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DISSERTATION

PERSON, SITUATION, AND INTERACTIVE INFLUENCES ON INDIVIDUALS' WILLINGNESS TO ENGAGE IN CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOR

Submitted by James C. Beaty, Jr.

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In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Summer, 2000

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COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY

June 1, 2000

WE HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE DISSERTATION PREPARED UNDER OUR SUPERVISION BY JAMES C. BEATY, JR. ENTITLED PERSON, SITUATION, AND INTERACTIVE INFLUENCES ON INDIVIDUALS' WILLINGNESS TO ENGAGE IN CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOR BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING IN PART THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY.

Committee on Graduate Work

Adviser

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

PERSON, SITUATION, AND INTERACTIVE INFLUENCES ON INDIVIDUALS' WILLINGNESS TO ENGAGE IN CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE BEHAVIOR

Empirical evidence is mounting that contextual performance is an important organizational variable. A model comprised of dispositional and situational variables, as well as interactions between them, is proposed to explain the occurrence of individual contextual performance behaviors in organizations. In addition, it was hypothesized that several management practices indirectly influence contextual performance behavior by creating a work situation that encourages contextual performance. The results of the study provided support for a situation-based measure that was strongly related to contextual performance behavior at work, but failed to provide support for the interaction between dispositions and situational influences in predicting contextual performance behavior.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Research demonstrating the significant influence of contextual performance behavior on managerial ratings of job performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Hui, 1993) and objective measures of work group performance (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997), has established contextual performance as an important organizational variable. Accordingly, researchers have worked fervently to identify antecedents of contextual performance behavior. As Organ and Paine (1999) have noted, research on contextual performance and the highly related construct of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were born out of two different orientations toward explaining contextual performance behavior. Early OCB research tended to focus on situational determinants of citizenship behavior, whereas contextual performance research has focused almost exclusively on dispositional antecedents. Although both approaches have experienced success in terms of identifying important antecedents, the successes have been limited in some aspects. Personality characteristics, although correlated with contextual performance (Beaty, Cleveland, & Murphy, In Press; Hattrup, O'Connell, & Wingate, 1998, McManus & Kelly, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), have demonstrated much lower validities than were originally expected when the job performance theory was first articulated. OCB

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demonstrates significant correlations with several work attitudes (Organ & Ryan, 1995). But as Konovsky and Organ (1996) note, this research has, for the most part, only indirectly assessed the impact of situational influences on OCB through the measurement of work attitudes.

The current study proposes a framework for directly assessing the impact of dispositional and situational variables and their interactions on contextual performance. The model is based on the assumption that rather than being strongly influenced by skills and abilities, contextual performance behavior is the result of a *willingness* to contribute to the success of an organization by cooperating with and helping coworkers and supporting the objectives of one's work group. The model (Figure 1) is presented in four steps. First, the criterion, contextual performance is discussed. Secondly, personality characteristics and work attitudes, labeled "person predictors," are proposed to influence one's willingness to contribute to the organization via contextual performance behavior. Next, Mischel's (1977) conceptualization of situational strength is extended in order to explain how work "situations" influence individuals' willingness to contribute to their organizations via contextual performance behavior. Additionally, a non-exhaustive list of management practices proposed to impact situational strength is discussed. And finally, "person X situation" interactions are hypothesized to partially account for smaller than expected correlations between dispositional variables and contextual performance.

Contextual Performance: Construct Development and Explication

Katz and Kahn (1978) defined the technical core as that part of an organization which is responsible for converting raw materials into a product. They also distinguished between individual job performance that contributes to the technical core of an

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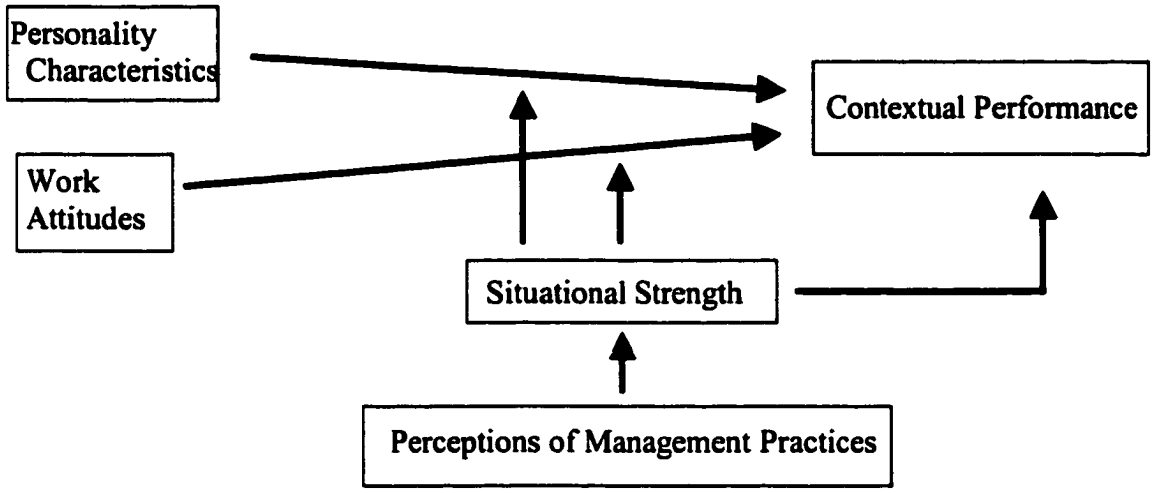

Figure 1. Model of person, situation and interactive influences on contextual performance behavior.

organization, and job performance which improves organizational functioning by supporting the technical core. Among other behaviors, they suggested that cooperative gestures and protecting or defending the organization were actions that would support the technical core and allow it to run more efficiently.

Several researchers have developed slightly different definitions of a general construct that can be loosely described as non-technical behavior at work that contributes to the effective functioning of the technical core. Organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) was among the first of these constructs to be proposed. 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 (p. 4)." Organ went on to describe OCB as helpful and cooperative gestures at work that allow people to complete their tasks (e.g., helping a coworker who has a heavy workload or is having trouble with a piece of equipment).

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Another construct that addressed this non-technical aspect of performance behavior was prosocial organizational behavior (POB). Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined POB as individual behavior that is "...performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed (p.711)." Yet another attempt to capture non-technical performance behavior at work was George and Brief's (1992) conceptualization of organizational spontaneity, "extra-role behaviors that are performed voluntarily and that contribute to organizational effectiveness (p. 311)." And finally, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) proposed that non-technical performance should be referred to as 'contextual performance.' They defined contextual performance as behavior that "...maintain(s) the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function (Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit, 1997, p. 75)."

Although different constructs have been proposed, there seems to be a great deal of conceptual overlap in the definitions of these constructs. There are, however, some distinctions between the constructs. One of the most discussed differences is the extent to which non-technical performance is formally recognized and rewarded. Organ (1988) asserted that OCB is discretionary behavior on the part of the employee and that it is not formally rewarded by the organization. Other non-technical performance construct definitions disagree in differing degrees with the premise that non-technical performance is exclusively discretionary and informally rewarded. However, Organ (1997) has recently discussed these issues and has conceded that individuals recognize OCB as in-role or expected performance behavior, and that it is also formally rewarded by organizations. In fact, Organ suggested that conceptual definitions of OCB and

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contextual performance, the two non-technical theories that have been most researched, should be considered synonymous.

Turner, Hayes, Bartle, and Green (1999) have demonstrated that in addition to conceptual overlap, there is also empirical overlap in the scales that are designed to measure the different constructs. They showed that items from scales designed to measure the different non-technical performance constructs load on three major factors that can best be described as 1) helping and assisting coworkers, 2) dealing with negative circumstances, and 3) using work time wisely.

The task of determining the number of facets that underlie non-technical performance is one that continues in the research literature. OCB and contextual performance are undoubtedly the most researched constructs because a great deal of attention surrounding them has been focused on accurately measuring their underlying dimensions. As many as five dimensions of OCB have been proposed: altruism (helping or cooperating with coworkers and supervisors), compliance (complying with organizational rules and procedures), courtesy (taking steps to avoid problems with coworkers), sportsmanship (not complaining when temporarily inconvenienced), civic virtue (involvement in organizational governance) (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Altruism and compliance are the two dimensions that have received the most attention in the research literature. Organ and Paine (1999) note that in much of the research on OCB, the altruism and compliance dimensions are often found to correlate somewhere in the range of $\underline{r} = .35$ to $\underline{r} = .70$, a range that suggests the two dimensions are highly related but distinct. This conclusion is supported by factor analysis results that demonstrate differential item loadings on the these two factors (e.g. McNeely & Meglino, 1994;

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Organ & Lingl, 1995; Smith et al., 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). This empirical evidence validates altruism and compliance as two underlying dimensions of OCB.

Fewer published investigations have examined the dimensionality of contextual performance because it was articulated more recently than OCB. The research to-date provides moderate to strong support for two dimensions of contextual performance: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) define interpersonal facilitation as "deliberate acts that improve morale, encourage cooperation, remove barriers to performance or help coworkers perform their task-oriented job activities (p. 526)" and job dedication as "self-disciplined behaviors such as following rules, working hard, and taking the initiative to solve a problem at work (p. 526)." Although these dimensional definitions have been supported by other empirical research (Conway, 1999), one issue raised by Van Scotter and Motowidlo remains unresolved. The 'working hard' or persisting with extra effort component of job dedication seems to overlap with technical performance. Interestingly, two recent studies that investigated both dimensions of contextual performance, did not include the effort component in their definitions of job dedication. Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo, & Borman (1998) refer to their job dedication measure as "work dedication" and describe their items as dealing with accountability, following rules and procedures, and listening to supervision. Goodman and Svyantek's (1998) measure does not include accountability and listening to supervision, and would best be titled 'conscientious use of work time.' As noted by Organ and Paine (1999), if persisting and exerting extra effort are removed from the definition of job dedication, the two dimensions of contextual performance begin to highly resemble the OCB dimensions of altruism and compliance.

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The possibility that OCB and contextual performance share a nearly identical underlying structure provides further support for Organ's (1997) decision to consider OCB and contextual performance synonymous constructs. It also suggests that conclusions based on either OCB or contextual performance research can in large part be generalized to the other construct (assuming that the criterion measures are similar). In the remainder of the current paper, contextual performance is the term that will be used most often to refer to non-technical performance. The term OCB will be used in reference to specific OCB research studies. However, general statements, hypotheses, and conclusions will be presented using the term 'contextual performance.' The criterion in the current study, contextual performance, is non-technical performance that facilitates smooth functioning of the technical core of an organization.

Person Predictors of Contextual Performance Behavior

Individuals' personality characteristics and their attitudes about work are among the most heavily studied antecedents of contextual performance. The personality characteristic conscientiousness and the work attitude job satisfaction are two 'person-level' predictors that have been shown to be strongly related to contextual performance. Although other personality characteristics and work attitudes are sometimes less predictive of contextual performance, on the whole, these two broad types of variables that describe individuals are valid predictors of contextual performance.

Personality. In distinguishing between task and contextual performance, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) noted that variability in task performance behavior is based in large part on the extent to which tasks are carried out proficiently. Therefore, skills and abilities required to perform a task are likely to be good predictors of proficient task

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performance. On the other hand, variability in contextual performance is determined by initiative or a willingness to, for example, cooperate with and treat coworkers fairly, and follow important rules. Thus, Borman and Motowidlo asserted that personality traits that are related to a willingness to cooperate with coworkers or persist in the face of adversity to complete a task, would be predictive of who is most likely to engage in contextual performance behavior. Research based mostly on the five-factor model of personality (McRae and Costa, 1987) has provided support for this assertion by demonstrating small to moderate relationships between broad personality dimensions and contextual performance (Beaty, Cleveland, & Murphy, In Press; Hattrup, O'Connell, & Wingate, 1998, McManus & Kelly, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Research on OCB has also found support for relationships between dimensions of the five-factor model and citizenship behavior (Brown, Diefendorff, Kamin, & Lord, 1999; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Although most of the dimensions of the five-factor model have been found to have small to moderate correlations with citizenship behavior, conscientiousness often turns out to be the dimension that is most predictive of OCB. In fact, conscientiousness is usually more predictive of the compliance dimension of OCB, in comparison to the altruism dimension.

A recent trend in research on the personality-contextual performance relationship has been to focus on specific facets of the five broad dimensions as predictors of contextual performance. For example, McManus and Kelly (1997) assessed 11 personality characteristics and correlated them with contextual performance ratings. In addition to the broad dimension of conscientiousness, they assessed facets of extraversion

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(achievement and sociability) and agreeableness (assertive and considerate) separately. In their sample of 116 insurance sales representatives, sociability, self-confidence, and analytical thinking were the strongest predictors of contextual performance behavior.

Hogan et al. (1998) focused on ambition, a facet of extraversion, and the broad dimension of conscientiousness. An additional aspect to their research was the extent to which employees had opportunities for advancement within their organizations. The authors reported that in jobs where there was not much opportunity for promotion, conscientiousness was a better predictor of contextual performance than was ambition. However, in jobs where there was opportunity for advancement, ambition was a better predictor of contextual performance than was conscientiousness. In addition to highlighting the value of examining specific facets of broad personality dimensions as they relate to contextual performance, Hogan et al.'s work demonstrated the utility of studying how certain work situations impact personality—contextual performance relationships.

Midili and Penner (1995) also focused on specific facets of the five-factor model. They assessed two facets usually associated with agreeableness: empathy and helpfulness (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Analyses revealed that both empathy and helpfulness were predictive of contextual performance behavior. McNeely and Meglino (1994) also reported a small to moderate relationship between empathy and the altruism dimension of OCB. The link between these specific personality characteristics and contextual performance seems logical—a predisposition to feel concern for the well-being of others and provide assistance to people is likely to influence helpful and cooperative behaviors in the workplace. However, Rioux and Penner (1999) were not able to replicate the

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significant relationships. Conclusions should not be drawn about the usefulness of these two facets in predicting contextual performance on the basis of only three studies. The current study endeavors to further investigate the relationship between empathy, conscientiousness, and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 1: It is predicted that individuals' self-reports of the personality characteristics, empathy and conscientiousness, will be positively related to their supervisors' ratings of how likely they are to actually engage in contextual performance behavior (See Figure 2). It is further predicted that empathy will be most strongly related to interpersonal facilitation, and conscientiousness will be most strongly related to job dedication.

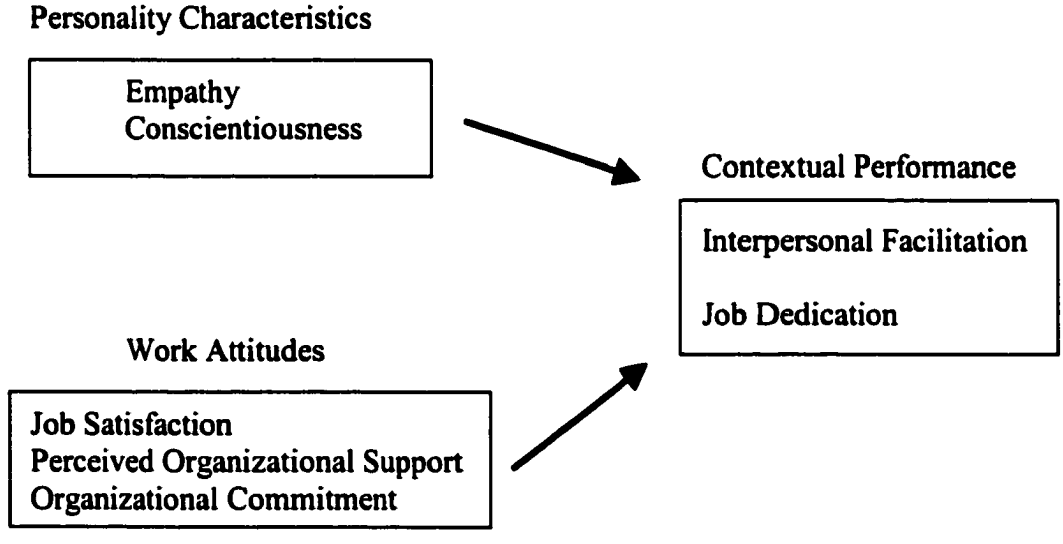

Figure 2. Hypotheses 1 and 2.

Job satisfaction. Beyond a tendency to be conscientious and empathetic, what other factors might influence individuals' willingness to go beyond the technical aspects of their job in order to perform well in their jobs? One possibility is that individuals will

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be willing to engage in contextual performance if they like their jobs, believe that there are more positive than negative aspects to their jobs, and intend to remain in their current jobs. And in fact, one of the most significant predictors of contextual performance behavior is global job satisfaction (Konovsky and Organ, 1996; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Organ and Ryan (1995) used 28 studies to meta-analytically estimate a corrected correlation of $\underline{r} = .275$ between job satisfaction and the compliance dimension of OCB, and $\underline{r} = .282$ between job satisfaction and the altruism dimension of OCB.

Researchers have put forth several explanations as to exactly why individuals who report higher levels of job satisfaction are more likely to engage in contextual performance behaviors. Organ and Lingl (1995) suggested that specific personality traits account for at least part of the apparent relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. Their assertion is that the agreeableness and conscientiousness dimensions of the five-factor model of personality account for variability in both OCB and job satisfaction, potentially resulting in a spurious relationship between OCB and job satisfaction. However, the results of their research, and others' (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; McNeely & Meglino, 1994), suggest there is more to the job satisfaction-OCB relationship than their underlying connections to dimensions of personality. Even after personality variables are considered, self-reports of job satisfaction still explain unique variability in OCB.

Another popular explanation for the job satisfaction-OCB relationship is that a mood component in satisfaction measures predicts OCB. As noted by Smith et al. (1983), this assertion is based on social psychological research which clearly

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demonstrates that a positive mood predisposes individuals to be more willing to help and cooperate with other people (Berkowitz, 1970). Although recent research has evidenced a direct link between positive affective states and citizenship-type behavior (George, 1991; Rioux & Penner, 1999; Williams & Shiaw, 1999), there is likely more to the job satisfaction-OCB relationship than mood state. A current and widely held position is that there is a large cognitive evaluation component involved in self-reports of job satisfaction (Motowidlo, 1996). In fact, Organ and Moorman (1993) suggested that what individuals are evaluating is the fairness of their organization and immediate leader, and that fairness actually mediates a great deal of the influence that job satisfaction has on OCB. There is empirical support for this argument (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990, Moorman, 1991).

Regardless of potential mediating influences, job satisfaction is often one of the strongest predictors of OCB. Perhaps this is because job satisfaction measures potentially tap personality traits, moods, cognitive evaluations about a job and work environment, and even job characteristics (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990), all of which seem to be important in terms of understanding why individuals choose to engage in contextual performance behavior.

