WHAT MAKES A GOOD CITIZEN? AN EXAMINATION OF PERSONALITY

AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AS PREDICTORS OF

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation

by

KRISTEN MICHELLE WATROUS-RODRIGUEZ

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2010

Major Subject: Psychology

WHAT MAKES A GOOD CITIZEN? AN EXAMINATION OF PERSONALITY

AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AS PREDICTORS OF

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation

by

KRISTEN MICHELLE WATROUS-RODRIGUEZ

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Approved by:

Chair of Committee,	Mindy Bergman
Committee Members,	Winfred Arthur, Jr.
	Stephanie C. Payne
	Ryan D. Zimmerman
Head of Department,	Les Morey

May 2010

Major Subject: Psychology

ABSTRACT

What Makes a Good Citizen? An Examination of Personality and Organizational

Commitment as Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. (May 2010)

Kristen Michelle Watrous-Rodriguez, B.A., University of Houston;

M.S., Texas A&M University

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Mindy E. Bergman

This study utilized the meta-theoretical framework developed by McCrae and

Costa in 1996 that explains individual differences in human nature and the theory

regarding the role of individual differences in task performance and organizational

citizenship behaviors (OCB) proposed by Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit in 1997, to

examine the interrelationships among the Big Five personality traits (conscientiousness,

agreeableness, extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience), three

components of organizational commitment (affective, normative, continuance), and

OCB. Two samples were included; Sample 1 ($N = 133$) consisted of employed

undergraduate students and their coworkers and Sample 2 ($N = 241$) consisted of older,

more stably employed adults. Participants in both samples completed measures of

personality, organizational commitment, and OCB. Further, in Sample 1, coworker

participants provided a rating of the primary participants' OCB. Four sets of analyses

were conducted to examine: 1) personality-OCB relationships, 2) organizational

commitment-OCB relationships, 3) personality-organizational commitment

relationships, and 4) organizational commitment as a mediator of personality-OCB

relationships. Results of the first set indicated that conscientiousness, agreeableness,

extraversion, and emotional stability were positively related to OCB in at least one

analysis. Results of the second set indicated that affective and normative commitment

were positively related to OCB in both samples. While not consistent across samples,

results of the third set indicated that conscientiousness, agreeableness, and extraversion

were positively related to both affective and normative commitment; openness to

experience was negatively related to normative commitment; conscientiousness was

positively related to continuance commitment; and emotional stability and openness to

experience were negatively related to continuance commitment in at least one analysis.

Results of the fourth set indicated that, in Sample 1, affective and normative

commitment partially mediated the conscientiousness-OCB relationship. Further, in

Sample 2, affective and normative commitment partially mediated relationships between

each of agreeableness and extraversion and OCB. Overall, these findings offer support

for McCrae and Costa's meta-theoretical framework and Motowidlo, Borman, and

Schmit's theory.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Luis, and my son, Elijah. I am deeply indebted to Lu for being my constant supporter and motivator. I thank him for his patience and for supporting and believing in me throughout my undergraduate and graduate education. I do not have words to express how much his love and support have meant to me. I know that I could not have completed this degree without his assistance and for that I am eternally grateful. I dedicate this dissertation also to my son, Eli. When the demands of work, school, and family overwhelm me, I know that I am doing it for him—to teach him to persevere through all obstacles, to never quit, and to reach his goals, no matter what they are.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Mindy Bergman, for her direction and guidance on this dissertation. I thank her for her patience, for providing insightful feedback and suggestions, and for motivating and supporting me throughout this long process. I also would like to thank my committee members, Winfred Arthur, Jr., Stephanie Payne, and Ryan Zimmerman, for their time, involvement, and guidance throughout the course of this project.

I also thank my colleagues at St. Mary's University, Heather Hill, Jennifer Zwahr-Castro, Pat Owen, Greg Pool, and Kurt Choate, for supporting and believing in me and allowing me to take the time to complete this project. I especially thank Heather for her assistance and advice.

Finally, I thank my family (Mom, Dad, Ann, Tim, Cheryl, Jennifer, Madison, and Taylor) and my in-laws (Tina, Ruben, Erica, Jermaine, Leeana, Jonathan, Brianna, and Jenica) for their encouragement and Lu and Eli for their patience and love.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has a long history as an important organizational construct. Research on OCB dates back to the 1930s, with Barnard's (1938) discussion of the "informal organization" and it continues to receive attention in the literature today as the subject of several recent reviews and meta-analyses (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Further, OCB is a central construct for both organizations and the individuals who work for them. OCB is vital at the organizational level, as it supports overall organizational effectiveness (Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Katz, 1964; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Some researchers (e.g., Borman, 2004; Organ & McFall, 2004) speculate that OCB might be important at the recruiting and selection phase, such that interviewers might select applicants who they perceive as likely to engage in OCB for those positions in which OCB is important. OCB also is important at the individual level, as it has been found to be considered by supervisors in the evaluation of performance (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Hoffman et al., 2007; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Orr, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989; Podsakoff &

_____

This dissertation follows the style of *Journal of Applied Psychology*.

