” of the overall work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.

Whole Part

My job involves doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish; the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service

JDS (continued)

3. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very Little

Moderate Variety

Very Much

My job requires me to do the same routine over and over again.

My job requires me to do many things using a number of different skills and talents.

4. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Not very Significant

Moderately Significant

Highly Significant

The outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people.

The outcomes of my work can affect other people in very different ways.

5. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing on your job?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7

Very Little

Moderately

Very Much

People almost never let me know how well I am doing.

Sometimes people may give me feedback; other times they may not

Managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant feedback about how well I am doing.

JDS (continued)

6. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing—aside from any feedback co-workers or supervisors may provide?

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7		
Very Little	Moderate Autonomy	Very Much
My job is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing.	Sometimes doing my job provides feedback to me, sometimes it does not.	My job is set up so that I get almost constant feedback as I work about how well I am doing.

JDS (continued)

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job. Please indicate whether each statement is an accurate or inaccurate description of your job.

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Inaccurate	Mostly Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Very Accurate

1. _SK_ My job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
2. _TI_ My job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to an entire piece of work from beginning to end.
3. _FJ_ Just doing the work required by my job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
4. _SK_ My job is quite simple and repetitive.
5. _FA_ My supervisors and co-workers almost never give me any feedback about how well I am doing in my work.
6. _TS_ A lot of other people can be affected by how well I do my work.
7. _AU_ My job doesn't give me the chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out my work.
8. _FA_ Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing my job.
9. _TI_ My job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
10. _FJ_ My job provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
11. _AU_ My job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my work.
12. _TS_ My job is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

Note: SK= skill variety, TI= task identity, TS= task significance, AU= autonomy, FJ= feedback from job itself, and FA= feedback from agents.

APPENDIX B

Material Resources Scale

Listed below are some potential problems that may interfere with your ability to perform your job effectively. Please indicate how often each of these problems affects your ability to perform your job.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Fairly Often	Very Often	Constantly

1. Important coworkers absent from work.
2. Not having enough supplies or materials to do my job.
3. My work is affected by the poor performance of coworkers in other departments.
4. Too much paperwork and reporting requirements.
5. Unpredictable workload.
6. Excessive workload.
7. Policy, procedure, or regulation changes.
8. Coworkers pressure me to limit my performance.
9. Unpredictable changes in my work.
10. Not having the equipment I need to do the work.
11. Communication within the company is poor.
12. Inconsistent quality of raw materials.

APPENDIX C

Job Performance Scale

Each item below describes a dimension of employee performance. Please read each item carefully and indicate how often the employee does each item in comparison with other employees you are familiar with using the 5-point scale. Not all statements describe positive performance.

1	2	3	4	5
Never does this	May do this rarely or infrequently	Does this as frequently as most other workers	Does this more frequently than most other workers	Does this more frequently than nearly all other workers

1. Helps others who have been absent.
2. Willingly gives time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjusts work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Goes out of way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Gives up time to help others with work or nonwork problems.
7. Assists others with their duties
8. Shares personal property with others to help their work.
9. Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
10. Keeps up with the developments in the organization.
11. Defends the organization when others criticize it.
12. Shows pride when representing the organization in public.
13. Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
14. Takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.
15. Demonstrates concern about the image of the organization.
16. Performs multiple system tasks well (e.g., scheduling, planning, costing)
17. Reviews their own work for accuracy.
18. Completes assigned duties on time.

Note: OCB-I = 1-8; OCB-O = 9-15; task performance = 16-19.

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