Perceived organizational support. Evidence is mounting that a construct related to job satisfaction, perceived organizational support (POS), is also important for understanding why employees are willing to go beyond the technical aspects of their jobs and engage in contextual performance. Individuals who feel supported by their organization believe that the organization cares about them and values their contributions to the organization. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) suggested that although this conceptualization of POS overlaps somewhat with job satisfaction, the

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unique aspect of POS is that employees develop these beliefs because the organization engages in discretionary action to improve and maintain job and working conditions. They argue that job satisfaction is influenced by the prevailing job conditions in general, but that POS is influenced by job conditions that are under the discretionary control of the organization. Voluntary actions on the part of the organization, such as giving bonuses, providing training, taking steps to ensure fair appraisal procedures, and establishing work-life balance policies, all signal to employees that the organization values them and their contributions to the organization

It seems likely that individuals will be more likely to go beyond the technical aspects of their jobs when they feel that the organization values their efforts and contributions. This theoretical connection between POS and contextual performance is beginning to receive support from empirical research findings. Although one study did not find a significant relationship between POS and citizenship behavior (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), several other studies have evidenced a link between the two (Moorman et al., 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Randall et al. (1999) provided further support in demonstrating a moderate relationship between POS and both the altruism and compliance dimensions of OCB. However, Randall et al. (1999) did not provide specific information on the potentially overlapping relationships between POS, job satisfaction, and OCB. Given the conceptual similarity between job satisfaction and POS, an important issue that warrants investigation is whether or not job satisfaction and POS each provide unique information about how likely individuals are to engage in contextual performance behavior.

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Organizational commitment. Individuals may also be more likely to go beyond the technical aspects of their jobs and engage in contextual performance behavior if they feel committed to their employing organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) describe strongly committed individuals as those employees who identify with, are involved in, and enjoy membership in their organization. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) were among the first to publish data that revealed a link between organizational commitment and citizenship behavior. They found that two dimensions of organizational commitment, identification (desire to be affiliated with an organization) and internalization (extent to which the employee and organization have shared values), were moderately related to behaviors that are associated with the job dedication facet of contextual performance.

Several more recent studies have also provided support for a link between organizational commitment and contextual performance behavior (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Rioux & Penner, 1999; Schappe, 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993). This research has also established that the 'affective' dimension of organizational commitment, as termed by Meyer and Allen (1984), is the aspect of organizational commitment that is most strongly tied to contextual performance. Affective organizational commitment (emotional attachment to an organization) overlaps conceptually with O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) 'identification' dimension, and is currently the most commonly measured dimension of commitment in the OCB literature. In their meta-analysis, which included seven studies on commitment and OCB, Organ and Ryan (1995) reported a mean corrected correlation of $\underline{r} = .226$ between affective commitment and the altruism dimensions of OCB, and a mean corrected correlation of $\underline{r} = .296$ between affective commitment and the compliance dimension of OCB.

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Although it seems clear that there is a relationship between organizational commitment and contextual performance behavior, an unresolved issue is whether or not commitment explains variance in contextual performance other than that which is accounted for by job satisfaction and POS. For example, Williams and Anderson (1991) included both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in their study, and organizational commitment did not account for significant variability in OCB, beyond that which was accounted for by job satisfaction. One qualification to this finding is that commitment did not have a strong zero-order relationship with OCB in the study. This may have been due, in part, to the fact that Williams and Anderson's commitment measure was not a pure affective measure, but rather a combination of O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) identification and internalization dimensions. In any case, the issue of whether or not commitment and satisfaction overlap in their explanation of contextual performance requires further investigation.

Other research suggests that there may be a similar issue with organizational commitment and POS, in terms of their shared variance with contextual performance (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). In their study of 276 employees and their supervisors, Shore and Wayne (1993) found that not only was there overlap in the OCB variability explained by commitment and POS, but once POS was entered into the regression equation, commitment did not add significantly to the explanation of OCB. POS, however, proved to be a uniquely important correlate of citizenship behavior, as it made a significant contribution to the regression equation even after first entering organizational commitment.

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The research literature clearly demonstrates that those individuals who are committed to their organizations and feel an emotional bond to their employers are more likely to go beyond the technical aspects of their jobs and engage in contextual performance. However, if we are attempting to understand who is most likely to engage in contextual performance behavior, it is unclear whether or not we need to know how committed employees are if we already know how satisfied they are with their jobs and whether or not they feel supported by their organizations.

Hypothesis 2: It is therefore expected that individuals' self-reports of job satisfaction, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment will be positively related to their supervisors' ratings of how likely they are to actually engage in contextual performance behavior (See Figure 2). In addition, it is predicted that perceived organizational support will have the greatest unique influence on contextual performance, and organizational commitment will have the smallest unique influence on contextual performance.

The Situations in Which Individuals Work as Predictors of Contextual Performance Behavior

At this point it is necessary to return to discussion of the criterion in this study. It is important to recognize that, for the most part, individuals face a "choice" as to whether or not they engage in contextual performance. That is, contextual performance is more the "will do" aspect of job performance and task performance is the "can do" aspect. Work related abilities and skills play a large roll in determining the proficiency with which individuals perform their tasks. There are, however, few ability barriers to contextual performance. Ability likely plays a small role in helping a coworker complete

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a task or following company policies and procedures. These are performance behaviors that most individuals can engage in if they are simply *willing* to perform them. This conclusion suggests that the importance that individuals place on contextual performance is a pivotal factor in determining the extent to which employees will engage in contextual performance. That is, individuals working in organizations will likely be willing to engage in behavior that they consider to be truly important to themselves, their supervisors, and their organization.

Several research studies provide support for the idea that individuals are more likely to engage in contextual performance when they believe that it is an important aspect of their job. For example, Morrison (1994) found that individuals who considered more aspects of OCB to be expected in their jobs, were more likely to engage in citizenship behavior. In a similar study, Pond, Nacoste, Mohr, and Rodriguez (1997) found that the more examples of OCB that employees considered to be formally evaluated, the higher were their self-reports of OCB. Haworth and Levy (1999) also found that individuals who considered OCB to be important and worthwhile in their jobs reported engaging in more OCBs.

> Hypothesis 3: It is therefore predicted that individuals placing greater importance on contextual performance in their jobs will be associated with their supervisors' indicating that they are more likely to actually engage in contextual performance behavior (See Figure 3).

If indeed viewing contextual performance as an important aspect of one's job is associated with individuals engaging in more non-technical performance behaviors, then it is important that we determine what factors in the job performance situation influence

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individuals' perceptions of importance. Research has demonstrated that although individuals receive cues about important performance behavior from a multitude of sources (Hanser & Muchinsky, 1978; Greller, 1980), when the concern is effective job performance, cues from their supervisors are weighted most heavily (Ashford, 1993). This research implicates supervisors and managers as important proximal influences on the importance that individuals' place on contextual performance in their jobs. The question that then arises is, what specific management practices influence subordinates perceptions of how important contextual performance behaviors are in their jobs? The OCB and contextual performance literatures suggest that communicating clear performance expectations, rewarding contextual performance behavior, ensuring an ostensible link between performance behavior and rewards, and building trustworthy supervisor—subordinate relationships are four management practices that may have a strong impact on individuals' perceptions of how important contextual performance is in their jobs.

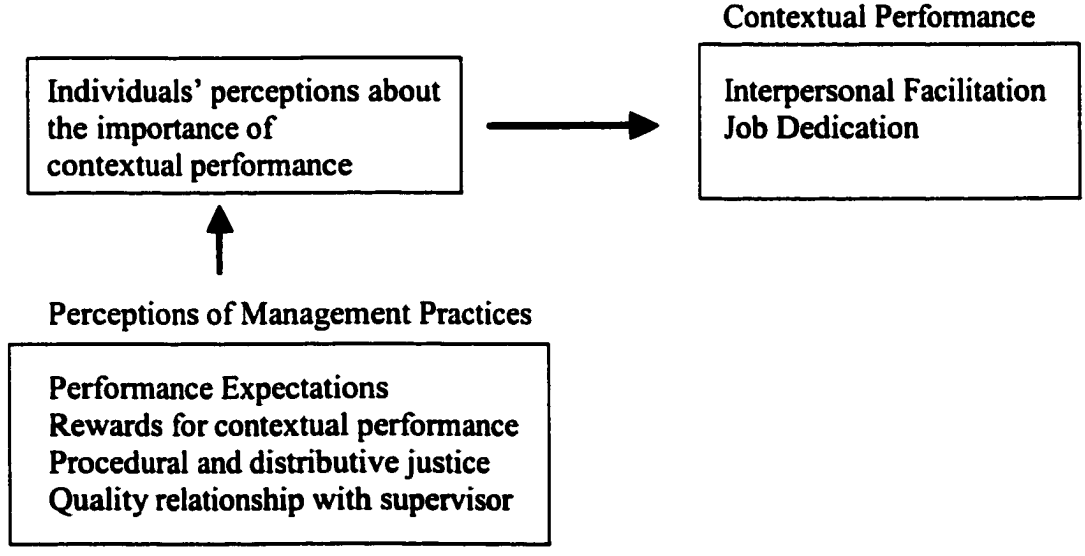

Figure 3. Hypotheses 3 and 4.

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Clarity of performance expectations. Individuals must first be aware that contextual performance behavior is an expected and important part of the job performance criterion. Podsakoff et al. (1993) noted that unless managers clearly communicate performance criteria, their subordinates may not engage in contextual performance behavior because they don't view it as an important part of their jobs. Frequent interaction between subordinate and supervisor is likely to provide both parties with the opportunity to communicate about performance criteria. In fact, Morrison (1994) demonstrated that the more time supervisors and subordinates spent interacting, the more likely they were to agree upon the subordinates job responsibilities. Similarly, Haworth and Levy (1999) found that individuals who reported they understood the performance criteria used to evaluate their performance, also reported higher levels of OCB.

Findings from research on job ambiguity also suggests that the extent to which employees understand performance criteria is related to their performance on the job. Breaugh and Colihan's (1994) work revealed that individuals who reported that they understood what was considered acceptable performance on their jobs, were also rated as higher performers by their supervisors. Although the performance ratings in this research concerned overall job performance, as noted earlier, overall supervisory ratings have been show to be influenced by contextual performance behavior.

Finally, Pearce and Herbik (1999) found that the occurrence of OCB in teams was most strongly influenced by whether or not the team leader emphasized OCB as an important aspect of the team members' jobs. Subordinates choose whether or not to engage in contextual performance. If they understand that it is an important aspect of

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their jobs they'll be more willing to perform the non-technical portions of their job responsibilities.

Rewards for contextual performance. Although research demonstrates that subordinate understanding of performance criteria is important, supervisors must also be clear that contextual performance behavior is rewarded (Podsakoff et al., 1993). As E. L. Thorndike's "law of effect" states, rewarded behavior is likely to reoccur. It may seem obvious to say, reward desirable behavior so that it will continue, but the manner in which contextual performance is actually rewarded has historically been a debated issue. As noted previously, one of the last standing distinctions between OCB and contextual performance was the extent to which non-technical performance was discretionary and informally rewarded. Previous OCB research (Smith et al., 1983) stressed that OCB is discretionary, even to the point that it is difficult to penalize individuals for not engaging in citizenship behavior. Since the behavior is not required by job descriptions, it was argued, the rewards for engaging in such behavior are not those which are formally recognized (i.e., pay raise or bonus). OCB was clearly seen as behavior above and beyond the call of duty that was rewarded in some informal manner (e.g., praise or personal favor). However, Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) work delineating the construct boundaries of contextual performance presents a different picture of non-technical performance. They stated that although non-technical performance is less likely to be role-prescribed than are task behaviors, "contextual performance criteria should be considered in developing criteria for personnel selection (p. 75)." The implication is that this type of behavior is important and therefore should be explicitly recognized and rewarded as another dimension of job performance.

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By 1997, in an issue of *Human Performance* that was dedicated to OCB, Motowidlo Borman and Schmit avoided discussion of in-role versus extra-role behavior and presented task and contextual performance as two broad dimensions of job performance. In the same issue of *Human Performance*, Organ (1997) stated that continuing to define and investigate OCB as discretionary and informally rewarded was not likely to be fruitful. As noted earlier, he also went on to state that OCB and contextual performance were essentially the same construct. Organ and Paine (1999) generally restated this perspective concerning the synonymous nature of OCB and contextual performance.

The decision to consider contextual performance an explicit aspect of job performance that should be rewarded through the same mechanisms as task performance, is supported by research on both OCB and contextual performance that suggests supervisors do consider contextual performance behavior in their ratings of subordinates' performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui, 1993) and reward decisions (Allen & Rush, 1998; Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999). If supervisors consider contextual performance important and worthy of reward, then it should be made clear to subordinates that non-technical performance is an expected and rewarded aspect of job performance.

McNeely and Meglino (1994) found that when individuals reported that their supervisors were likely to recognize and reward their prosocial work behavior, peer ratings of their prosocial organizational behavior were higher. Thus, individuals are more willing to engage in prosocial behavior when they believe that they will be rewarded for their efforts.

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Link between performance and reward—organizational justice. There is a third factor that research suggests is critical in conveying contextual performance as an important aspect of job performance. Employees need to not only understand that non-technical performance is expected and rewarded by management, they also need to believe that they will actually receive rewards for engaging in desired behavior (Vroom, 1964). If individuals believe that they have engaged in contextual performance behavior for which they have not been properly rewarded, they may feel as though they have been treated unfairly. They may then discount the importance of contextual performance in their jobs and in turn be less likely to perform the non-technical aspects of their jobs in the future.

Fair treatment in organizations is often referred to as organizational justice. Research on fairness in organizations suggests that there are two broad types of organizational justice (Folger & Greenberg, 1985). First, the extent to which individuals believe that the rewards for performance are distributed fairly (distributive justice). Secondly, the extent to which individuals believe that the procedures used to determine how the rewards are distributed, are fair (procedural justice).

Findings from a multitude of studies indicate that the more individuals perceive there to be distributive and procedural justice in their work situation, the more likely they will be to engage in contextual performance (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Moorman, 1991; Morrman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995). A recent meta-analysis using data from seven published studies (Bartle & Hayes, 1999), estimated the corrected correlation between distributive justice and OCB to be $\underline{r}$ = .25, and $\underline{r}$ = .33 between procedural justice and OCB. In fact, the meta-analysis revealed

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that both distributive and procedural justice were much more strongly related to contextual than task performance. Skarlicki and Latham (1996) investigated the causal link between fairness perceptions and OCB and found that for those managers that received fairness training, their subordinates were later more likely to engage in OCB than the subordinates of managers that did not receive fairness training. Skarlicki and Latham (1997) later replicated their work and found similar results.

The results of two studies, in particular, highlight the role that fairness plays in the importance that individuals place on contextual performance in their jobs. First, Haworth and Levy (1999) found that individuals' perceptions of how important OCB was in their job, was positively related to perceptions of procedural justice. More importantly they found that self-reports of OCB were the highest when participants felt like they understood what was expected of them, believed that there was procedural justice in their work situation, and felt that OCB was an important part of their jobs. Although their regression analyses do not allow causal conclusions to be drawn, it is clear that performance expectations, perceptions of fairness, and beliefs about the importance of OCB, are all significant factors in determining whether or not individuals engage in citizenship behavior. A second study that provides unique insight into the relationship between fairness and OCB is the work by Pond et al. (1997). They found a significant interaction between participants' perceptions of whether or not OCB was evaluated by their supervisors and procedural justice, in relation to self-reported levels of OCB. The interaction was such that participants who perceived the greatest amount of procedural justice were those who either did not engage in much OCB and believed it was not evaluated or those who engaged in a lot of OCB and believed that it was an evaluated

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aspect of job performance. In both cases, participants likely concluded that the situation was fair. However, participants who reported the lowest levels of procedural justice were those that did not engage in much OCB but believed that it was evaluated, and those who engaged in a great deal of OCB but felt it was not evaluated. Findings from this research support Organ and Moorman's (1993) assertion that fairness plays a central role in the importance that individuals place on contextual performance in their jobs. Therefore, the focus is once again on management. Managers' actions in dealing with and rewarding their employees, impacts the importance that their employees place on contextual performance, which in turn influences whether or not employees will actually engage in contextual performance behavior.

Social exchange as a reward in organizations. It is argued here that individuals are more likely to engage in contextual performance behavior if they believe that performance of the non-technical aspects of their jobs is important, expected, and something for which they will be rewarded. There are, however, rewards other than money that individuals receive from their managers. Rather than an exchange of money for contextual performance behavior, Blau (1964) argues that there is social exchange among coworkers. For example, an individual who has been aided by a coworker is then socially obligated to return the assistance—a social exchange. A large body of research on leader-member exchange (LMX) has focused on the exchange relationship between supervisors and subordinates (e.g. Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986). Through a series of social exchanges, LMX relationships develop; those relationships that are considered high quality are characterized by mutual loyalty, support, liking, respect, and trust. It has been suggested that what is often exchanged in

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these social exchange relationships is contextual performance behavior (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Organ, 1988). Therefore, engaging in contextual performance builds quality relationships between supervisors and subordinates, thereby gaining each party an individual in their organization in whom they can place their trust and count on for support, respect, and loyalty. Recent research on LMX and OCB provides strong support for a connection between the two constructs (Anderson & Williams, 1996; Deluga, 1994; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Settoon et al., 1996). This research also suggests that trust between a manager and employee is the aspect of LMX that is most salient in the connection between OCB and LMX.

The research outlined above strongly suggests that providing clear performance expectations, fairly rewarding performance, and trust building between supervisors and subordinates are several management practices that are likely to influence individuals' perceptions of the importance of contextual performance. The resulting implication is that effective management practices are central to the occurrence of contextual performance in the workplace.

Hypothesis 4: It is predicted that clear expectations for contextual performance, formal rewards for contextual performance, high levels of procedural and distributive justice, and high-quality exchange relationships with supervisors will all be associated with individuals placing greater importance on contextual performance (See Figure 3). In addition, it is predicted that the importance placed on contextual performance by subordinates will mediate the relationship between the management practices and supervisory ratings of subordinates' levels of contextual performance behavior.

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Strong versus weak situations for contextual performance. A variety of management practices are likely to influence the extent to which employees perceive that contextual performance is an important part of their jobs. In turn, each individual's perception of the importance of contextual performance is likely to have an influence on his or her actual contextual performance behavior. However, not all employees, even those in the same job or department, may share similar perceptions about the importance of contextual performance. Perhaps a supervisor provides inconsistent or unclear information concerning performance expectations or rewards for performance. Or, a supervisor may form higher quality relationships with select subordinates. If for one or more of these reasons there is variability in individuals' perceptions concerning the importance of contextual performance, the job performance situation is referred to as a "weak" (Mischel, 1977). In weak situations coworkers do not share a common perception about which behaviors are appropriate, expected and rewarded.