MacKenzie, 1994). Finally, OCB is related to important job and organizational attitudes, including job satisfaction and organizational commitment (LePine et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

It is obvious that OCB's relationship with individual and organizational outcomes makes it a central construct in organizational research. As stated above, it has been argued that individual indicators of potential OCB engagement may influence organizational hiring decisions for those jobs in which OCB is important (e.g., Borman, 2004; Organ & McFall, 2004) such that some organizations may select employees on the basis of potential to perform OCB. If this is the case, then it must be possible to differentiate prospective employees based on this propensity toward OCB, thus indicating that some individual difference characteristics must underlie the performance of OCB. As such, a thorough understanding of the ways in which individual differences contribute to OCB is important. The present paper extends the extant literature on OCB by examining the relationships among personality variables, organizational commitment, and OCB. Specifically, I attempt to determine how OCB can be predicted by employees' level of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997) and their Big Five personality traits (i.e., agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, extraversion, and openness to experience; Costa & McCrae, 1986; 1988).

To my knowledge, no research to date has examined the personality-organizational commitment relationship and its impact on OCB. Two possible explanations for the relationships among these three constructs are explored. First, it is possible that personality and organizational commitment have only distinct, main effects

in the prediction of OCB. The second possibility is a mediating relationship. Here, I propose that organizational commitment mediates the relationship between personality and OCB. Specifically, individuals' unique personality traits influence their levels of the different organizational commitment components, which impact their enactment of OCB. The goal of this paper is to determine which of these two possibilities best explains the relationship among these three constructs.

Organ and McFall (2004) note that most studies collect data from one organization, which contributes to our lack of understanding of these relationships. This is because individuals are selected into and turnover from organizations based on the fit between their traits and the climate of the organization (Schneider, 1987). Thus, data from one organization does not provide a full picture of the personality-OCB relationship because selection into the organization based on individual differences should restrict the range of individual differences in a single organization. Therefore, advances in research must be made through the examination of data from multiple organizations. The current research addresses this issue by including data from two samples of individuals employed in a wide variety of organizations.

Throughout the remainder of this paper, I delve deeper into the research on these constructs. First, I provide an overview of the relevant theory on OCB, personality, and organizational commitment. Next, I review the extant literature on the relationships among these constructs by discussing research on the personality-OCB relationship, the organizational commitment-OCB relationship, and the personality-organizational commitment relationship. Finally, after examining what is known about the

relationships between pairs of these constructs, I revisit the possible models outlined above.

Overview of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

In order to delineate the current conceptualization of the OCB construct, I first describe the more general area of organizational helping behaviors and then trace the evolution of the OCB construct. Additionally, I present and discuss the distinction between OCB and task performance.

The constructs underlying and associated with OCB have a very long history. As early as 1938, Barnard theorized about the "informal organization" and the idea that employees must cooperate for the good of the overall organization. Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) also discussed cooperation, which they defined as spontaneous prosocial behaviors often performed by individuals that assist others with work-related needs. In the 1960s, cooperation continued to be a topic of interest. For example, Katz (1964) discussed cooperative behaviors that extend beyond formal role requirements, noting that they have an important influence on organizational functioning.

Several researchers have discussed the muddled state of the literature on organizational helping behavior (e.g., Coleman & Borman, 2000; LePine et al., 2002; Organ, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Schnake, 1991; Small & Diefendorff, 2006; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995), noting that terms such as prosocial organizational behavior (POB), OCB, and contextual performance are often treated as synonymous. However, some researchers (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002) note that Organ's (1988; 1997; Smith et al., 1983) conceptualization of OCB is the

oldest and most researched conceptualization of workplace helping behaviors in the extant literature (LePine et al., 2002). In the following pages, this history is traced.