Two lines of research provide empirical support for the existence of weak situations. First, the presence of substantial variability in role ambiguity measures (Breaugh & Colihan, 1994) suggests that even individuals who work in the same department differ in the extent to which they understand what is expected of them. Secondly, research on OCB clearly suggests that there can be significant variability in the extent to which employees perceive that citizenship behavior is an important aspect of job performance. Morrison (1994) asked 317 clerical employees at a hospital to indicate whether 20 OCB items were either an expected part of their jobs or beyond the expectations of their jobs. Although the question participants were asked to respond to was obviously influenced by the view that OCB is discretionary, the extent to which

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participants agree provides a measure of the homogeneity of perceptions. The percentage of participants indicating that OCB items were an expected part of the job ranged from 35 to 88, and on average was 65 percent. Pond et al. (1997) asked 144 managers to indicate whether 16 OCB items were either formally evaluated or not. The percentage of participants indicating that OCB items were formally evaluated ranged from 40 to 81, and on average was 61 percent. These data suggest that weak situations for contextual performance may exist. Estimating the strength of a situation for contextual performance would be most appropriate if employees responses were aggregated based on whether they worked in the same work group or department and under the same supervisor or supervisory team.

Mischel (1977) argued that the opposite of a weak situation is a "strong situation." In a strong situation, clear, unambiguous cues from the environment (e.g., supervisor provides clear performance expectations) signal what types of behaviors are expected and will be rewarded. The precipitating effect of a strong situation is that individuals' behavior is similar. Because it is clear which behaviors are expected and rewarded, many individuals conform to the normative expectations and therefore act in a similar manner. In the work setting, if individuals working in the same work group or unit share a similar perception that contextual performance behavior is an important aspect of their jobs, then there would be a strong situation for contextual performance. It follows that the more individuals in a structurally related work environment share the perception that contextual performance is an important aspect of their jobs (strong contextual performance situation) the more prevalent contextual performance behavior will be.

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Hypothesis 5: It is therefore hypothesized that a shared perception among individuals in a work group or unit that contextual performance is an important aspect of performance, will be associated with higher levels of individual and group contextual performance, as rated by supervisors (See Figure 4).

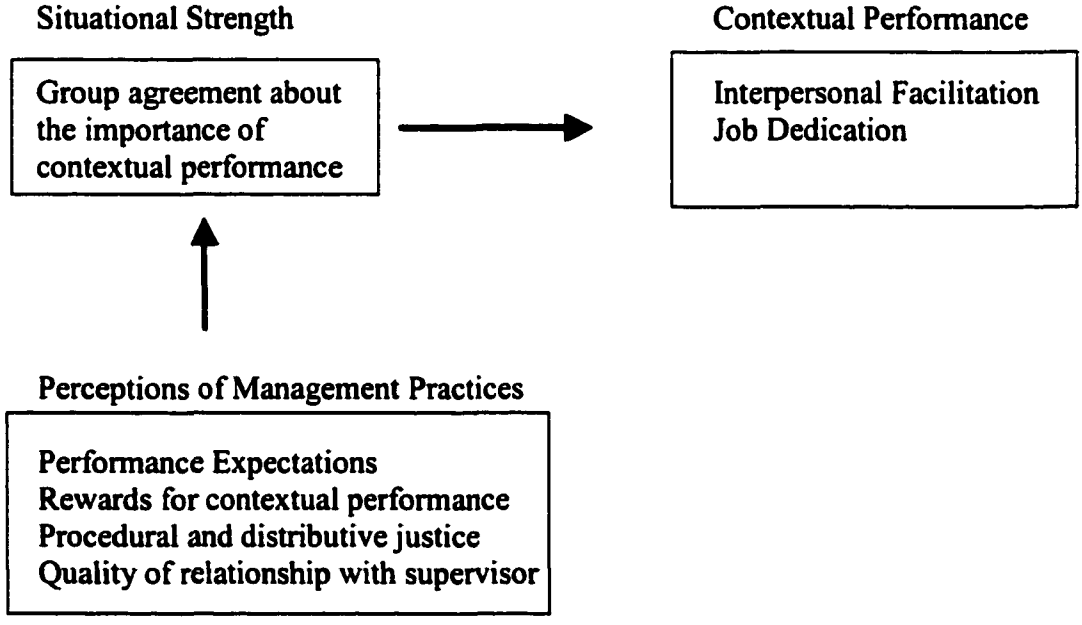

Figure 4. Hypotheses 5 and 6.

Hypothesis 6: It is hypothesized that clear expectations for contextual performance, formal rewards for contextual performance, high levels of procedural and distributive justice, and quality exchange relationships with supervisors will all be positively associated with stronger contextual performance situations (See Figure 4). In addition, it is predicted that situational strength will mediate the relationship between the management practices and supervisory ratings of subordinates' levels of contextual performance behavior.

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Person X Situation Interactions

Konovsky and Organ (1996) have suggested that the effect of dispositional variables on contextual performance should be strongest in weak situations. That is, in a weak situation there are not strong cues that signal what type of behavior is important, expected and rewarded. Therefore, individuals are more likely to rely on their personality to guide their behavior. For example, a situation might exist where employees work relatively independently on their tasks and management does not provide strong cues that contextual performance is important. Perhaps some employees notice that those employees who do engage in contextual performance behavior sometimes get rewarded for their behavior. There are not consistent and clear cues that contextual performance is an important aspect of job performance. In this situation, individuals who generally tend to be conscientious will, on average, be the employees that will be more willing engage in contextual performance.

Strong situations, on the other hand, tend to constrain the influence of dispositions. Clear cues from the environment leave little doubt as to which behaviors are important. Even individuals who vary in their dispositional profiles are more likely to comply with strong normative expectations. It is proposed here that this effect will generalize to work attitudes, albeit not as strong as the effect for personality characteristics. For example, a particular employee is not among the most highly committed individuals in his or her organization, but never-the-less shows up to work on time and does not spend significant portions of the workday in non-work conversation with coworkers. Although this individual is not highly committed to his or her organization, this employee has been told that punctuality and efficient use of work time

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are important aspects of job performance. In addition, this employee sees other employees arriving on time and making good use of their time at work. This individual might be mistaken for a highly committed employee because they are adhering to strong normative expectations and cues for contextual performance behavior. In reference to individual differences in personality characteristics, Beaty et al. (In Press) provide modest empirical support for the assertion that the strength of personality—contextual performance relationships do vary across weak and strong situations for contextual performance.

Hypothesis 7: It is therefore hypothesized that situational strength will moderate the relationship between two personality characteristics (empathy and conscientiousness) and supervisor ratings of how likely individuals are to actually engage in contextual performance behavior, such that personality will be most strongly related to supervisor ratings when the contextual performance situation is weak (See Figure 5).

Hypothesis 8: In addition, it is hypothesized that situational strength will moderate the relationship between three work attitudes (job satisfaction, perceived organizational support, and organizational commitment) and supervisor ratings of how likely individuals are to actually engage in contextual performance behavior, such that work attitudes will be most strongly related to supervisor ratings when the contextual performance situation is weak (See Figure 5).

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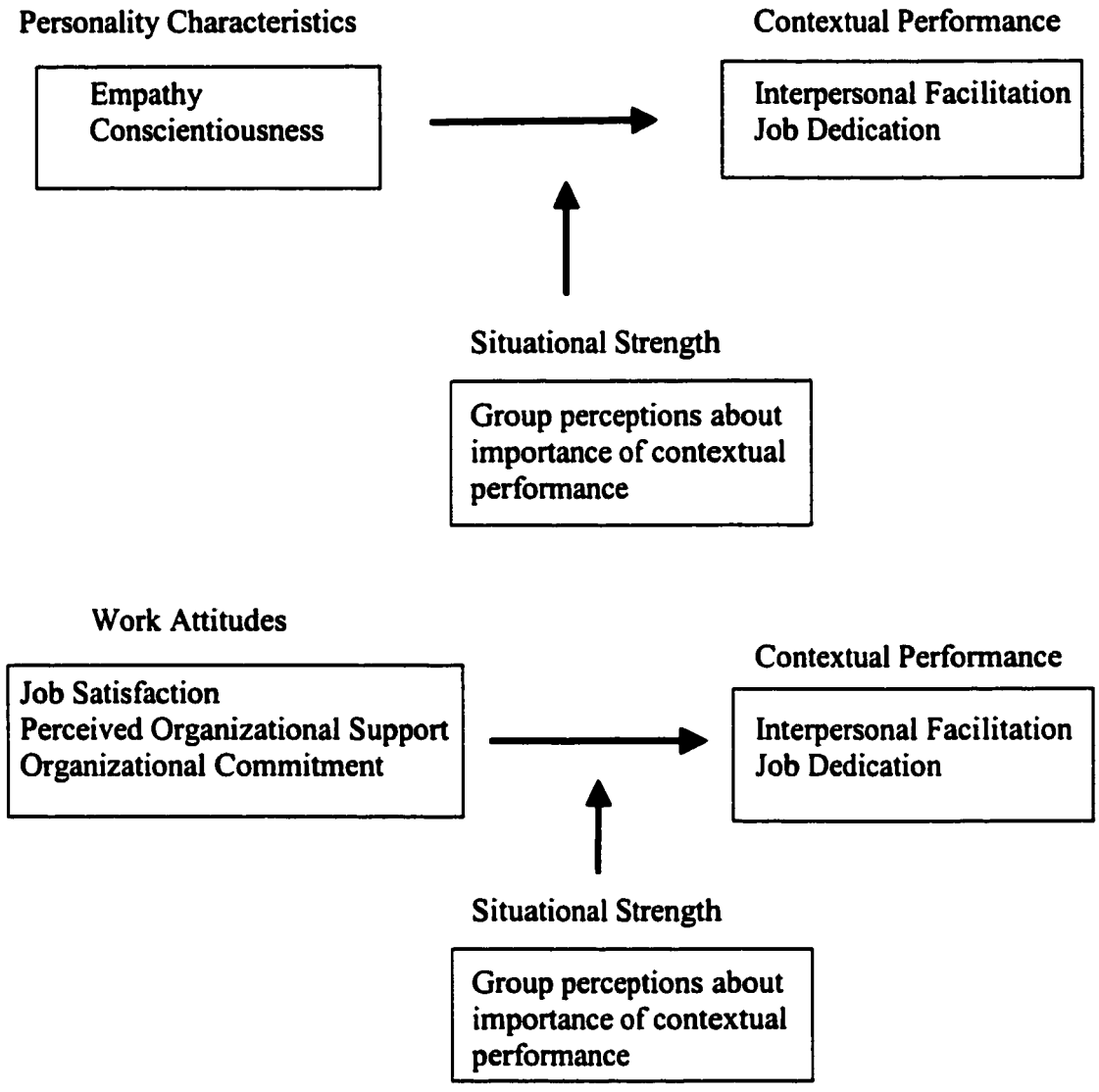

Figure 5. Moderation Hypotheses 7 and 8.

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CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

Surveys were completed by 36 supervisors and 197 of their subordinates working in a high-technology organization. Seventy-eight percent of the supervisors were men, 89 percent were white, and on average they were 42 years of age. The subordinates worked in 36 work groups that ranged in size from 4 to 18 individuals (mean = 9.2). The average age in the subordinate sample was 40, while 75 percent of the sample was male and 86 percent was white. Eight percent of both the subordinate and supervisor samples were individuals of Hispanic ethnicity. All other ethnic groups each comprised less than two percent of the sample.

Procedure

Subordinates and supervisors were introduced to the survey effort at a monthly company departmental meeting. The survey was described as an effort to understand how specific management practices (e.g., pay for performance) were impacting employees' ability to perform well on the job. Subordinates were informed that after they completed a survey that referenced organizational management practices, their work relationship with their supervisor, and their attitudes about the organization and their job, their supervisors would then complete a survey concerning their performance at work. Employees were assured that their responses would remain completely confidential, and

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that only a summary of the data would be seen by management. Approximately 30 percent of the employees were introduced to the survey effort with a brief voice mail that described the project because they were unable to attend the monthly departmental meeting.

A total of 605 subordinates received an email (at their company email address) that briefly outlined the project and provided them with a hyper-link (a world wide web address embedded in the text of the email) that they could use to directly access the web-based survey (see Appendix A). One week after the original email message was sent, a reminder email message was sent to employees. The reminder included a completion deadline of three work days from when the reminder was sent. A total of 351 subordinates completed the survey by the deadline, which resulted in a 58 percent response rate.

After the data from the subordinate surveys were compiled, the responses from 28 subordinates were removed from the data set because the subordinates did not meet one or both of the criteria for inclusion in the sample. Subordinates had to be working in their job (and for their current supervisor) for at least two months and at least half of the individuals from a work group had to respond before any responses from a work group would be included in the study. These criteria were established a priori in relation to the situational strength measure. That is, given that specific management practices were hypothesized to impact individuals' perceptions about the importance of contextual performance, employees would have to have had opportunities to be influenced by the management practices referenced in the current study. Two months was determined to be the minimum tenure (in a current position) necessary for inclusion. Secondly, given that

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agreement among work group members as to the importance of contextual performance was proposed to be an important study variable, it was essential that perceptions were gathered from at least half of a work group. The perceptions of 20 or 30 percent of group members may not accurately reflect the perceptions of the entire work group. Removal of the responses from 28 subordinates that did not meet one or both of these criteria resulted in a subordinate sample of 323.

After removing the 28 subordinates from the sample, an email message was sent to the 53 supervisors of the 323 subordinates that remained in the sample. The email asked supervisors to complete the performance survey (see Appendix B) one time for each of their subordinates. In addition, the email message included a hyper-link for the web-based performance survey. Thirty-six of the 53 supervisors (68 percent) completed performance surveys for a total of 197 subordinates.

Measures

Survey length was a concern as the respondents were mostly professionals working in fast-paced high-technology jobs. In order to keep survey completion time under 20 minutes, brevity was a major criterion in selecting and creating scales for the study. The performance survey completed by supervisors included a 13-item measure of contextual performance and a three-item measure of task performance. The scale items used in the analyses are listed in Appendix A, and the results of confirmatory factor analyses used to assess the internal structure of the scales can be viewed in Appendix C. All scales on the supervisor and subordinate surveys utilized five-point Likert-type response scales.

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Contextual performance. As noted earlier, research on OCB and contextual performance, as opposed to that on other theories of non-technical performance, has focused a great deal on the measurement properties and construct boundaries of non-technical performance measures. Research on OCB has concentrated on defining the underlying dimensions of OCB. The most robust finding is the existence of the altruism and compliance dimensions. Although research on contextual performance has also focused on the dimensionality of non-technical performance, it has, in addition, closely examined the boundaries between task and contextual performance. Motowidlo et al. (1997) suggested that there is likely a motivational component to both task and contextual performance, and that contextual performance is distinct from task performance in that it functions to "...facilitate interpersonal, group, and organizational processes, support organizational objectives, and comply with rules and procedures (p.76)." They base their argument on Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) work that suggests persisting and exerting extra effort—behaviors originally classified as job dedication—were found to influence both task and contextual performance. Motowidlo et al. tentatively conclude that this motivational component is not the central aspect of job dedication. However, a review of recently published contextual performance scales reveals that job dedication measures are still largely comprised of items that assess persistence and effort (Conway, 1999; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, in press). One departure from this is the work of Hogan et al. (1998). Although they do not list the items used, they refer to job dedication as "work dedication," and define it as accountability, following rules, and listening to supervision.

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The contextual performance measure constructed for the current study did not include items designed to assess motivation, but rather focused on the aspects of interpersonal facilitation and job dedication that make them distinct from task performance. A total of 13 items were used to measure contextual performance (7 items for interpersonal facilitation and 6 items for job dedication). A majority of the items on Motowildo and Van Scotter's (1994) interpersonal facilitation scale (5 of 7) were used to construct the current interpersonal facilitation scale. Motowidlo and Van Scotter reported reliabilities of .93 and .89 in two samples for their interpersonal facilitation scale. In addition, the contextual performance scale made use of four items from Smith et al. (1983) that received minor wording changes, two items from Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990), and two new items constructed for the current scale. Although most of the items used in the current scale were taken from the plethora of contextual performance items in the published literature, it was important to construct two new job dedication items (support work group/unit objectives; follow important work group/unit procedures). These items were written in order to assess aspects of job dedication that have been defined but not readily measured in the contextual performance literature.

A confirmatory factor analysis revealed that three items had unacceptably low factor loadings (<.35) on one of the contextual performance dimensions. Two of these items were from the job dedication sub-scale (take unnecessary time off work; avoid spending a great deal of time in idle conversation). The third item (treat others *unfairly*) did not load well on the interpersonal facilitation dimension. This was surprising as it is an item that is frequently used with success in contextual performance research. One

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potential explanation for the item's poor fit is that it is usually positively worded on other contextual performance scales. Perhaps some supervisors read the item as "treats others *fairly*." Answering the question in this way would create unique error variance in the responses and hence contribute to the poor factor loading.

These three items were dropped from the final scale that was used in the analyses. An additional fourth item (assist me with my duties) was dropped from the interpersonal facilitation scale as well, for reasons that are discussed later. The resulting scale of five interpersonal facilitation and four job dedication items is shown in Appendix B. Appendix C reveals that the remaining nine items fit moderately well into a two-factor structure. The fit was likely less than optimal because the two factors were forced to be orthogonal in the confirmatory factor analysis. Although the orthogonal factors allow for greater interpretability, the overall fit of the model would likely have been better if the items were allowed to cross-load.

Task performance. Three items from Williams and Anderson (1991) were used to measure task performance. Williams and Anderson reported a reliability estimate of .91 for their full six-item measure. Supervisors were asked to rate, for example, how likely it was that the subordinate would "Effectively perform the technical aspects of the job"? The results of a confimatory factor analysis that was conducted on the current scale (see Appendix C), suggested that the three items consistently measured the same construct.

The subordinate survey included a variety of measures necessary for testing the hypotheses outlined above. The scale items used in the analyses are listed in Appendix B, and the results of confirmatory factor analyses used to assess the internal structure of the scales can be viewed in Appendix C.

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Empathy. Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger, and Freifeld (1995) describe and provide empirical evidence for a three-factor model of empathy: affective empathy (empathetic concern), cognitive empathy (perspective taking), and egocentric empathy (personal distress). Six items from the short form of the Prosocial Personality Battery(PSB) (Penner et al., 1995) were used to measure the empathetic concern dimension of empathy. Penner et al. describe this dimension as the tendency to experience concern or sympathetic feelings for other individuals. The PSB has been used in several studies involving OCB (Midili & Penner, 1995; Rioux & Penner, 1999). An acceptable coefficient alpha estimate (.82) has been reported for the empathy sub-scale (Rioux & Penner, 1999).

Conscientiousness. The measure of conscientiousness was adapted from McCrae and Costa's (1987) forced choice measure of the five-factor model. A total of 10 items from their original 20 items were adapted for use in the current study. These items were chosen because, in McCrae and Costa's data they had the highest factor-loadings on the conscientiousness factor and the lowest cross-loadings on the other four factors in the five-factor model. In the current study participants responded to each adjective by indicating how well each adjective described them. Responses were summed to compute a continuous index of conscientiousness.

Confirmatory factor analysis results indicated that two of the conscientiousness adjectives (scrupulous; ambitious) did not load highly on the main factor (<.40). It is interesting to note that the adjective 'ambitious' seemed somewhat independent of the main conscientiousness factor. Some personality theorists have argued that ambition should be distinguished as a separate or sixth factor in the five-factor model of

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personality (Hough & Schneider, 1996). These two items were removed from the conscientiousness scale before conducting the analyses.

Job Satisfaction. The three-item Job Satisfaction Scale used by Randall et al. (1999) was used to assess job satisfaction. The scale is considered to be a global measure of job satisfaction. Validation evidence for the scale is discussed in Cropanzano, James, and Konovsky (1993). Randall et al. reported a reliability estimate of .88 for the scale.

Perceived organizational support. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) developed an eight-item scale of perceived organizational support by selecting the eight items from Eisengerger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) that had the highest factor loadings on the main perceived organizational support factor. Five of these eight items from Eisenberger et al. were used in the current study. The items were chosen based on their factor loadings on the main perceived organizational support factor, as reported in Eisenberger et al. (1997).

Organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer's (1984) scale of affective organizational commitment has been used extensively in organizational research. The authors present additional validation data in Meyer and Allen (1990). For the current study, four of the eight items with the highest factor loadings on the affective commitment factor in Allen and Meyer (1984) were utilized.

Perceived importance of contextual performance. The 13 items used by supervisors to evaluate subordinates' level of contextual performance were condensed into 10 items (five interpersonal facilitation and five job dedication) and presented to the subordinates. Minor wording changes were necessary in order to present the items from the subordinates' perspective. Ratings on the interpersonal facilitation and job dedication

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items were summed in order to form scores for perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation and job dedication.

A total of four items were removed before conducting analyses. Two job dedication items (avoid taking unnecessary time off of work; avoid taking extra breaks) did not load highly on the overall 'importance of job dedication' factor (<.35) and were therefore removed. These two items were not as strongly correlated with one another as they were in the supervisor survey. In addition to these two items, an interpersonal facilitation item (assist me with my duties) did not correlate highly with the overall 'importance of interpersonal facilitation' factor (<.20) and was therefore removed from the scale. Since an optimal match between the perceived importance items and the performance items on the supervisor survey was desired, the 'assist me with my duties' item was also removed from the interpersonal facilitation scale on the supervisor survey. Finally, since the 'treat others unfairly' item was removed from the interpersonal facilitation scale on the supervisor survey, it was also removed from the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation scale. After scale revisions, the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation and perceived importance of job dedication measures each consisted of three items.

Situational strength. A strong situation is one in which a majority of individuals share similar perceptions about what types of behavior are most important, expected, and rewarded. Therefore, a strong situation for contextual performance is characterized by individuals sharing the perception that contextual performance behavior is important and rewarded. Work situations would be considered weaker, for contextual performance, if individuals varied in the extent to which they believed engaging in non-technical aspects

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of performance was important and rewarded. In order to determine the extent to which participants working in the same work-group and for the same supervisor agree on the importance of engaging in contextual performance, an intraclass correlation (r_{wg}) (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993) was calculated for each groups' responses to the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation) perceived importance of job dedication) scales. The more that individuals responded similarly concerning the importance of contextual performance in their jobs, the higher was the intraclass correlation for that group. The higher the correlation, the stronger the situation was considered. The intraclass correlations for each group served as a continuous measure of situational strength for either interpersonal facilitation or job dedication.

Expectations and rewards for performance. In order to measure the extent to which contextual performance is encouraged and rewarded by supervisors, a procedure similar to that used by McNeely and Meglino (1994) was employed in the current study. A total of four questions were used. Two questions concerned the extent to which supervisors stress that an important aspect of a participants' jobs is 1) helping coworkers in order to get work finished and encouraging one another to get along, and 2) following procedures and supporting the work group/unit objectives. Additionally, two items assessed participants' perceptions of whether or not they believed they would be rewarded if their supervisor saw them 1) helping coworkers get work finished and encouraging coworkers to get along, and 2) following procedures and supporting the work group/unit objectives.

Procedural justice. A portion of the procedural justice scale developed by Moorman (1991) was used to assess perceived fairness of organizational procedures. A

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total of five items were selected based on their factor loadings with the main procedural justice factor, as reported by Moorman.

Distributive justice. Fairness with regard to reward allocation was measured with three of the five items from Moorman (1991). Moorman reported a reliability estimate of .91 for the five-item scale.

Quality of exchange relationship with supervisor. A scale developed to measure the construct of leader-member exchange was used to assess the quality of the social exchange relationships between subordinates and supervisors, from the subordinates' perspective (Scandura & Graen, 1984). Scandura and Graen reported a coefficient alpha of .86 for the scale in their research. A total of five of the original seven items were used in the current study.

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CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Table 1 lists the sample sizes, means, standard deviations and coefficient alpha estimates for all of the scales used in the study. Most of the scales displayed sufficient variability (i.e. distributions were not significantly skewed). One notable exception was the situational strength for interpersonal facilitation measure. The average of these intraclass correlations was .77 and the standard deviation was .08. Post hoc analyses indicated that the distribution was negatively skewed (-.97, $p < .01$).

Most of the multi-item scales demonstrated adequate reliability (>.80). Exceptions to this are the scales that concern subordinates perceptions of the importance of interpersonal facilitation and job dedication in their jobs. Although the factor analysis results for the scales resulted in moderate to moderately-high factor loadings for each of the items, such brief measures (three items each) are always vulnerable to error variance in participant responses.

Inter-correlations among all of the study variables are presented in Table 2. Among the noteworthy correlations in the matrix are the correlations between the three criterion measures: interpersonal facilitation, job dedication, and task performance. The correlations of $r = .47$ ($p < .01$) between interpersonal facilitation and task performance and $r = .51$ ($p < .01$) between job dedication and task performance suggest a 22 to 26 percent overlap between contextual and task performance (not corrected for

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Table 1

Sample Sizes, Means, Standard Deviations, and Coefficient Alpha Estimates for Study Variables.

	N	Mean	SD	Alpha
1. Interpersonal Facilitation	197	3.9	.68	.84
2. Job Dedication	197	4.08	.57	.79
3. Task Performance	197	4.46	.67	.92
4. Conscientiousness	197	4.34	.42	.78
5. Empathy	197	3.72	.60	.81
6. Job Satisfaction	197	4.14	.69	.81
7. Organizational Commitment	197	3.53	.85	.83
8. Perceived Organizational Support	197	3.60	.78	.89
9. Procedural Justice	197	3.06	.81	.86
10. Distributive Justice	197	3.17	.99	.91
11. Leader Member Exchange	197	3.69	.81	.88
12. Perceived Importance of Interpersonal Facilitation	197	4.39	.44	.54
13. Perceived Importance of Job Dedication	197	4.07	.47	.47
14. Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	36	.77	.08	.54
15. Situational Strength for Job Dedication	36	.65	.17	.47
16. Performance Expectations for Interpersonal Facilitation*	197	3.91	.84	--
17. Rewards for Interpersonal Facilitation*	197	3.04	1.12	--
18. Performance Expectations for Job Dedication*	197	3.85	.71	--
19. Rewards for Job Dedication*	197	3.29	1.13	--
20. Subordinate Age	190	40.5	8.4	--
21. Subordinate Gender**	193	.76	.43	--
22. Subordinate Tenure With Supervisor (months)	197	17.2	21.8	--
23. Supervisor Age	34	42.3	6.9	--
24. Supervisor Gender**	35	.78	.41	--

Note: *Single item measures; **Women coded 0, Men coded 1.

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Table 2

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Interpersonal Facilitation	--											
2. Job Dedication	**65**	--										
3. Task Performance	**47**	**51**	--									
4. Conscientiousness	00	00	05	--								
5. Empathy	06	-04	-05	**23**	--							
6. Job Satisfaction	**20**	10	**19**	11	11	--						
7. Organizational Commitment	**25**	**16**	**13**	03	**19**	**47**	--					
8. Perceived Organizational Support	**23**	**13**	12	-09	03	**49**	**63**	--				
9. Procedural Justice	10	01	01	02	**16**	**38**	**44**	**56**	--			
10. Distributive Justice	**26**	**21**	**18**	**-21**	03	**46**	**49**	**61**	**43**	--		
11. Leader-Member-Exchange	**22**	**18**	**17**	00	-02	**36**	**36**	**51**	**36**	**51**	--	
12. Perceived Importance of Interpersonal Facilitation	**20**	07	-01	**28**	**22**	**12**	**25**	**15**	08	**17**	**23**	--

Note: Decimals are omitted; correlations in bold are significant at $p < .05$.

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Table 2 (Continued)

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13. Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	**18**	-01	03	-03	01	**16**	**12**	**23**	04	08	**12**	**23**
14. Perceived Importance of Job Dedication	11	09	06	**15**	**18**	**15**	**31**	**28**	11	**19**	**22**	**40**
15. Situational Strength for Job Dedication	11	**12**	08	**-23**	09	05	**15**	**18**	**16**	**26**	18	-01
16. Performance Expectations for Interpersonal Facilitation	03	00	-03	03	00	**27**	**14**	**25**	**24**	**23**	**52**	**22**
17. Rewards for Interpersonal Facilitation	**15**	**15**	10	-07	08	**21**	**28**	**36**	**34**	**53**	**46**	11
18. Performance Expectations for Job Dedication	**15**	04	-03	**17**	11	**25**	**20**	**19**	**24**	**22**	**22**	**19**
19. Rewards for Job Dedication	**20**	**21**	**14**	-06	**12**	**24**	**35**	**39**	**37**	**61**	**44**	**12**
20. Subordinate Age	-06	-10	-10	**14**	07	03	11	-05	01	-08	-01	12
21. Subordinate Gender	**-17**	-10	04	-04	**-13**	-05	-07	-09	07	-03	-04	-02
22. Subordinate Tenure	-04	**-13**	-05	**-12**	**13**	07	11	00	03	-03	**14**	**18**
23. Supervisor Age	01	-01	-08	**20**	06	06	05	-05	00	**-13**	**-17**	01
24. Supervisor Gender	00	**-13**	-09	04	08	**-13**	05	-08	-03	**-18**	**-21**	-01

Note: Decimals are omitted; correlations in bold are significant at $p < .05$.

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Table 2 (Continued)

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables.

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
13. Perceived Importance of Job Dedication	--											
14. Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	09	--										
15. Situational Strength for Job Dedication	06	05	--									
16. Performance Expectations for Interpersonal Facilitation	05	**15**	02	--								
17. Rewards for Interpersonal Facilitation	15	03	**15**	**27**	--							
18. Performance Expectations for Job Dedication	**14**	**17**	-07	**41**	**22**	--						
19. Rewards for Job Dedication	07	**14**	**20**	**20**	**68**	**18**	--					
20. Subordinate Age	04	-02	-07	02	00	00	00	--				
21. Subordinate Gender	-08	-11	-09	-04	11	-06	01	**21**	--			
22. Subordinate Tenure	07	06	-01	**13**	**15**	08	12	**24**	-09	--		
23. Supervisor Age	08	05	**-13**	-01	-01	07	**-13**	00	-08	**24**	--	
24. Supervisor Gender	02	-10	03	**-12**	**-13**	-04	**-22**	09	07	07	**35**	--

Note: Decimals are omitted; correlations in bold are significant at $p < .05$.

attenuation). Although the overlap is significant, the range also suggests that, as far as they were measured in the current study, contextual and task performance are distinct constructs.

Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication were a bit more strongly correlated (r = .65, $p < .01$; r = .80, $p < .01$ when corrected for attenuation in both measures). Given that the two scales are designed to measure dimensions of the same overall construct (contextual performance), the high correlation between the two constructs is not surprising. In further considering the potential redundancy of the measures, it is important to note the theoretically predictable variability in the relationships between each of the contextual performance dimensions and other variables listed in Table 2. In several cases the correlation between a third variable and one of the dimensions is significantly different from zero, while it is not for the other dimension. For example, subordinates' perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation was significantly correlated with supervisory ratings of interpersonal facilitation (r = .20, $p < .05$) but not with supervisory ratings of job dedication (r = .07, $p > .05$). These differential correlations lend support to the argument that interpersonal facilitation and job dedication are related, but distinct dimensions of contextual performance.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that subordinates' scores on the conscientiousness and empathy measures would be related to their supervisors' ratings of their level of contextual performance behavior on the job. Table 2 reveals a lack of support for Hypothesis 1. None of the bivariate correlations between scores on the personality measures and the supervisory ratings of interpersonal facilitation and job dedication were

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significant. Although some range restriction in the conscientiousness scores may have limited the scale's ability to correlate with the criteria (77% of scores were a 4 or higher on a 5-point scale), the same cannot be said for the empathy measure. There was ample variability in the responses to the empathy measure (i.e., normal distribution) that did not significantly correlate with either of the contextual performance criterion measures.

Hypothesis 2

It was predicted that subordinates' scores on the three work attitude measures (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support) would correlate significantly with their supervisors' ratings of their levels of contextual performance on the job. As shown in Table 2, all three work attitude measures were significantly related to interpersonal facilitation (job satisfaction-interpersonal facilitation: $r = .20$, $p < .01$; organizational commitment-interpersonal facilitation: $r = .25$, $p < .01$; perceived organizational support-interpersonal facilitation: $r = .23$, $p < .01$). Organizational commitment and perceived organizational support were less strongly related to job dedication ($r = .16$, $p < .05$ and $r = .13$, $p < .05$ respectively); and job satisfaction was not significantly related to job dedication. However, it should be noted that the three measures were moderately to highly intercorrelated (r ranged from .44 to .63), with organizational commitment and perceived organizational support being the most highly intercorrelated.

It was further predicted in Hypothesis 2 that perceived organizational support would account for the most unique variance in the criterion measures and that organizational commitment would account for the least. Contrary to the prediction in Hypothesis 2, organizational commitment accounted for the most unique variance in

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interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. A series of hierarchical regression analyses indicated that in both cases, after organizational commitment was entered into the regression equations, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support did not account for significant additional variance in either job dedication or interpersonal facilitation. However, after job satisfaction and perceived organizational support had been first entered into a regression equation, organizational commitment's contribution to explaining variability in interpersonal facilitation approached statistical significance (1.4 percent of the variance in interpersonal facilitation accounted for, $p = .087$).

Although job satisfaction and perceived organizational support did not account for unique variance in interpersonal facilitation or job dedication beyond that accounted for by organizational commitment, the overlap between job satisfaction and perceived organizational support was examined. A series of hierarchical regressions indicated that job satisfaction did not explain significant variability in interpersonal facilitation beyond that which was accounted for by perceived organizational support. However, after first entering job satisfaction into another regression equation, perceived organizational support accounted for an additional 2.3 percent of the variance in interpersonal facilitation ($p < .05$).

Hypotheses 3 and 4

A series of structural equation models were estimated in order to test Hypotheses 3 and 4. In Figures 6 and 7 the significant path coefficients between the subordinates' perceptions of the importance of the two contextual performance dimensions (interpersonal facilitation-Figure 6, job dedication-Figure 7) and their supervisors' ratings

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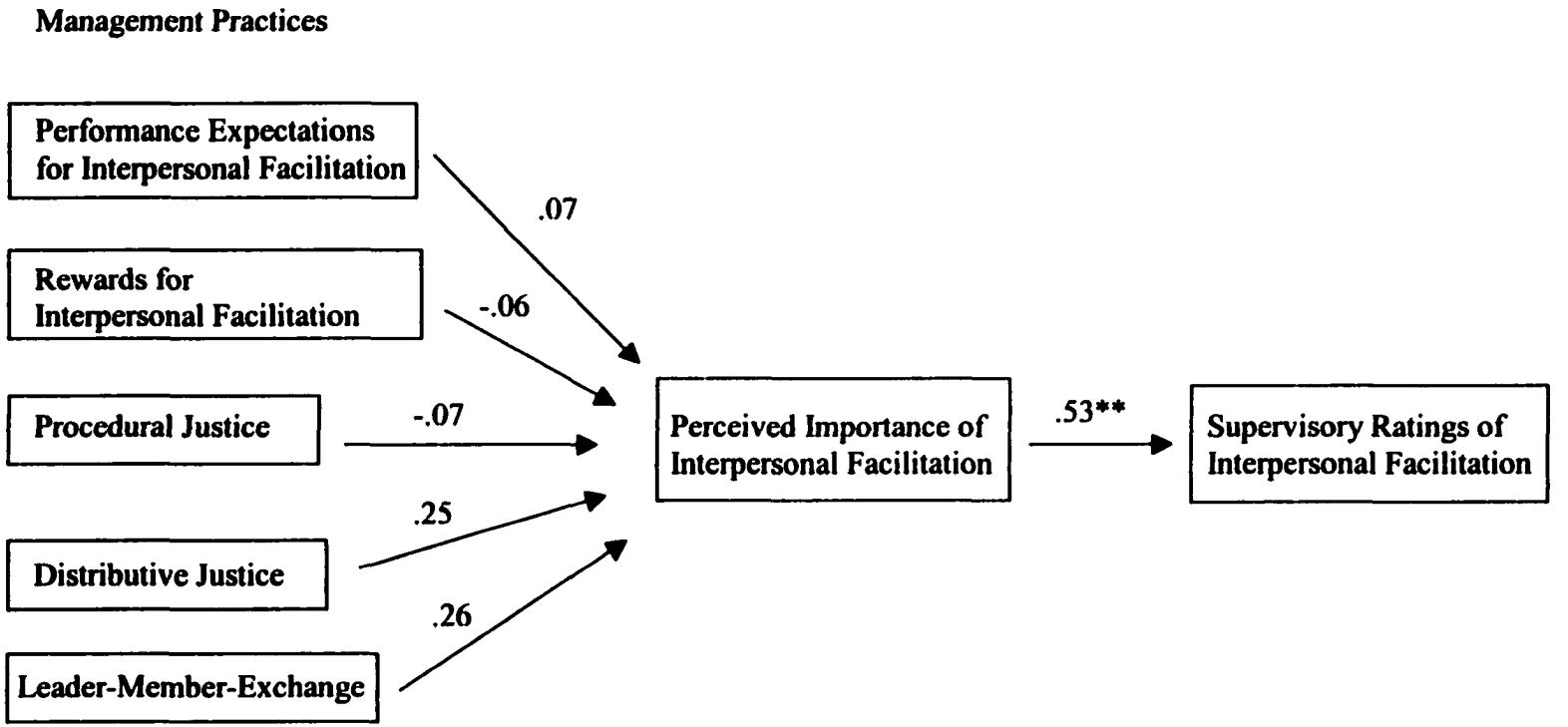

Figure 6. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation fully mediated model (Model 1b). **p<.05, *p<.10.