Organizational citizenship behavior. One influential and commonly utilized conceptualization of OCB was offered by Smith et al. (1983). They defined OCB as individual, discretionary behavior not rewarded by the organization that a) assists coworkers in performing their jobs, b) provides support for the organization, and/or c) shows conscientiousness toward the organization. Originally, OCB was thought to fall outside traditional conceptualizations of job performance, as it was behavior that was not prescribed or required for a specific job (Bateman & Organ, 1983). In its original state, OCB was comprised of two dimensions: 1) *altruism*, which was defined as helping behavior directed toward specific individuals (e.g., helping new employees get oriented, helping others with large workloads) and 2) *generalized compliance*, which was defined as impersonal conscientious behavior that helps others in the organization, including following rules, norms, and expectations (e.g., being punctual, not wasting time). OCB was considered to be directed toward the social interworking of organizations. Two important points related to this early conceptualization of OCB are that it was considered to be 1) extra-role and 2) unrewarded, although Smith et al. (1983) did note that OCB was often noticed by supervisors and therefore could influence subjective performance evaluations. The researchers developed an assessment of their two proposed citizenship dimensions (i.e., altruism and generalized compliance; Smith et al., 1983).

Organ (1988) later expanded on this conceptualization of OCB by adding three dimensions to the original construct. These were civic virtue, organizational courtesy,

and sportsmanship. *Civic virtue* is employee involvement in the political working of an organization (e.g., attending important meetings). *Organizational courtesy* involves employee behaviors that ward off potential problems (e.g., informing supervisors of impending situations to ensure they are handled appropriately). Finally, *sportsmanship* is a lack of complaining about work conditions. A scale was later developed to measure these five dimensions (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

There has been some debate in the extant literature regarding the dimensionality of OCB, with different researchers proposing different dimensions of the OCB construct. Williams and Anderson (1991) split OCB into two dimensions: OCB-I and OCB-O. *OCB-I* is OCB directed toward individuals and is comprised of the altruism and courtesy dimensions. *OCB-O* is OCB directed toward the organization and is comprised of conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. Other researchers suggest that OCB is unidimensional (Allen & Rush, 1998; Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998; Deckop, Mangel, & Cirka, 1999). These unidimensional conceptualizations typically select items from existing OCB scales (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Smith et al., 1983) to create aggregate scores to measure their constructs. When meta-analytic techniques are used to examine the dimensionality of OCB, the construct has been found to be unidimensional. LePine et al. (2002) found that the five dimensions proposed by Organ (1988) were strongly related and that the dimensions failed to correlate differentially with attitude measures (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment). Hoffman et al. (2007) also found that OCB is best conceptualized as a unidimensional construct, that it is distinct from task performance, and that it demonstrates stronger relationships with attitudes (e.g.,

organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational justice) than does task performance. Thus, research supports the conceptualization of OCB as a unidimensional construct.

Prosocial organizational behavior (POB). A second construct in the organizational helping behavior arena is POB (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). POB is behavior performed by employees that is aimed toward individuals, groups, or the overall organization with the purpose of helping the target of the behavior. POB differs from the original conceptualization of OCB in that it can be either in-role or extra-role. Additionally, it can be either functional or dysfunctional for the organization. The latter (i.e., a helping behavior that is dysfunctional for the organization) occurs when employees assist fellow employees with a problem at the cost of completing their own work; although this helps the fellow employee, it fails to help the overall organization. Thus, the behavior is prosocial toward others in the organization, but overall does not advance organizational goals.

Soldier effectiveness. Soldier effectiveness was originally developed to describe the performance of first term soldiers in the United States Army (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman, Motowidlo, Rose, & Hansen, 1985, as cited in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Borman and his colleagues argued that soldier performance extended beyond formal task performance or technical knowledge; it also included organizational socialization, organizational commitment, and morale. Specifically, Borman et al. (1985 as cited in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) developed a three-dimensional model of soldier performance based on different compilations of these three characteristics. The first

dimension, *determination*, consisted of morale and organizational commitment and was comprised of the subfactors perseverance, endurance, conscientiousness, initiative, and discipline. The second dimension, *teamwork*, was comprised of morale and organizational socialization. It contained the subdimensions cooperation, camaraderie, concern for unit morale, boosting unit morale, and leadership. Finally, the third dimension, *allegiance*, consisted of socialization and organizational commitment and had the subdimensions following orders, following regulations, respect for authority, military bearing, and commitment.

Contextual performance. Expanding on their previous work on the good soldier, Borman and Motowidlo (1993; 1997) developed a theory of contextual performance. They considered it to be a multidimensional construct that was based on previous theories and/or constructs including OCB (Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983), POB (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), soldier effectiveness (Borman et al., 1985 as cited in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997), and organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992). Contextual performance was described as consisting of five dimensions: 1) persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort to complete tasks, 2) volunteering to complete tasks that fall outside one's job, 3) helping and cooperating with others, 4) following rules and procedures, and 5) endorsing, supporting, and defending the organization's objectives. Borman and Motowidlo stated that contextual performance differed from Smith et al.'s (1983) concept of OCB because contextual performance is not extra-role or unrewarded behavior. They further noted that it differed from task performance in several ways. First, while task performance varies across jobs, contextual performance is similar across

jobs. Second, tasks are typically in-role activities while contextual performance is not always role-prescribed. Finally, they proposed that task and contextual performance would have different antecedents, such that task performance would be predicted by cognitive ability whereas contextual performance would be predicted by personality (Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997).