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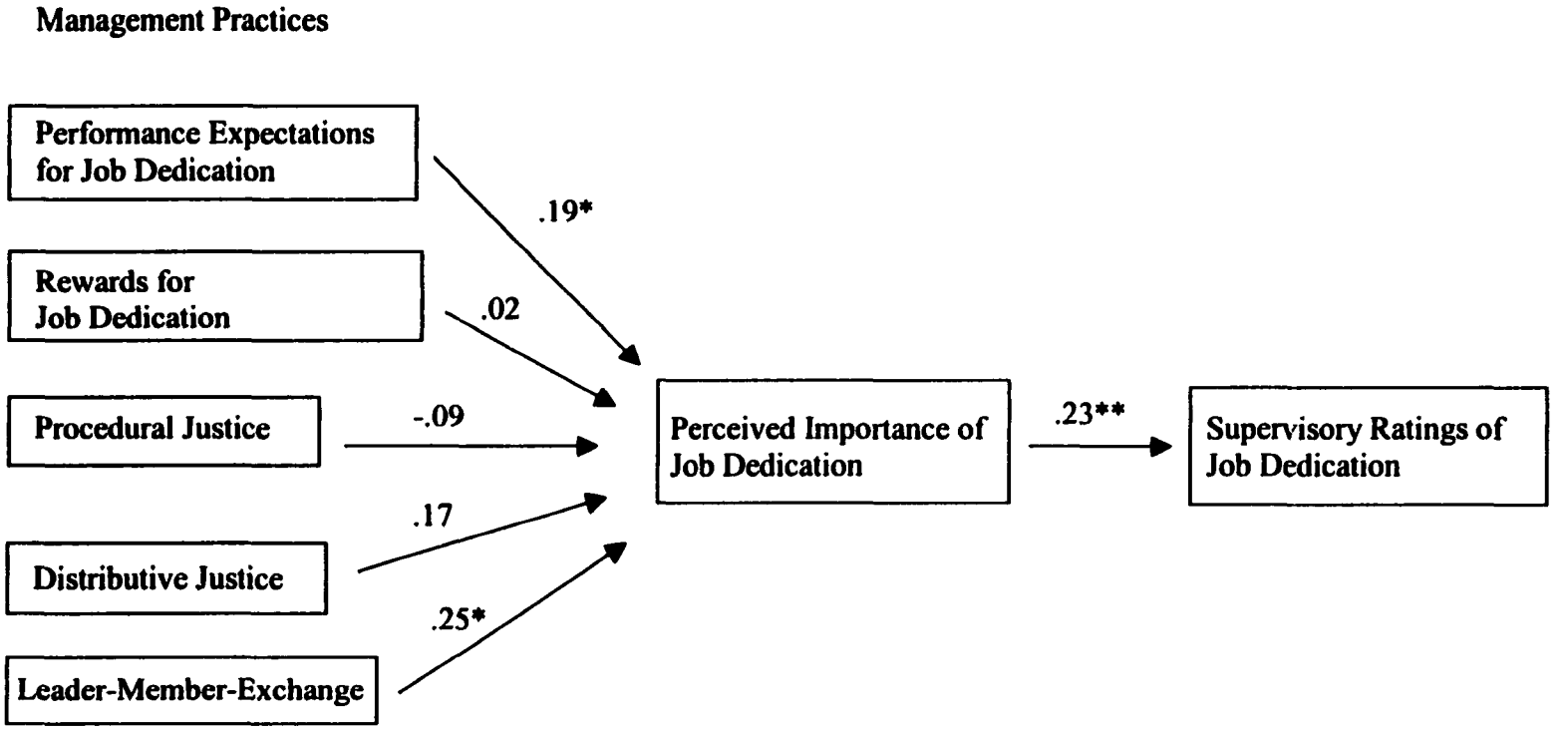

Figure 7. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of job dedication fully mediated model (Model 2b).

**p<.05, *p<.10.

of their levels of contextual performance behavior, demonstrate strong support for Hypothesis 3. That is, the more that subordinates believed that contextual performance was an important aspect of their jobs, the more likely they were to engage in contextual performance behavior.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that specific management practices would be related to individuals' perceptions about the importance of contextual performance. Figures 6 and 7 indicate that clear performance expectations for each dimension of contextual performance and quality supervisor—subordinate relationships are the management practices that were most strongly related to the importance that subordinates placed on contextual performance.

Hypothesis 4 also posited a mediated structural model where the importance placed on contextual performance by subordinates would mediate the relationship between the management practices and supervisory ratings of subordinates' levels of contextual performance (Figures 6 and 7). Although structural equation modeling does not identify a one 'right' model for users, it does allow researchers to compare conceptual models in terms of how well each one explains relationships among the data. To evaluate the adequacy of the proposed mediation model, it must be compared to other structural models. This is done by examining the fit indices of each model. The fit indices used for evaluating the fit of the models in the current study were the Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR), the square-root of the average residual variance among the cells in the correlation matrix that was analyzed (<= .05 is good); the Normed Fit Index (NFI), which is a comparison between a baseline null model and the proposed model (>= .90 indicates proposed model is doing a good job in comparison to the null model), and the

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Comparative Fit Index (CFI), a comparison between the proposed model and the data (>= .90 indicates the data fits well with the proposed model).

Structural models are compared with one another to determine which possesses better fit in relation to the constraints placed on each model. When comparing nested models, the change in the chi-square (X^2) statistic from one model to the next provides a statistical significance test for a change in fit. A significant X^2 change from one model to the next indicates that the quality of the altered model's fit suffered as a result of the change in its structure.

This procedure was used in the current study to investigate the mediation proposed in Hypothesis 4. The first step was to estimate the fit of a partially mediated model that not only allowed the management practices to correlate with perceived importance of the contextual performance dimensions, but also allowed them to correlate directly with supervisory contextual performance ratings (Figures 8 and 9). Table 3 shows that, as expected, the partial mediation models for interpersonal facilitation (Model 1a, Figure 8) and job dedication (Model 2a, Figure 9) demonstrated superior fit indices.

The partial mediation models were expected to display exceptionally good fit indices because they allow all of the predictors to correlate with all of the criterion measures and thus do not employ any constraints (see Figures 8 and 9). Any other models that place constraints on the structural paths, when compared to models that allow most of the variables to correlate, are not going to do as well in terms of explaining relationships among the data. The most important question then becomes, how much worse does each alternative model do in explaining the data? The goal is to still do a good job of explaining the data with a more parsimonious model. However, if the change

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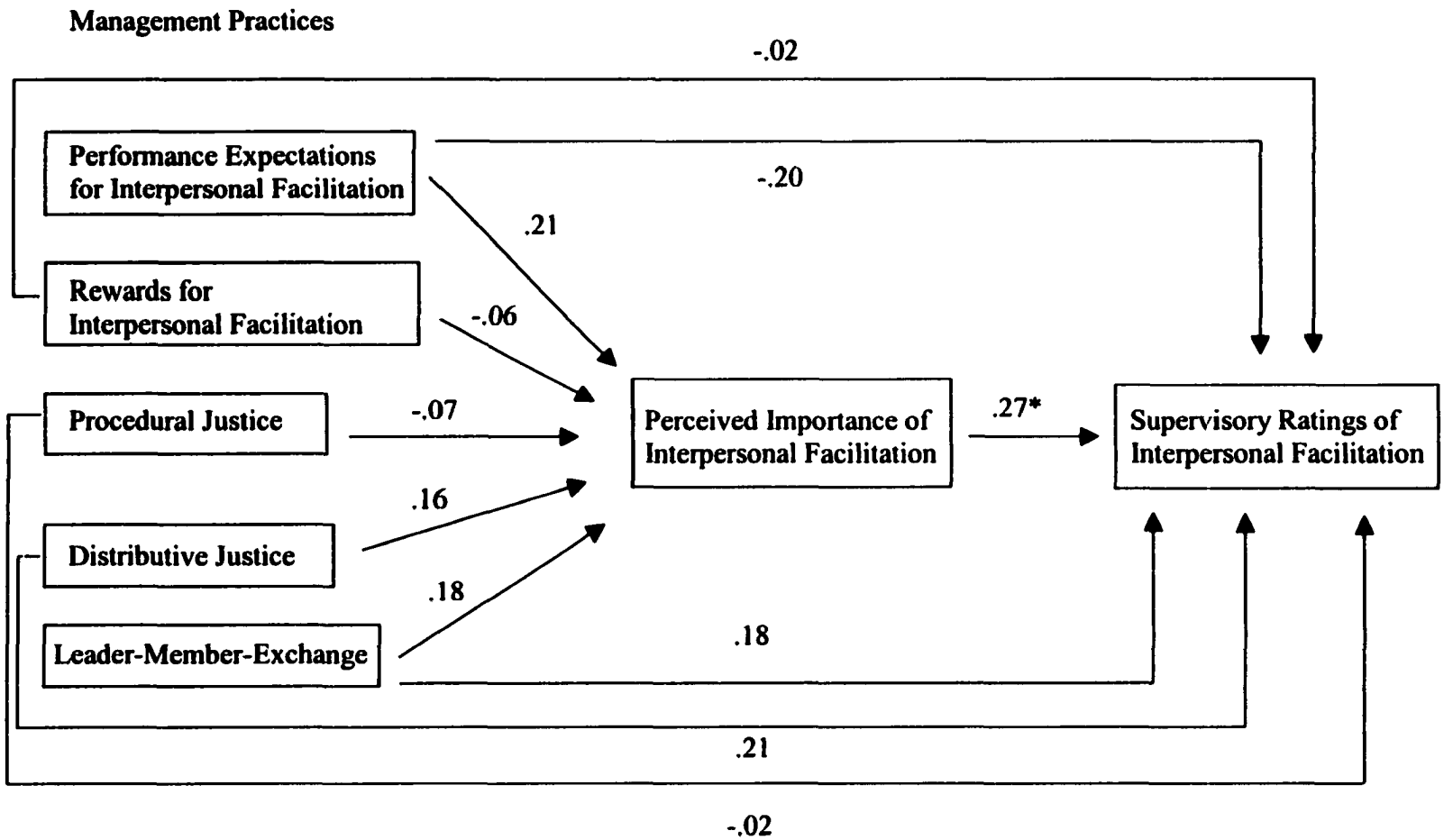

Figure 8. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation partially mediated model (Model 1a). **p<.05, *p<.10.

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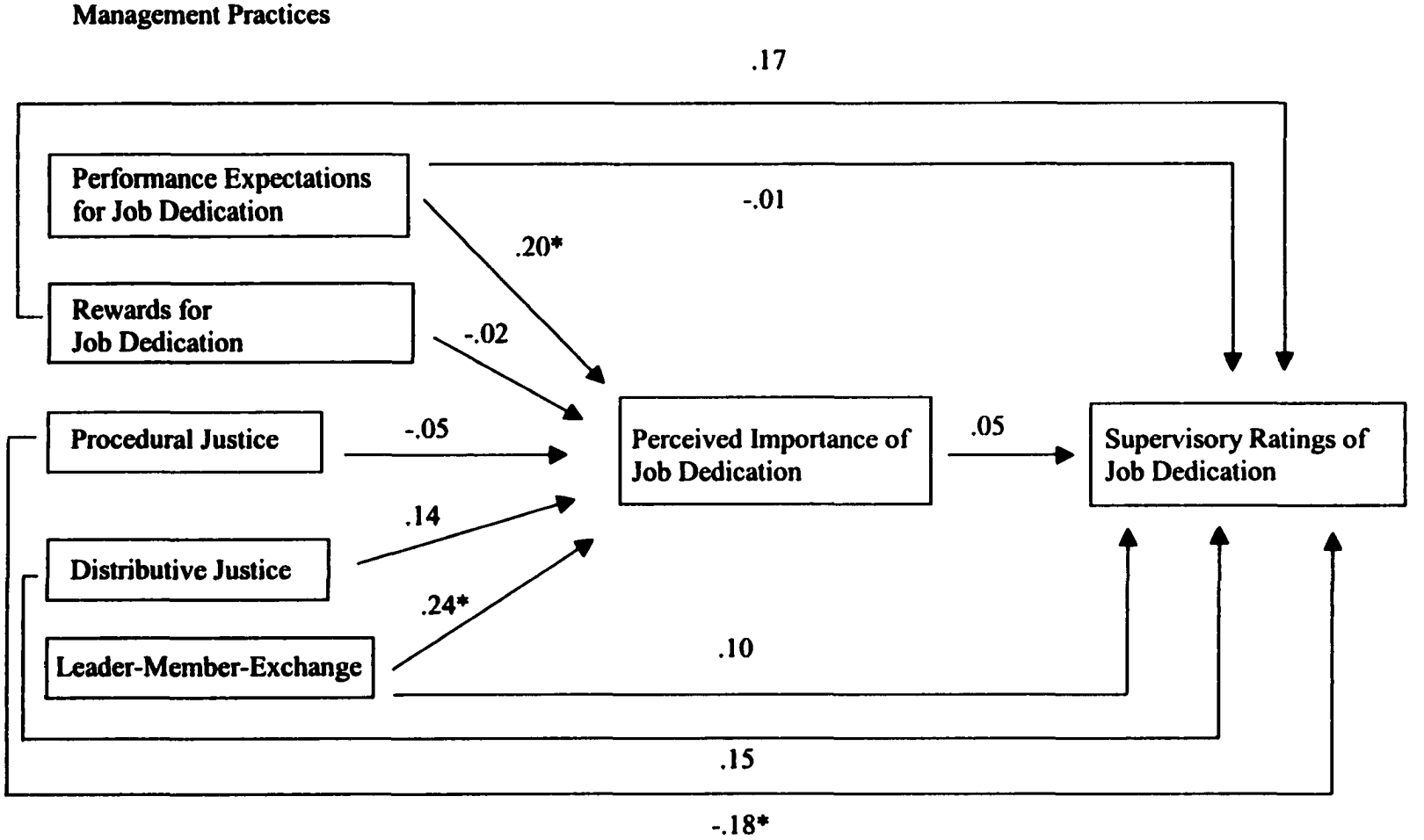

Figure 9. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of job dedication partially mediated model (Model 2a).

**p<.05, *p<.10.

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Table 3

Goodness of Fit Summary for Structural Equation Models: Perceived Importance of the Contextual Performance Dimensions.

Model	df	X^2	ΔX^2	RMSR	NFI	CFI
1a. Perceived Importance of Interpersonal Facilitation: Partial Mediation[+]	5	.01		.001	1.00	1.00
1b. Perceived Importance of Interpersonal Facilitation: Full Mediation[+]	10	14.85	14.84*	.04	.98	1.00
1a. Perceived Importance of Interpersonal Facilitation: Partial Mediation	5	.01		.001	1.00	1.00
1c. No Mediation	10	14.58	14.57*	.07	.92	.95
2a. Perceived Importance of Job Dedication: Partial Mediation	5	.002		.002	1.00	1.00
2b. Perceived Importance of Job Dedication: Full Mediation	10	11.44	11.44*	.05	.98	.99
2a. Perceived Importance of Job Dedication: Partial Mediation	5	.002		.002	1.00	1.00
2c. No Mediation	10	14.94	14.94*	.07	.94	.98

[+]Model estimated using unweighted least squares method (other models estimated with maximum likelihood method). *$p<.05$.

in the X^2 statistic is significant after constraining some structural paths (i.e., simplifying the model), then the fit is considered to be significantly worse.

Therefore, the second step in testing the full mediation models proposed in the current study (Figures 6 and 7) was to eliminate the structural paths from the management practices to the supervisory ratings of contextual performance that existed in the partially mediated models (Figures 8 and 9) and examine whether the fit of the new full mediation models suffered significantly. As Table 3 demonstrates, the X^2 change statistic was indeed significant for the interpersonal facilitation (Model 1b, Figure 6) and job dedication (Model 2b, Figure 7) full mediation models. That is, the full mediation models fit significantly worse than the partial mediation models. It is important to note that although the X^2 changes were significant, the overall X^2s for the fully mediated models were not significant and the three fit indices were within acceptable ranges. This result suggested that although the partially mediated models clearly fit better, the fully mediated models were plausible.

To test the necessity rather than plausibility of the mediators, the partially mediated models were then tested against 'no mediation models.' That is, the paths between the management practices and perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation (Model 1c, Figure 10) and perceived importance of job dedication (Model 2c, Figure 11) were constrained. An *insignificant* change in fit would indicate that the models did not require paths from the management practices to the mediators in order to fit well.

The X^2 statistic changes for the no mediation models were indeed significant, indicating poorer fit in comparison to the partially mediated models (see Table 3). It is interesting to note that, especially for job dedication, the fit for the no mediation model

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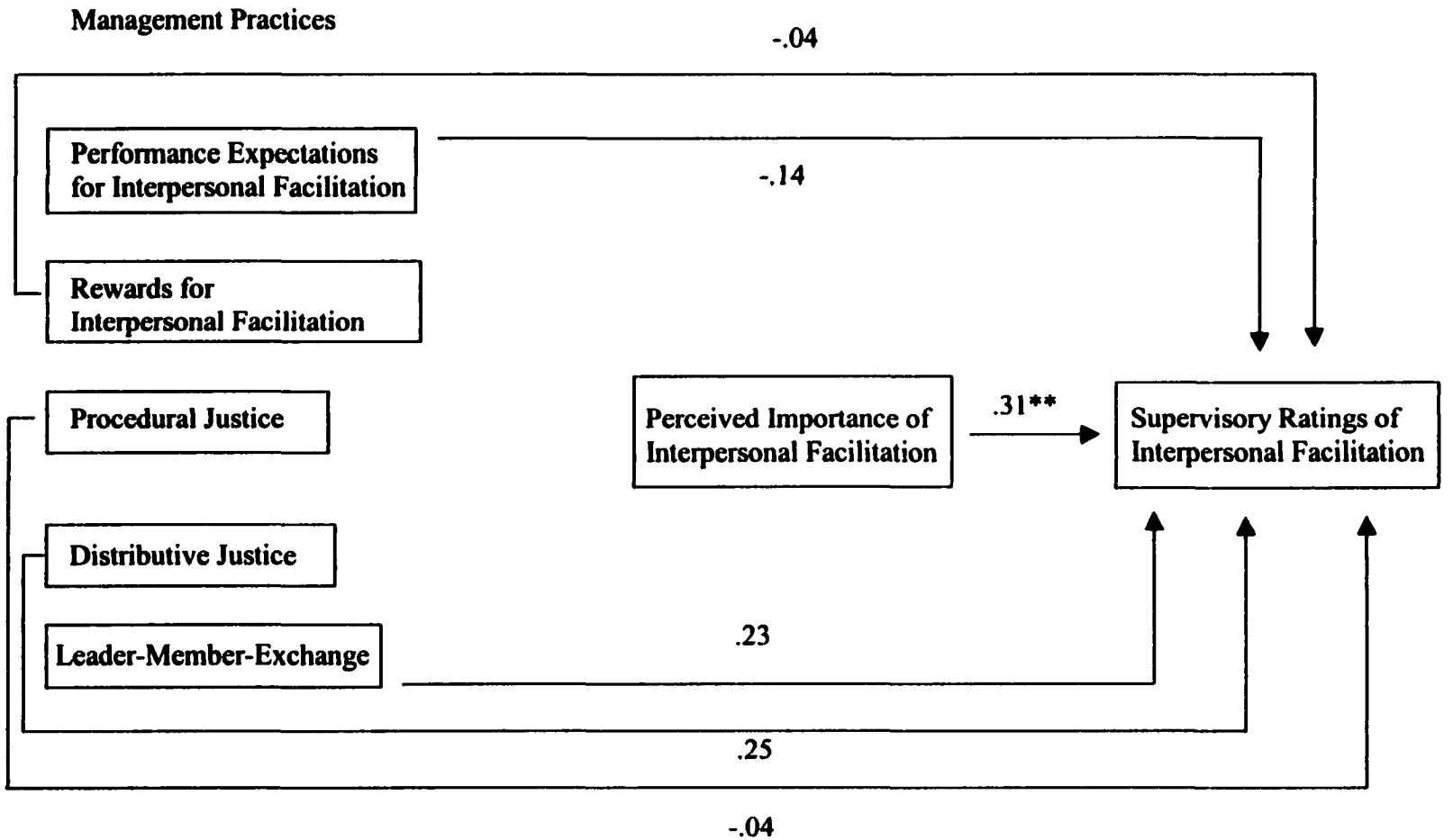

Figure 10. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation no mediation model (Model 1c). **p<.05, *p<.10.

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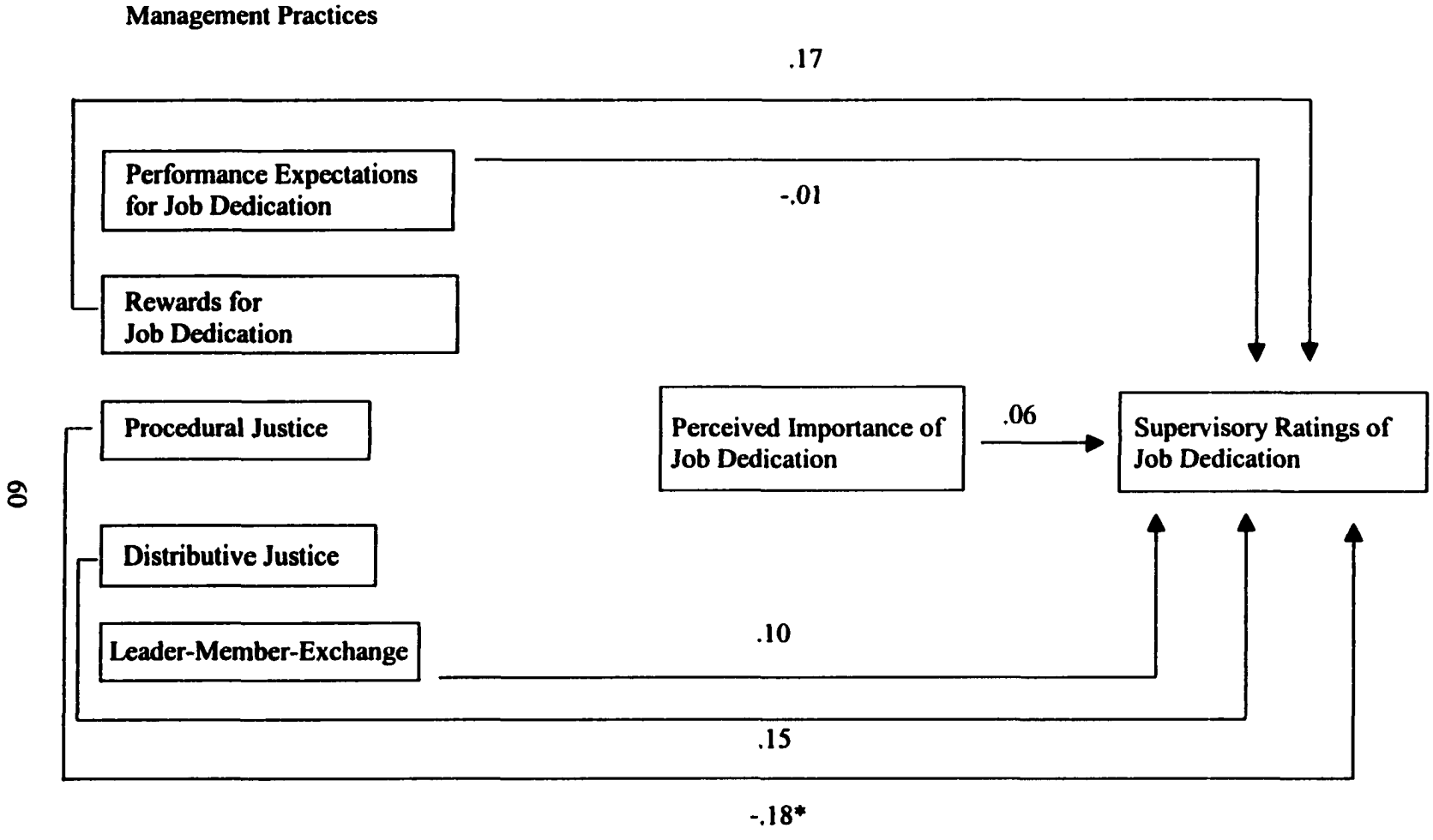

Figure 11. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of job dedication no mediation model (Model 2c). **p<.05, *p<.10.

(2c) was notably worse than that of the full mediation model (2b), with a larger X^2 statistic change, higher RMSR and a lower NFI and CFI (see Table 3). This result suggested that the perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation and perceived importance of job dedication mediators did contribute to the models fitting better. In addition, the paths connecting the management practices to the mediators proved to be valuable in that they explained 22 percent of the variance in perceived importance of interpersonal facilitation and 20 percent of the variance in perceived importance of job dedication.

Hypotheses 5 and 6

Situational strength, the extent to which individuals in a work group agree on the importance of contextual performance, was hypothesized to impact individuals' performance. Hypothesis 5 stated that the more individuals agree that contextual performance is important (i.e., strong situation), the more likely everyone in the group would be to engage in interpersonal facilitation and job dedication behaviors. The significant path coefficients between situational strength and supervisory ratings of contextual performance demonstrate strong support for Hypothesis 5 (interpersonal facilitation-Figure 12, job dedication-Figure 13). In order to further assess the impact of group agreement (i.e., situational strength) on actual performance behavior, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication scores were aggregated to the group level and correlated with the situational strength measure for interpersonal facilitation ($r = .39$, $p < .01$) and job dedication ($r = .20$, $p = .12$). These bivariate correlations provide further evidence that group agreement concerning the importance of contextual performance is related to the frequency with which individuals engage in contextual performance behavior.

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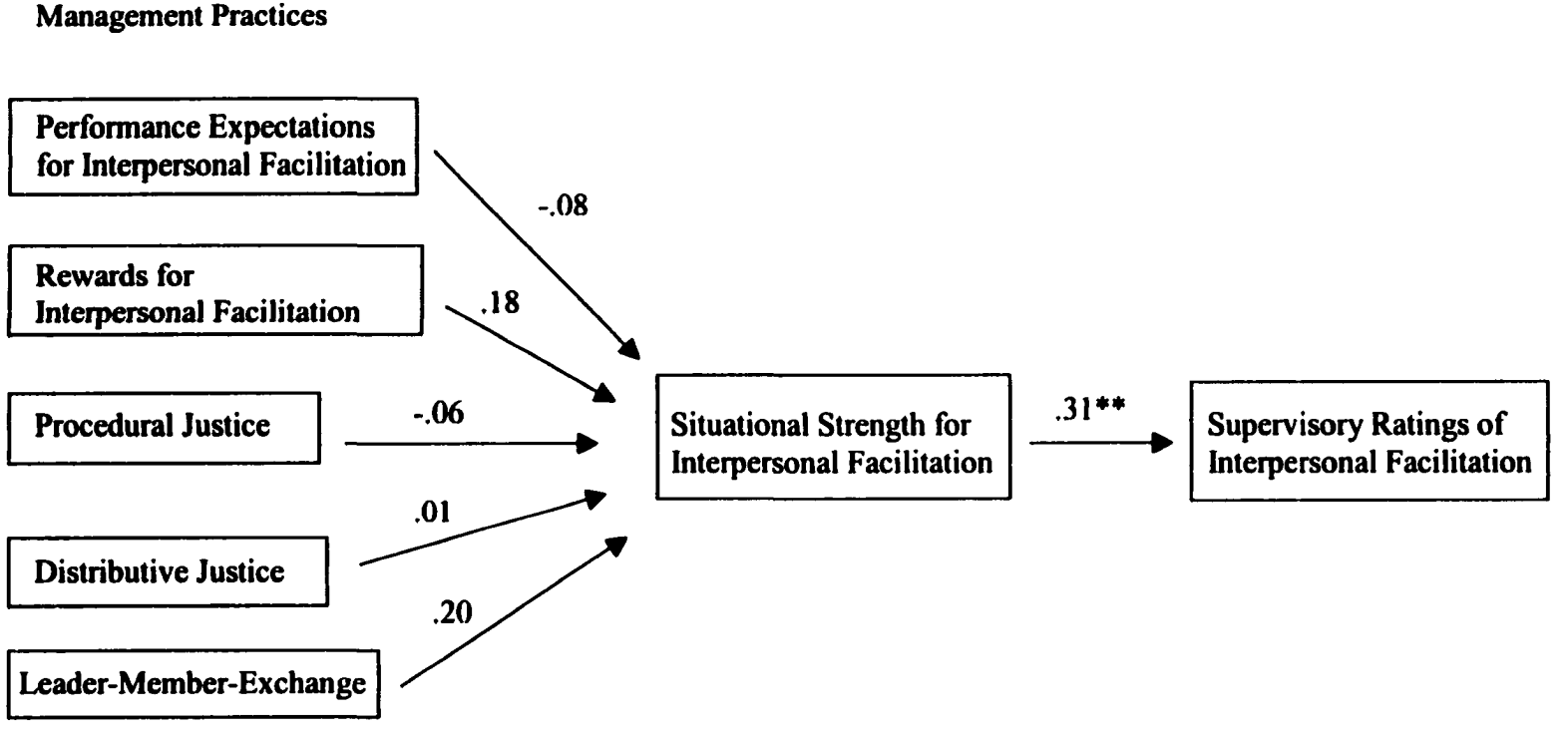

Figure 12. Structural path coefficients for the situational strength for interpersonal facilitation fully mediated model (Model 1e). **p<.05, *p<.10.

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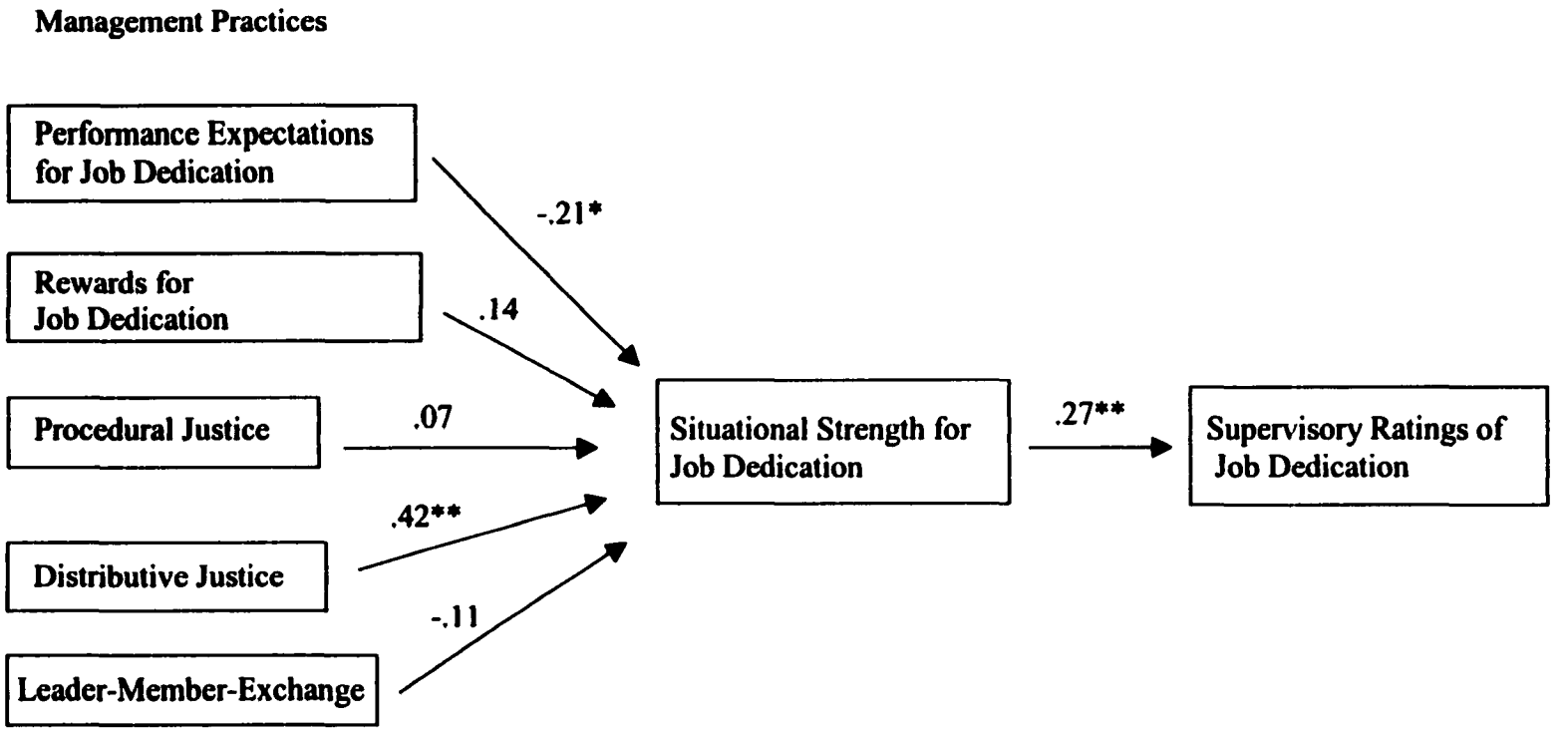

Figure 13. Structural path coefficients for the perceived importance of job dedication fully mediated model (Model 2e).

**p<.05, *p<.10.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that specific management practices would be related to situational strength for the two contextual performance dimensions. Figures 12 and 13 indicate that distributive justice is the management practice that was most strongly related to situational strength for contextual performance.

The mediation portion of Hypothesis 6--situational strength mediates the relationship between management practices and supervisory contextual performance ratings--was tested in the same way that the proposed mediation in Hypothesis 4 was tested, by comparing structural models. The partially mediated models (Model 1d, Figure 14, and Model 2d, Figure 15) fit the best once again (see Table 4). Also similar to the Hypothesis 4 findings, although the full mediation model for interpersonal facilitation (Model 1e, Figure 12) fit worse than the partially mediated models (see Table 4), its overall fit indices were within acceptable ranges. The X^2 statistic change for the full mediation job dedication model (model 2e, Figure 13) was not significant, indicating that the fit of the full mediation model was not significantly worse than the partial mediation model (2d).

In comparing the partial mediation (Figure 14, model 1d) and no mediation models (Figure 16, model 1f) for the interpersonal facilitation situational strength measure, moving from partial mediation to no mediation did not result in a significant X^2 change (see Table 4). This result suggests that the situational strength measure for interpersonal facilitation did not play a significant role as a mediator. The path coefficient of .31 between the interpersonal facilitation strength measure and supervisory ratings of interpersonal facilitation in the full mediated model (see Figure 12) is comparable to other models, but only eight percent of the variance in the situational

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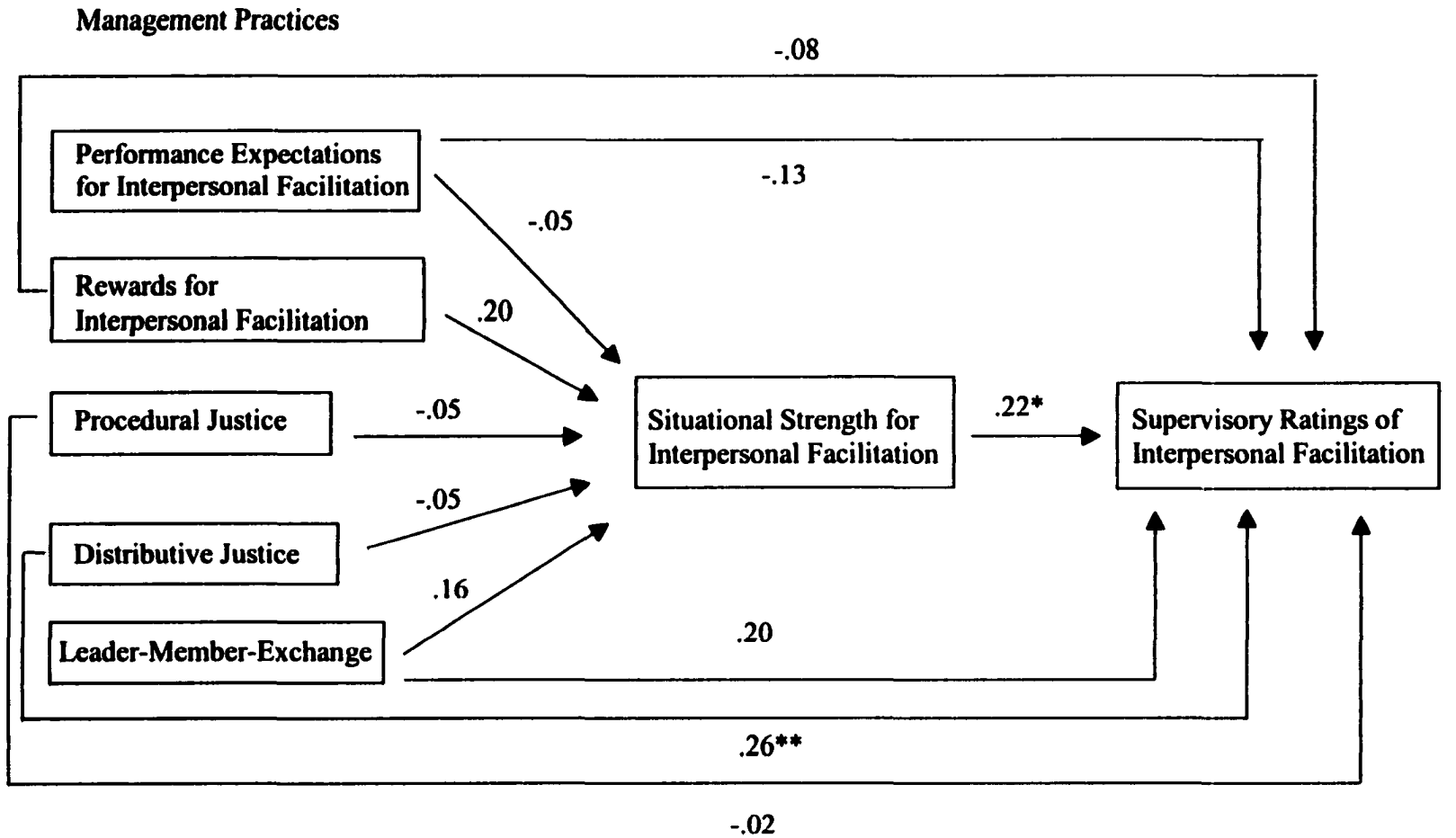

Figure 14. Structural path coefficients for the situational strength for interpersonal facilitation partially mediated model (Model 1d).