Reconciling OCB and contextual performance. Following the emergence of contextual performance in the literature, Organ (1997) reevaluated the OCB construct. He re-conceptualized OCB and proposed that it should not be considered unrewarded or extra-role behavior. Indeed, he noted that research indicated that managers put a monetary value on OCB (e.g., Orr et al., 1989). However, he also noted that OCB is less likely than task performance to be considered a job requirement and to result in systematic rewards. He added that OCB could now be viewed as analogous to Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) conceptualization of contextual performance. However, Organ argued that the term "OCB" should be used rather than "contextual performance" because it was more readily understood.

Citizenship performance. Coleman and Borman (2000) attempted to further understand the contextual performance domain and, in the process, repackaged and renamed it as citizenship performance. They asked I/O psychologists to separate citizenship performance behaviors into clusters and used several analytical techniques (i.e., factor analysis, multidimensional scaling, cluster analysis) to determine the underlying structure of the construct. Their results indicated three dimensions of citizenship performance. First, *interpersonal citizenship performance* is behavior that

promotes the interests of organizational members through support, assistance, and cooperation. It is similar to OCB-I and contextual performance and includes concepts such as helping others, acting altruistically and conscientiously toward others, and facilitating interpersonal relationships. Second, *organizational citizenship performance* is behavior that promotes the interests of the organization through organizational loyalty and compliance with organizational rules and procedures. It is similar to OCB-O and contextual performance and involves behaviors that support or defend the organization's objectives, that demonstrate loyalty and allegiance toward the organization, and that fit within the sportsmanship and civic virtue components of OCB. Finally, *job-task conscientiousness* is behavior that promotes the job or task, such as the exertion of additional effort, dedication to the job, and a desire to increase job performance.

Borman and colleagues (Borman & Penner, 2001; Borman, 2004; Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001) further discuss the citizenship performance construct. They note that it is analogous to the previous conceptualization of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997). Further, while they also discuss three dimensions of the construct, they use the terms personal support, organizational support, and conscientious initiative to replace Coleman and Borman's (2000) original terms and to condense Borman and Motowidlo's (1993; 1997) five dimensions. The term *personal support* replaces "interpersonal citizenship performance" (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Personal support is analogous to Borman and Motowidlo's "helping and cooperating with others" contextual performance dimension. The term *organizational support* replaces Coleman and Borman's "organizational citizenship performance."

Organizational support encompasses Borman and Motowidlo's "rule/procedure compliance" and "endorsing, supporting, or defending organizational objectives" contextual performance dimensions. Finally, the term *conscientiousness initiative* replaces "job-task conscientiousness" (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Conscientious initiative consists of Borman and Motowidlo's "persisting with enthusiasm" and "exerting extra effort and volunteering to complete tasks that fall outside one's job" dimensions of contextual performance.

In sum, citizenship performance is essentially a re-conceptualization of contextual performance. Further, Organ (1997) reconciled the issue of OCB and contextual performance when he revisited the OCB construct, as discussed previously. Thus, the distinction between contextual performance, citizenship performance, and OCB is primarily semantic at this point. I will use the term "OCB" to refer to the previously discussed lines of research throughout the remainder of this paper because the term "OCB" is commonly used in the literature and because it describes a report of behavior rather than an appraisal of behavior as the term "citizenship *performance*" does.

OCB and Task Performance

Task performance describes the effectiveness by which employees perform behaviors that affect the organization's technical core either by executing a process or by providing necessary materials or services. In contrast, OCB influences and supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance occurs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Further, while the activities that constitute

task performance vary across different jobs, the activities that constitute OCB are similar across jobs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Borman & Penner, 2001; Borman et al., 2001). Research indicates that these two constructs are distinct yet related (Conway, 1999; Hoffman et al., 2007; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) and that OCB is related to overall performance ratings (Allen & Rush, 1998; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Orr et al., 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000). While research demonstrates that indicators of these two sets of behaviors can be reliably sorted into task and OCB categories (Conway, 1996), it is also proposed that many supervisors consider OCB to be important to effective task performance and thus knowingly include some aspects of OCB in task performance ratings (Borman et al., 1995; Hoffman et al., 2007; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Orr et al., 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