**p<.05, *p<.10.

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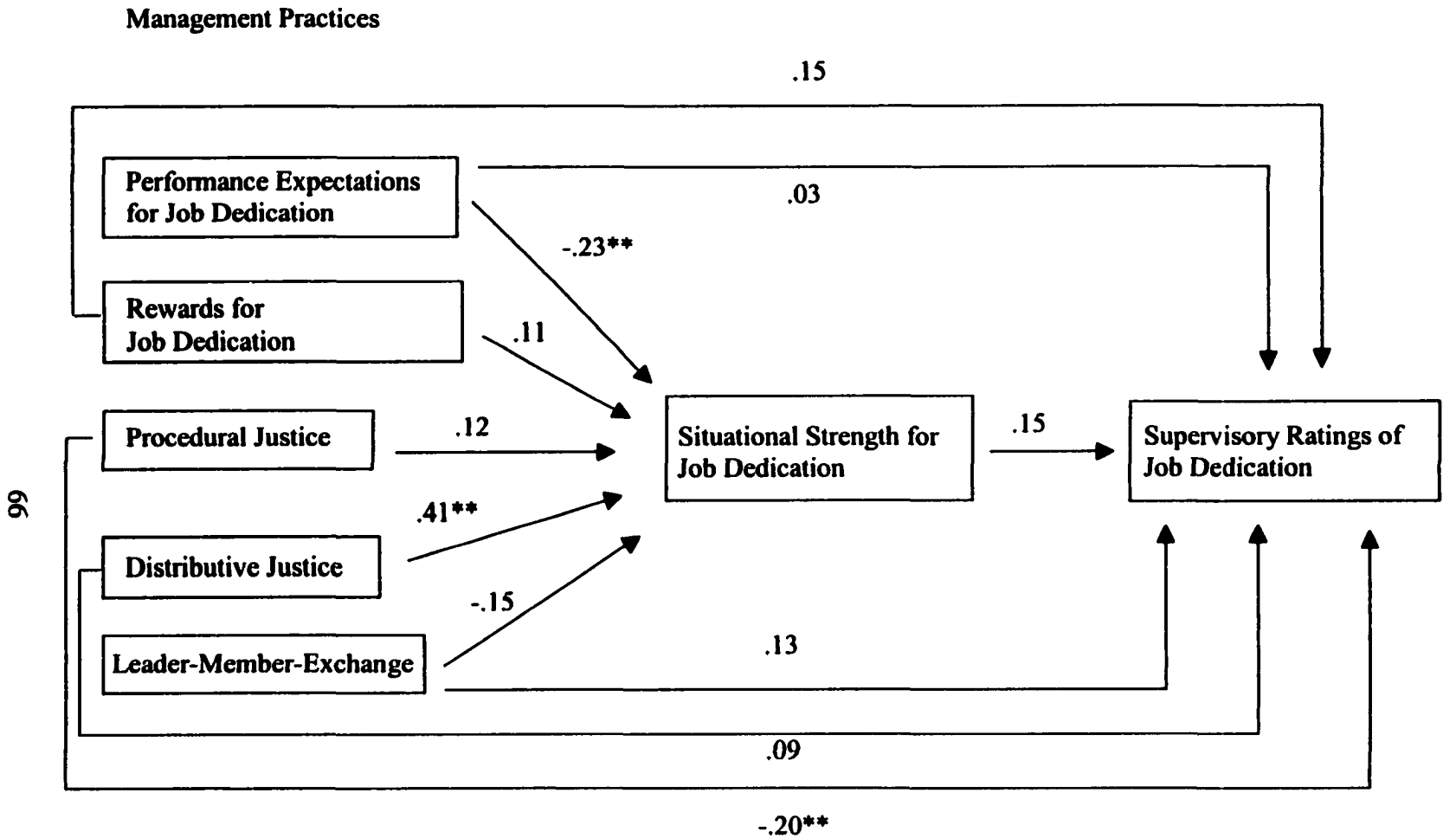

Figure 15. Structural path coefficients for the situational strength for job dedication partially mediated model (Model 2d). **p<.05, *p<.10.

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Table 4

Goodness of Fit Summary for Structural Equation Models: Situational Strength for Contextual Performance Dimensions.

Model	df	X^2	ΔX^2	RMSR	NFI	CFI
1d. Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation: Partial Mediation	5	.01		.001	1.00	1.00
1e Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation: Full Mediation	10	14.04	14.03*	.05	.98	.99
1d. Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation: Partial Mediation	5	.01		.001	1.00	1.00
1f. Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation: No Mediation	10	5.22	5.21	.04	.97	1.00
2d. Situational Strength for Job Dedication: Partial Mediation	5	.002		.002	1.00	1.00
2e. Situational Strength for Job Dedication: Full Mediation	10	10.81	10.80	.04	.98	1.00
2d. Situational Strength for Job Dedication: Partial Mediation	5	.01		.002	1.00	1.00
2f. Situational Strength for Job Dedication: No Mediation	10	19.96*	19.95*	.07	.92	.96

*p<.05.

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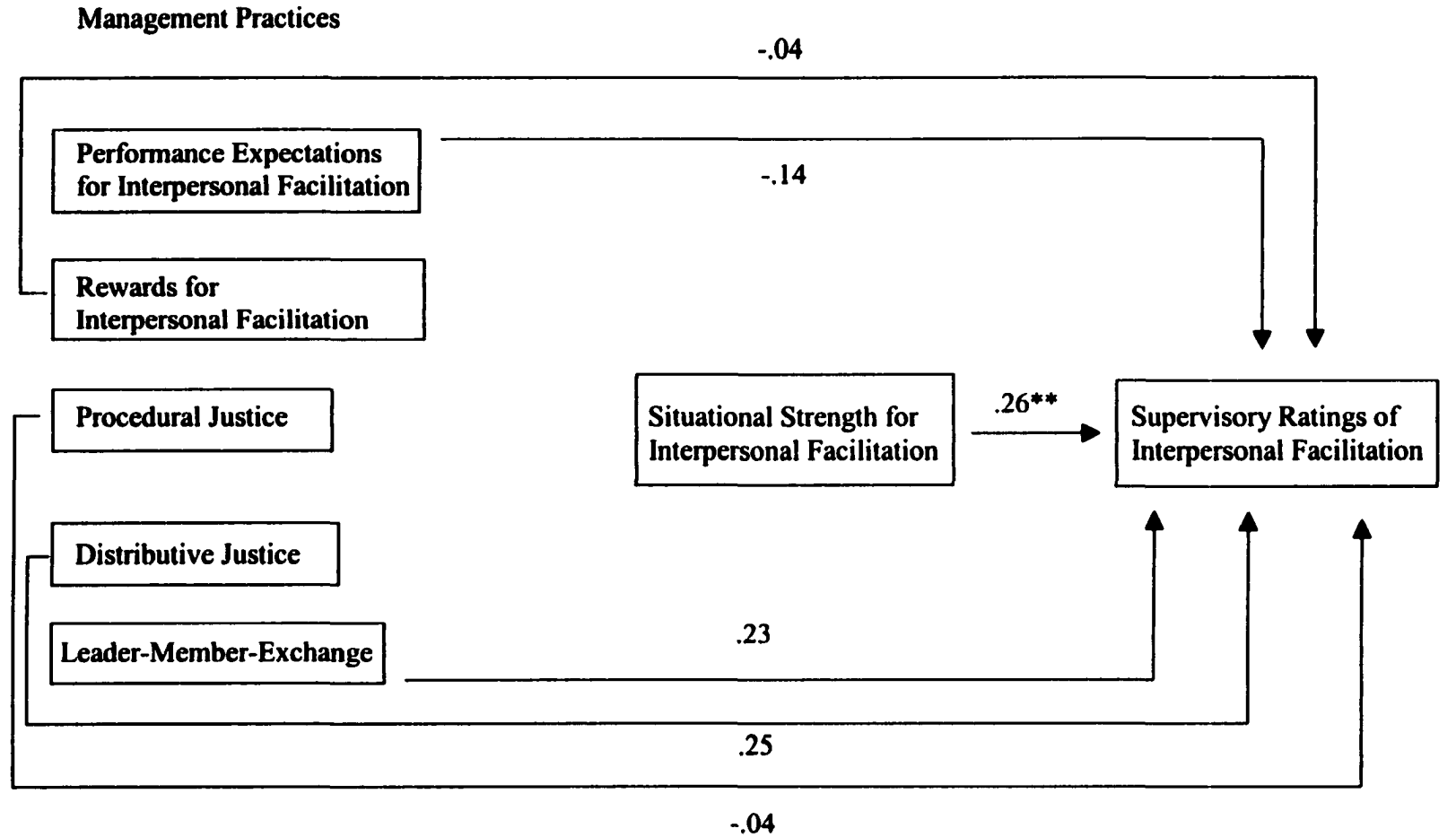

Figure 16. Structural path coefficients for the situational strength for interpersonal facilitation no mediation model (Model 1f).

**p<.05, *p<.10.

strength measure was accounted for by the five management practices. The weak relationships between subordinates' perceptions of management practices and the situational strength measure likely contributed to the weak influence of the mediator in the structural model.

Table 4 reveals a somewhat different situation for group agreement concerning job dedication. The relative poor fit of the no mediation model (Figure 17, model 2f) suggested that the mediator played a contributing role in the exceptional fit of the partial mediation model. Examination of Figure 13 reveals that the structural paths between the management practices and situational strength for job dedication likely contributed to the influence of the mediator. The five management practices accounted for 26 percent of the variance in the situational strength measure, which in turn had a significant influence on job dedication.

Hypotheses 7 and 8

In Hypothesis 7 it was predicted that the situational strength measures would moderate the relationship between the personality measure scores (conscientiousness and empathy) and supervisors' ratings on the two dimensions of contextual performance. A series of moderated regressions was conducted by first entering the personality scale score, then the situational measure, and finally the product of those two values. Tables 5 and 6 reveal that only the situational measures accounted for unique variance in interpersonal facilitation and job dedication.

The relationships between three work attitudes and two dimensions of contextual performance were predicted to be moderated by the situational strength measures as well (Hypothesis 8). However, no interaction effects were detected for the work attitudes.

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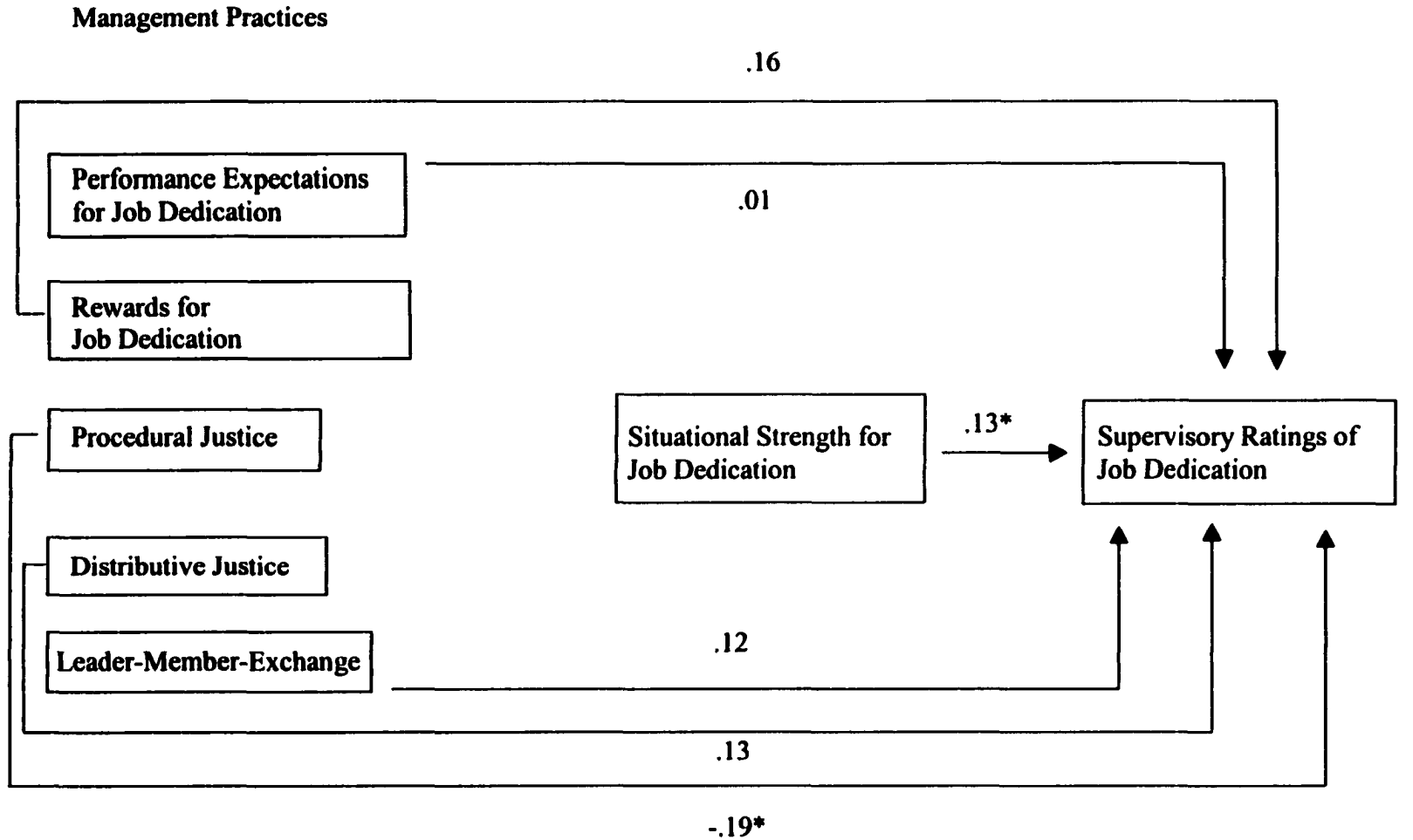

Figure 17. Structural path coefficients for situational strength for job dedication no mediation model (Model 2f). **p<.05, *p<.10

Table 5

Moderated Regression Results for the Interpersonal Facilitation Criterion.

Variable Entered	Multiple R	R^2	ΔR^2
Conscientiousness	.00	.00	.00
Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	.18	.03*	.03*
Conscientiousness X Situational Strength	.20	.04*	.01
Empathy	.06	.003	.003
Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	.19	.03*	.03*
Empathy X Situational Strength	.19	.03*	.00
Job Satisfaction	.20	.04*	.04**
Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	.25	.06*	.02**
Job Satisfaction X Situational Strength	.25	.06*	.001
Organizational Commitment	.25	.06*	.06**
Situational Strength	.29	.09*	.02**
Organizational Commitment X Situational Strength	.29	.09*	.001
Perceived Organizational Support	23	.05*	.05**
Situational Strength for Interpersonal Facilitation	.26	.07*	.02*
Perceived Organizational Support X Situational Strength	.26	.07*	.000

**p<.05, *p<.10.

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Table 6

Moderated Regression Results for the Job Dedication Criterion.

Variable Entered	Multiple R	R^2	ΔR^2
Conscientiousness	.01	.00	.00
Situational Strength for Job Dedication	.13	.02*	.02*
Conscientiousness X Situational Strength	.14	.02*	.002
Empathy	.04	.001	.001
Situational Strength for Job Dedication	.14	.02*	.02*
Empathy X Situational Strength	.15	.02*	.003
Job Satisfaction	.10	.009	.009
Situational Strength for Job Dedication	.16	.03*	.02*
Job Satisfaction X Situational Strength	.16	.03*	.001
Organizational Commitment	.16	.02**	.02**
Situational Strength	.19	.04**	.01
Organizational Commitment X Situational Strength	.19	.04**	.001
Perceived Organizational Support	.13	.02*	.02*
Situational Strength for Job Dedication	.17	.03*	.01
Perceived Organizational Support X Situational Strength	.17	.03*	.001

**$p<.05$, *$p<.10$.

The work attitude and situational strength measures were significantly related to interpersonal facilitation and job dedication in several cases (see Tables 5 and 6).

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CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Supervisors and managers value contextual performance behavior (e.g., Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994 or Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999). But what makes employees willing to help other coworkers when an important job needs to get done, communicate with coworkers to insure that things run smoothly, and support the objectives of the group to build team spirit? The model investigated in the current study (see Figure 1) suggested that there are three categories of factors that influence individuals' willingness to engage in contextual performance behavior: 1) situational influences at work that clarify what is important and expected work behavior—such as reward for engaging in contextual performance or cooperative and trustworthy relationships between subordinates and supervisors; 2) person factors—such as personality characteristics or work attitudes; and 3) interactions between the person and situation factors that provide additional information about when employees are likely to engage in contextual performance behavior.