The extant research generally supports the idea that OCB and task performance make relatively equal contributions to overall performance judgments (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman et al., 1995; Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994; Hunter & Schmidt, 1996; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). That is, when supervisors make overall judgments about subordinates' performance, their task performance and OCB are weighted relatively equally. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) demonstrated this empirically when they found that the correlation between task performance and overall performance ($r = .43$) was roughly equal to the correlation between OCB and overall performance ($r = .41$). Additionally, they found that task performance accounted for 13% of the variance in overall performance beyond that explained by contextual performance, while contextual

performance explained 11% of the variance in overall performance beyond that explained by task performance. While the majority of research supports this relationship, other researchers have found that task performance makes a larger contribution to overall performance than OCB does. For example, Rotundo and Sackett (2002) found that task performance was weighted more heavily than OCB in its contribution to overall performance. Additionally, Conway (1999) found that, when assessing managerial performance, the interpersonal facilitation component of OCB contributed uniquely to overall performance ratings.

This notion is important because performance ratings strongly affect employees' organizational lives. Such ratings impact multiple managerial decisions (Podsakoff et al., 2000) and are used in long-term decisions (e.g., rewards; Allen & Rush, 1998; raises, downsizing; Borman, 2004; promotions; Borman, 2004; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; demotions, terminations; Hunter & Schmidt, 1996) in addition to short-term ones (e.g., daily assignments; Borman, 2004). Cleveland, Murphy, and Williams (1989) empirically examined the use of performance appraisal data and found that the most common uses were to make salary decisions, administer performance feedback, and identify employees' strengths and weaknesses. OCB ratings are so important that their effect on such decisions is as great—or possibly greater than—the effect of in-role performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Indeed, Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found that the correlation between the likelihood of promotion and OCB ($r = .34$) was higher than the correlation between the likelihood of promotion and task performance ($r = .14$).

Thus, OCB is the outcome variable of interest in this study because it is an important organizational outcome that is highly influential in employees' organizational lives.

OCB and Organizational Effectiveness

Research indicates that OCB is important for organizational effectiveness (Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Katz, 1964; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Podsakoff and colleagues (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000) reviewed four studies that investigated the link between OCB and four indictors of overall organizational effectiveness. They found that OCB accounted for 19% of the variance in performance quantity, 18% of the variance in performance quality, 25% of the variance in financial efficiency, and 38% of the variance in customer service. Additionally, the results of a longitudinal study indicate that citizenship performance may actually cause organizational effectiveness (Koys, 2001). As such, it is obvious that OCB is an important contributor to organizational effectiveness.

Several conceptual explanations exist for the influence of OCB on organizational effectiveness. First, the conscientiousness component of OCB has consistently been related to performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Second, when employees engage in OCB, they perform necessary maintenance duties that the organization would otherwise have to use its resources to cover (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Third, OCB might increase the performance of management and coworkers (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), although this could coincide with a detriment to the OCB

performer's level of task performance (Smith et al., 1983). Fourth, engagement in OCB may be a means by which team members and work groups coordinate their actions. Fifth, OCB may make an organization an attractive place to work, thus enabling it to attract and retain exceptional employees. Finally, OCB may enhance both the stability of the organization's performance and its ability to adapt to changes in its environment (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Antecedents of OCB

Although past research has explored possible antecedents of OCB, the extant literature is lacking a clear explanation of the causes of OCB and a theory to describe the nomological network of OCB. McCrae and Costa (1996) describe a meta-theoretical framework that specifies six components that are critical for understanding the role of individual differences in human nature, which can be used to understand the effect of individual differences on OCBs. Additionally, this meta-theoretical framework accounts for attitudes, motivational tendencies, and other psychological phenomena, which also allows organizational commitment to be fit into the framework.

According to McCrae and Costa (1996), *basic tendencies* are relatively stable and enduring dispositions and abilities that differ across individuals. Examples include physical abilities, learning ability, and personality traits. Basic tendencies are abstract and cannot be observed directly; rather they must be inferred from *characteristic adaptations.* Characteristic adaptations form through the combination of basic tendencies and experiences and represent tangible manifestations of basic tendencies that develop over time and become ingrained. They include individual attitudes and skills

that arise due to the interaction of the individual with his or her environment and can transfer across various situations. Examples include beliefs about religion and morality, political attitudes, and social relationships. Third, *self-concept* includes an individual's self-evaluation or self-identity and relates to feelings of personal worth. Examples include self-esteem and a sense of identity. Fourth, *objective biography* comprises the entirety of an individual's life experiences. Included here are overt behaviors that personality theories seek to predict, which I propose include OCB. Fifth, *external influences* are the situations that individuals experience. These can be either specific situations (e.g., workplace characteristics) or global situations (e.g., culture). Finally, *dynamic processes* join the above components. Examples include identity formation, emotional regulation, and information processing. McCrae and Costa did not specify a particular arrangement among these six components; rather, they proposed that the framework is more adaptable, such that a variety of dynamic processes can link the components together in various ways.

Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997) drew upon McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework to offer a theory of job performance explaining why the antecedents of task performance are different from those of OCB. Their basic premise is that different basic tendencies influence task- and OCB-specific characteristic adaptations, which mediate the effects of basic tendencies on task or contextual performance. Specifically, they suggest that OCB-relevant basic tendencies (e.g., personality) influence OCB-related characteristic adaptations, which include contextual habits (e.g., conflict-resolution methods, political styles), skills (e.g., skill used in helping others, following rules, etc.),

and knowledge (e.g., knowledge relevant for cooperating with diverse groups, promoting a positive organizational image to others, etc.); which affect contextual performance. In contrast, task-specific basic tendencies influence task-related characteristic adaptations, including task habits (e.g., methods for performing task-related procedures, decision making), skills (e.g., skill used in performing tasks), and knowledge (e.g., knowledge of rules and procedures necessary to support the organization's technical core); which then affect task performance. They further note that crossover effects may exist, such that cognitive ability may influence OCB through its effects on contextual habits, skills, and knowledge or that personality may influence task performance through its effects on task habits, skills, and knowledge, but the strongest influences are the ones outlined above (i.e., personality influences OCB, cognitive ability influences task performance). These relationships are expected due to the different types of attributes necessary to perform OCB and task-related behaviors. OCB is not job-specific but rather consists of general activities that are consistent across jobs (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Borman & Penner, 2001) and that support the social environment in which task-related behaviors occur (Motowidlo et al., 1997). These general, organizationally-pervasive activities should be predicted by stable, enduring characteristics of individuals that describe the ways in which they interact in their environments (i.e., personality). In contrast, task performance is job-specific (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Borman & Penner, 2001) and requires job-specific knowledge in order to be successfully enacted. Further, a wealth of research supports the notion that cognitive ability is one of the best predictors of job performance across jobs (e.g., Hunter, 1986; Murphy, 1996; Schmidt, Ones, &

Hunter, 1992). Finally, past research supports Motowidlo et al.'s position that personality is a stronger predictor of OCB and cognitive ability is a stronger predictor of task performance (e.g., Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988).

This paper utilizes the work of McCrae and Costa (1996) and Motowidlo et al. (1997) to suggest possible interrelationships among personality, organizational commitment, and OCB. Given McCrae and Costa's (1996) lack of specific arrangements among these components, independent and direct effects of personality and organizational commitment on OCB are possible. A second possibility, following in line with Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) interpretation, is that one basic tendency (i.e., personality) influences a characteristic adaptation (i.e., organizational commitment) to influence the variable of interest, OCB—an objective biography. As such, the next sections of the paper will define and review relevant literature on personality and organizational commitment and discuss the relationships between these variables and OCB.

Big Five Personality Traits

The Big Five personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1986; 1988; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1981; 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1987) are five distinct facets of personality that provide a useful taxonomy for examining individual differences. The Big Five traits are conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience. *Conscientiousness* is described by terms such as careful, reliable, intelligent, practical, well-organized, self-disciplined, and punctual. *Agreeableness* involves being

flexible, cheerful, good-natured, humble, open-minded, generous, and acquiescent. *Extraversion* is marked by descriptors like talkative, warm, sociable, fun-loving, spontaneous, friendly, and bold. *Emotionally stable* individuals are secure, patient, and not anxious. Emotional stability is often described by the negative end of its continuum, *neuroticism*, which describes individuals who are worrisome, insecure, impatient, envious, emotional, high-strung, and nervous (McCrae & Costa, 1987). *Openness to experience* is marked by adjectives such as original, artistic, analytical, liberal, curious, imaginative, and untraditional. A vast amount of research has been conducted on the Big Five and its structure has been supported cross-culturally (e.g., Bond, Nakazato, & Shiraishi, 1975; Borkenau & Ostendorf, 1989 as cited in Digman, 1990; Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981) as well as across sex and occupations (Costa & McCrae, 1988).

As noted above, the Big Five personality traits are defined as basic tendencies by McCrae and Costa (1996). However, it is important to note that personality as a basic tendency—like any basic tendency—is not directly observable; assessments of personality must be used, and the responses that people make to personality assessments are considered by McCrae and Costa (1996) to be characteristic adaptations. I will use the term "basic tendency" when discussing theoretical descriptions of personality traits; further, for the sake of simplicity and clarity, I will continue to use the term "basic tendency" when discussing assessments of personality (i.e., data), as the data are meant as proxies for the basic tendency. That is, theoretically, I am interested in the basic tendency of personality and not the characteristic adaptations of answering personality assessments.