Perceived Importance of Contextual Performance

The results of the current study revealed strong support for the importance placed on contextual performance by individuals and work groups as key factors that are related to contextual performance behavior. Although the effect sizes for were not extremely large, it was clear that subordinates were more likely to engage in contextual performance

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behavior if they thought it was an important part of their job. The structural paths between individuals' perceptions of the importance of contextual performance and supervisory ratings of contextual performance behavior were as high as .53 in the current study. Several recent studies have found positive correlations between individuals' perceptions of the importance of contextual performance behavior at work and their self-reports of contextual performance behavior (Haworth Levy, 1999; Pond et al., 1997). This previous research has been open to criticism because of the potential influence of method bias on the results. However, the current study represents an advancement in this area of research in that it validated previous findings without the method bias confound.

This study went a step further in attempting to define what factors at work influence the importance that individuals place on contextual performance. People were more likely to believe that contextual performance was important if they had a positive working relationship with their supervisor, felt fairly rewarded for their work, and to a lesser degree, were informed by their supervisor that contextual performance behavior was expected. These results supported hypotheses that specific management practices would be related to subordinates placing importance on contextual performance in their jobs. This approach is consistent with that taken by early OCB researchers and is supported by a wealth of research literature that supports links between factors such as fairness and reward equity and contextual performance (see Bartle & Hayes, 1999 for review).

It should be noted that some of the other observed relationships were less interpretable. For example, the relationship between performance expectations for job dedication and situational strength for job dedication was negative and marginally

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significant (see Figure 13). It is difficult to speculate on why clearer performance expectations would be related to lower agreement among work group members concerning the importance of job dedication. The negative relationship may be spurious and should be examined in future research.

The importance placed on contextual performance by individuals and by work groups were both hypothesized to mediate the relationships between the management practices and supervisory ratings of the extent to which subordinates engage in contextual performance behavior. Although the fully mediated models fit the data worse than the partially mediated models in all but one case, two main findings from testing the alternative models suggested that the proposed mediators were at least somewhat important in the models. First, in almost all cases, a no mediation model (e.g., model 2f) fit worse than did a full mediation model (e.g., model 2e) (see Table 4). Stated differently, constraining the paths from the management practices to the mediators had more of detrimental effect on model fit than did constraining the direct paths from the management practices to the criteria.

A second relevant finding is that in most cases, the full mediation models fit the data reasonably well. The chi-square tests were never significant, the root mean square residuals were never above .05, and the fit indices ranged from .97 to 1.00 (see Tables 3 and 4). Taken together, these findings suggest that the proposed mediators contributed to the good fit of the partially mediated models.

A final note in regards to influences on the importance that individuals place on contextual performance is that post hoc applications of multiple regression analysis indicated that in addition to management practices, personal factors were also related to

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the importance that individuals place on contextual performance in their jobs. For example, conscientiousness explained eight percent and empathy two percent of the variability in importance ratings concerning interpersonal facilitation. Scores on the conscientiousness measure also explained two percent of the variance in individuals' job dedication importance ratings. The results from these post hoc analyses suggest that both individual and situational factors are related to the importance that individuals place on contextual performance.

In addition to being more likely to engage in contextual performance behavior if they thought it was important, subordinates were more likely to engage in contextual performance behavior if other members of their work group were in general agreement that contextual performance was important in their jobs. The significant path coefficients in Figure 12 (.31, $p < .05$) and Figure 13 (.27, $p < .05$) confirmed that relationship. In addition, a post hoc hierarchical regression revealed that individuals' perceptions about the importance of interpersonal facilitation and situational strength for interpersonal facilitation, each explained 3 percent of the variance in supervisory ratings of interpersonal facilitation ($p<.05$ for both). Hence, individual perceptions concerning the importance of contextual performance and group level perceptions were each uniquely related to the occurrence of contextual performance. This finding is especially important because it suggests that even if an individual does not value contextual performance as much as his or her coworkers, strong agreement among his or her coworkers that contextual performance is important, may have a positive impact on that person's level of contextual performance behavior.

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As noted earlier, contextual performance is largely about whether or not employees are *willing* to contribute to the success of their organization by pitching in and helping out or following important rules, even when there are not direct requests for help or a supervisor watching to make sure that procedures are followed. Findings from the current study suggest that if individual employees and/or work groups simply believe that contextual performance is important, they will be more likely to engage in contextual performance behavior.

Person Predictors

Hypotheses about the relationships between the "person predictors" and supervisory ratings of contextual performance were partially supported. Scores on the work attitude measures (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived organizational support) were significantly correlated with supervisory ratings of the extent to which subordinates engaged in contextual performance behavior. These findings are consistent with past research that has validated links between work attitudes and contextual performance (e.g., Bartle & Hayes, 1999). However, the present findings failed to replicate past research that has provided empirical support for conscientiousness (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and empathy (McKneely & Meglino, 1994) as predictors of contextual performance. Although there have been conflicting findings regarding empathy (Rioux and Penner, 1999 vs. McKneely and Meglino, 1994), conscientiousness is regarded as being a consistent predictor of contextual performance and of overall job performance (Barrick and Mount, 1991).

The lack of relationships between conscientiousness and any of the performance criteria calls into question the variability in the data. Perhaps only the most conscientious

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employees, in an already conscientious workforce, completed the surveys. Limited variability in the measure may have precluded detection of significant relationships. It should be noted, however, that the distribution of conscientiousness scores was only slightly negatively skewed (-.25) and that the statistic was not significant.

Interactions Between the Person and Situation Factors

Although the study was successful in capturing portions of situational influences on contextual performance behavior, it failed to find support for interactions between dispositions and situations in predicting contextual performance. It is unclear why previously found interaction effects (Beaty et al., In Press) were not replicated. Unless the effect sizes for interactions are large, detecting them can often require precision in measurement and research design in order to counterbalance frequently low statistical power. Precision in measurement was compromised somewhat in the current study by the use of several single item measures and four measures that exhibited reliability below .60. Interactional research along these lines may have to focus heavily on measurement precision in order to control as much error variance as possible and increase statistical power. In the current study this would have entailed measuring fewer constructs, with more survey items, in a larger sample.

Limitations

There were several limitations in the current study. First, a small to moderate amount of range restriction in the conscientiousness scores and significant range restriction in the interpersonal facilitation situational strength measure may have limited the ability to detect important relationships among the study variables. Most notably,

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range restriction may have limited the ability to find support for the interaction hypotheses.

A second limitation was the manner in which situational strength scores were assigned to individuals. Situational strength scores were calculated for each group and then each member of the group was assigned that score for the situational strength variables. The drawback to this procedure is that statistical significance tests were based on a sample size of 197 when in reality there were only 36 pieces of unique information for each of the situational strength variables (one score for each of the 36 groups). The result is that the significance tests are a little more liberal than they appear to be on their surface. Specifically, the standard errors for the variables involved were artificially reduced, making the detection of significant results slightly more likely. Analytic techniques are available for appropriately analyzing the current data, but require sample sizes of greater than 300. If additional data are available in the future, the data will be reanalyzed with more appropriate analytic procedures.

Finally, it is difficult, if not impossible in some instances, to interpret the causal nature of the correlational results of the current study. For example, the current results could be interpreted to indicate that if individuals place more importance on contextual performance, they will be more likely to engage in contextual performance. However, it could also be that individuals who tend to engage in contextual performance behavior simply view it as more important because they do it. It could even be the case that both types of relationships exist in the current data. However, a quasi-experimental design would need to be employed to examine the causal directions of the relationships. For example, a study might involve manipulation of the importance placed on contextual

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performance through some type of intervention, and follow-up with an assessment of the intervention's impact on individual and group performance.

Implications for Science

A major contribution of the current study is the identification of employees' perceptions of the importance of contextual performance and situational strength for contextual performance as predictors of contextual performance behavior. Results of the current study also reveal two other important details about these importance measures. First, the individual and group level perceptions concerning the importance of contextual performance operated as relatively distinct constructs in the current data set. The two measures were correlated $r = .23$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal facilitation and $r = .06$, $p > .05$ for job dedication. As noted earlier, they both accounted for unique variance in interpersonal facilitation (approximately three percent each, not corrected for attenuation). A second related point is that after entering the personality and work attitude predictors into a regression equation, each of the importance measures still accounted for a statistically significant two percent of the variance in interpersonal facilitation and a statistically significant one and one half percent of the variance in job dedication (not corrected for attenuation). Although not large, these values suggest that in this data set, individual and group level perceptions of the importance of contextual performance were not only distinct from each other, but they were also distinct from other constructs that were measured in the study.

Future research should continue to explicate these two "importance" constructs. This future research might increase the precision with which the constructs are measured by employing longer scales for measuring perceptions of importance and situational

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strength (three item scales were used in the present study). In addition, the response stem could be altered to examine the perspective that employees take in evaluating the importance of contextual performance. For example, rather than asking "In performing your job, how important is it that you...," the question might ask about the importance of engaging in a specific contextual performance behavior in comparison to working on one's own task. Perhaps such questions would transcend the "it's important because it is part of my job" aspect of responses and assess true personal willingness to engage in contextual performance.

Future research should also examine what other factors might impact the importance that individuals and work groups place on contextual performance. The variance that was accounted for in the individual and situational strength measures ranged from .08 to .26. That range suggests that there are other factors that affect the importance that individuals place on contextual performance and the extent to which groups agree on the importance of contextual performance. Perhaps the formality of the workplace environment or the extent to which individuals work interdependently would explain additional variance in the importance placed on contextual performance by individuals and groups.

As discussed earlier, additional research is clearly needed in defining the dimensions of contextual performance. More specifically, there is still some ambiguity concerning the definition of job dedication. One concern that has been expressed is the extent to which the effort and persistence component of job dedication overlaps with task performance. The current study aided somewhat in resolving the ambiguity that still exists around the definition of job dedication. Similar to recent published studies that

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have used contextual performance scales (e.g. Hogan et al., 1998), items referencing effort and persistence were not included on the scale in the current study. The current job dedication scale emphasized supporting work group objectives and following important procedures and rules. A two factor model (interpersonal facilitation and job dedication) that fit the data reasonably well and a correlation of .51 between job dedication and task performance suggest that there was not excessive overlap among job dedication and task performance.

Another issue concerns the fact that the organizational commitment and perceived organizational support measures were highly intercorrelated ($\underline{r}$ = .63). The scales were next to each other on the survey and therefore may have picked up on response sets in individuals and/or method bias. As noted earlier, the research literature concerning work attitudes and contextual performance has not clearly defined potential overlap among organizational commitment, perceived organizational support, and job satisfaction in relation to contextual performance. Although it was an interesting finding that, counter to what was predicted, organizational commitment accounted for the most unique variance in contextual performance, this finding should be qualified with reservations about the overlap among the work attitude scales. Perhaps organizational commitment does have the greatest unique relationship with contextual performance, but these data should be used cautiously in support of that theory.

Finally, the lack of support for the interaction hypotheses was surprising. As noted earlier, previous work has yielded evidence that personality-contextual performance correlations vary across work environments that differ in the degree of situational strength for contextual performance. There is excellent theoretical support for

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the idea that personality measures should be most predictive of contextual performance in weak situations and that their influence should be constrained in strong situations. However, the theoretical arguments still await additional empirical support after this study. One potential explanation for the lack of support in the current study is little variability in the interpersonal facilitation situational strength measure. The distribution of intraclass correlations had a mean of .77 and a standard deviation of .08. Post hoc analyses indicated that the distribution was negatively skewed (-.97, $p < .01$). Future research should continue to examine the interactional hypotheses in samples with greater variability in the situational strength measures.

Implications for Practice

When considering options to attempt to increase the job performance of employees, findings from the current study suggest that the more importance individuals place on contextual performance and the more that everyone in a work group believes that contextual performance is an important aspect of work, the more likely individuals will be to engage in contextual performance. One of the strengths of the current study was examination of factors at work that are related to individuals placing greater importance on contextual performance. The two most influential factors were quality relationships between supervisors and subordinates and equitable rewards for performance (distributive justice). Employees that reported trusting their supervisor and feeling as though they were paid well for the work they did, were more likely to believe that contextual performance was an important aspect of their jobs, and in turn were more likely to engage in contextual performance behavior. These findings suggest that improving supervisor-subordinate working relationships and increasing perceptions that

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employees are fairly rewarded for their efforts, are two points of intervention for improving performance.

Findings from this research also validated previous knowledge about the relationships between work attitudes and contextual performance. In the current study, more satisfied and committed employees, as well as employees that feel supported by their organization, were more likely to engage in contextual performance.

The findings from the current study validated the person and situation variables as both having important relationships with contextual performance. In order for practitioners and scientists to fully understand the nature of performance at work, it is therefore important that practitioners and scientists alike regularly evaluate person and situation predictors of performance in a variety of work settings.

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Appendix A

Subordinate Survey

There are no right or wrong answers to the following questions. Please remember that it is important that you answer honestly. Your individual responses will be kept confidential and will not be seen by your supervisor or any representative of the organization.

Perceived Importance of Interpersonal Facilitation (underlined titles not included on actual survey)
In performing your job, how important is it that you...
1. Praise your coworkers when they are successful and say things to make your coworkers feel good about themselves or the work group.
2. Help coworkers that have heavy workloads.
3. Talk to others before taking actions that might affect them.

Perceived Importance of Job Dedication
In performing your job, how important is it that you...
1. Make innovative suggestions to improve the work-group/unit.
2. Attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.
3. Support work-group/unit objectives and follow important procedures.

Empathy
The statements below may or may not describe you, your feelings or your behavior. Please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement. There are no right or wrong responses.
1. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.
2. Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems.
3. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them.
4. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.
5. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.
6. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.

Conscientiousness
Indicate to what extent you agree that each of the adjectives below describes you as a person.
1. Reliable
2. Hardworking
3. Careless
4. Conscientious
5. Disorganized
6. Sloppy
7. Self-Disciplined
8. Punctual

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Appendix A

Subordinate Survey

Job Satisfaction
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job.
3. Generally speaking, I like working here.

Perceived Organizational Support
1. My organization cares about my opinions.
2. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
3. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
4. My organization shows very little concern for me.
5. My organization really cares about my well-being.

Organizational Commitment
1. I do not feel like part of the family at my organization.
2. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
3. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization.
4. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Interpersonal Facilitation Performance Expectations
1. My supervisor has made it clear that it is important that my coworkers and I help each other in order to get work finished, treat each other fairly, and encourage one another to get along.

Rewards for Engaging in Interpersonal Facilitation Behavior
1. I am likely to be rewarded with a pay raise or bonus if my supervisor sees me pitching in and helping my coworkers get work done, treating my coworkers fairly, and encouraging those around me to get along.

Job Dedication Performance Expectations
1. My supervisor has made it clear that it is important I follow procedures and support the work group/unit objectives.

Rewards for Engaging in Job Dedication Behavior
1. I am likely to be rewarded with a pay raise or bonus if my supervisor sees me using my work time wisely, supporting the work group/unit objectives, making innovative suggestions to improve the work group/unit?

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Appendix A

Subordinate Survey

Procedural Justice

Please indicate the extent to which you agree that the procedures at this organization are designed to...

1. ..generate standards so that decisions can be made with consistency.
2. ..hear the concerns of all those affected by the decision.
3. ..provide useful feedback regarding the decision and its implementation.
4. ..allow for requests for clarification or additional information about the decision.
5. ..provide opportunities to appeal or challenge the decision.

Distributive Justice

1. I am fairly rewarded for the effort I put forth.
2. I am fairly rewarded for the work I have done well.
3. I am fairly rewarded for the stresses and strains of my job.

Quality of Relationship with Supervisor-Leader-Member Exchange

1. I usually know where I stand in terms of how satisfied my immediate supervisor is with what I do.
2. My immediate supervisor understands my problems and needs.
3. *Regardless of how much formal authority your immediate supervisor has built into his or her position...* my supervisor would be personally inclined to use power to help me solve problems in my work.
4. *Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your immediate supervisor has...* I can count on my supervisor to "bail me out" at his or her expense when I really need it.
5. I would characterize my working relationship with my immediate supervisor as extremely effective.

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Appendix B

Supervisor Survey

Interpersonal Facilitation
How likely is it that this subordinate will...
1. Help coworkers without being asked.
2. Talk to others before taking actions that might affect them.
3. Help coworkers who have heavy workloads.
4. Say things to make coworkers feel good about themselves or the work group.
5. Praise coworkers when they are successful.

Job Dedication
How likely is it that this subordinate will...
1. Follow important work group/unit procedures.
2. Make innovative suggestions to improve the work group/unit.
3. Attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.
4. Support work group/unit objectives.

Task performance
How likely is it that this subordinate will...
1. Effectively perform the technical aspects of the job?
2. Competently handle assigned tasks?
3. Adequately complete assigned duties?

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Appendix C

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results For Abbreviated and Altered Scales.

Scale	Item	Factor Loading	RMSR	NFI	CFI
Interpersonal Facilitation	1	.84	.07	.82	.85
	2	.65			
	3	.76			
	4	.63			
	5	.68			
Job Dedication	1	.66			
	2	.47			
	3	.50			
	4	.83			
Task Performance	1	.83	.00	1.00	1.00
	2	.71			
	3	.86			
Empathy	1	.72	.04	.94	.96
	2	.48			
	3	.54			
	4	.77			
	5	.74			
	6	.74			
Conscientiousness	1	.57	.06	.83	.84
	2	.57			

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Appendix C

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results For Abbreviated and Altered Scales.

Scale	Item	Factor Loading	RMSR	NFI	CFI
Conscientiousness	3	.51			
	4	.49			
	5	.70			
	6	.59			
	7	.59			
	8	.40			
Perceived Organizational Support	1	.85	.03	.97	.98
	2	.88			
	3	.63			
	4	.80			
	5	.78			
Organizational Commitment	1	.56	.05	.93	.93
	2	.73			
	3	.87			
	4	.83			
Interpersonal Facilitation Importance	1	.59	.00	1.00	1.00
	2	.48			
	3	.55			

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Appendix C

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results For Abbreviated and Altered Scales.

Scale	Item	Factor Loading	RMSR	NFI	CFI
Job Dedication Importance	1	.43	.00	1.00	1.00
	2	.35			
	3	.74			
Procedural Justice	1	.66	.04	.95	.96
Procedural Justice	2	.86			
	3	.80			
	4	.74			
	5	.69			
Distributive Justice	1	.87	.00	1.00	1.00
	2	.81			
	3	.70			
Leader-Member Exchange	1	.86	.07	.86	.86
	2	.88			
	3	.59			
	4	.65			
	5	.85			

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