OCB and Personality

The extant literature is equivocal with regard to the personality-OCB relationship. Some research suggests that personality is related to OCB (e.g., Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Hogan, Rybicki, Motowidlo, & Borman, 1998; King, George, & Hebl, 2005; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995) while other research suggests that the relationship is not apparent or as strong as would be expected (e.g., Organ, 1994a; Organ, 1994b; Organ & McFall, 2004; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000) and/or that only one personality trait (i.e., conscientiousness) shows promise as a predictor of OCB (Organ & McFall, 2004; Organ, 1994b; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The following paragraphs review this literature in greater depth.

Several studies have found that personality variables are more strongly related to OCB than to task performance while experience and cognitive ability are more strongly related to task performance than OCB (Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Campbell, 1990; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Campbell (1990) found that general cognitive ability was more strongly correlated with task than contextual performance whereas the trait of dependability showed the reverse. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found that correlations between personality dimensions (i.e., work orientation, dependability, cooperativeness, locus of control) and contextual performance were significantly higher than in the relationships with task performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1997) also note that in 13 of 14 validation studies conducted using the

Hogan Personality Inventory between 1993 and 1996, mean correlations between personality ratings and OCB criteria (e.g., teamwork, customer service) were higher than those with overall performance ratings, which could include both task performance and OCB. Finally, Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger, and Freifeld (1995) developed a scale to measure individuals' prosocial personality orientation, a construct comprised of two dimensions: 1) *other-oriented empathy*, which involves feeling empathy and concern for others (i.e., prosocial feelings) and 2) *helpfulness*, which involves actually engaging in helpful actions (i.e., prosocial behavior). Borman and Penner (2001) discuss several unpublished studies (e.g., Midili, 1996; Midili & Penner, 1995; Negrao, 1997; Rioux, 1998; Tillman, 1998) that have reported positive correlations between these two dimensions and OCB. Thus, a large body of research supports the idea that the relationships between personality variables and OCB and between cognitive ability and task performance are stronger than the personality- task performance or cognitive ability-OCB relationships

It is important to note, however, that some researchers have failed to find such effects. For example, in Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis of OCB predictors, conscientiousness was the only personality trait of those examined (i.e., conscientiousness, agreeableness, negative affectivity, positive affectivity) that predicted OCB. Additionally, Hurtz and Donavan (2000) meta-analytically demonstrated that the Big Five personality traits were no more predictive of discretionary work behavior than they were of task performance.. Thus, although there are numerous studies that demonstrate a stronger effect of personality on OCB than on task performance, the

scattershot inclusion of different personality traits, the equivocal individual study results, and some meta-analytic summaries of these data make it difficult to discern the state of the personality-OCB relationship.

There are a few reasons for the equivocal state of the personality-OCB relationship. First, the influence of personality on OCB may not be direct. Rather, personality may have an indirect influence on OCB by contributing to job attitudes, which in turn influence OCB (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). This alternative explanation will be explored later in the present paper. Additionally, only a limited number of personality variables have received attention in the literature (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995). However, even in this muddy state, several researchers suggest that the door be left open to further explore this relationship (e.g., King et al., 2005; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ, 1994b).

While other personality variables (e.g., hardiness, Turnipseed, 2003; positive and negative affectivity, Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ & Ryan, 1995) have been examined in relation to job behaviors, I will focus on the Big Five personality traits in this paper because this model represents the best validated and most widely understood model of personality in the literature and because it is a commonly-used paradigm in the I/O literature. Personality traits are expected to relate to OCB because they represent basic tendencies (McCrae & Costa, 1996), or enduring dispositions that vary across people. Further, according to McCrae and Costa's framework, basic tendencies predict individuals' objective biographies, or their life experiences, which I propose include OCB. Of course, because McCrae and Costa's framework is flexible, not all personality

traits will be relevant to OCB. In the following, I will review each Big Five trait individually and make specific hypotheses about relationships with OCB. These hypotheses represent one possible explanation of the relationship among the variables of interest (i.e., OCB, personality, and organizational commitment) because they concern the direct effects of the Big Five personality traits on OCB.

Conscientiousness and OCB. Conscientiousness is marked by descriptors such as reliable, intelligent, well-organized, and practical (McCrae & Costa, 1987). This personality trait has received considerable attention as a predictor of OCB, which has overwhelmingly supported it as a predictor of OCB (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993; Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001; Dalal, 2005; Hogan et al., 1998; Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; King et al., 2005; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; LePine et al., 2002; Miller, Griffin, & Hart, 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Organ, 1994b; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Small & Diefendorff, 2006; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Cross-cultural research has even supported a conscientiousness-OCB link among Mexican sales associates (O'Connell, Doverspike, Norris-Watts, & Hattrup, 2001). Of course, there are some studies that have not found support for conscientiousness as a predictor of OCB (Comeau & Griffith, 2005; McManus & Kelly, 1999; Facteau, Allen, Facteau, Bordas, & Tears, 2000). Thus, the general consensus is that conscientiousness has received the most support and is the best predictor of OCB among the Big Five traits (Borman et al., 2001; King et al., 2005; Organ, 1994b; Organ & McFall, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Small & Diefendorff, 2006).

Many of the various conceptualizations of OCB contain a dimension similar to conscientiousness. One of Smith et al.'s (1983; Organ, 1988) OCB dimensions, *generalized compliance*, is defined as a type of impersonal conscientious behavior. Podsakoff et al. (1990) created a scale to assess OCB based on Organ's (1988) conceptualization and included a subscale entitled "conscientiousness." Additionally, the dimension of determination in Borman and colleagues' (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman et al., 1985 as cited in Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) model of soldier effectiveness contains conscientiousness as a subfactor. This overlap may explain why research has supported the personality trait of conscientiousness as a predictor of OCB. Trait conscientiousness may be predicting the more impersonal forms of OCB, such as generalized compliance (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). The descriptors for trait conscientiousness, such as responsible and practical, describe a credo for following prescribed rules and regulations that constitute such forms of OCB (Organ, 1994a; 1994b; Smith et al., 1983).

Using McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, it is possible that the conscientiousness component apparent in many conceptualizations of OCB represents the objective biography that is driven by the basic tendency of conscientiousness. Conscientious individuals are organized and their behavior is directed toward the completion of specific goals and tasks. Trait conscientiousness may provide the sense of responsibility and dedication necessary for individuals to be motivated to perform behaviors that are not required by their jobs but that are needed to ensure the effectiveness of the work group or organization (King et al., 2005). Thus, conscientious

people might have a clearer picture of organizational goals and be more likely to strive toward them, thus encouraging them to engage in OCB. Therefore:

Hypothesis 1a: Conscientiousness is positively related to OCB.

Agreeableness and OCB. Several researchers propose that, conceptually, agreeableness should relate to OCB (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Organ, 1994a; 1994b; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). Some researchers even propose that agreeableness may be one of best predictors of OCB out of the Big 5 traits (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework provides an explanatory tool for the agreeableness-OCB link. Specifically, agreeableness may represent a basic tendency that influences the objective biography of OCB. This may occur because agreeableness describes people who are helpful and generous. Further, OCB comprises helping behavior. Thus, the helping behavior (i.e., objective biography) of OCB may be driven by the basic tendency toward helping and generosity in the form of agreeableness.

The empirical literature, however, is not so clear. Several studies have supported a link between these two constructs (Borman et al., 2001; Comeau & Griffith, 2005; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Ilies et al., 2006; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Moorman, 1991; Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Organ, 1994b; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Small & Diefendorff, 2006; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), even though, in many cases, the relationship was weak (e.g., Organ, 1994b; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Other researchers have failed to find a relationship (e.g., Barrick et al., 1993; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Lingl, 1995). Still others have found a

negative relationship (Facteau et al., 2000). These varied results have led to disappointment at the inability to find a clear-cut relationship between agreeableness and OCB (Organ & McFall, 2004).

There are a couple of reasons why the literature is in such a state of confusion regarding this relationship. First, previous research on agreeableness and dimensions of OCB suggest that agreeableness would be related to only some aspects of OCB (Borman et al., 2001). In support of this idea, LePine and Van Dyne (2001) found that agreeableness was positively (albeit weakly) related to cooperative behavior but negatively related to voice behavior. Thus, it may be the case that although factor analyses support a unidimensional conceptualization of OCB (Allen & Rush, 1998; Chen et al., 1998; Deckop et al., 1999), agreeableness is only related to some part of this broad domain. Factor analytic research supports the argument that there is a general factor underlying OCB such that different components of OCB occur together. However, this finding indicates only that the components co-occur. It does not indicate that the antecedents of the components of OCB are similar.

There are several reasons to expect a direct relationship between agreeableness and OCB. Organ (1994b) stated that it would be difficult to envision a personality trait more descriptive of one dimension of OCB, namely altruism (Smith et al., 1983), than agreeableness. Organ and Lingl (1995) discuss this idea further, noting that agreeable individuals are described as those who relate to others well and maintain positive relationships. The altruism dimension of OCB takes the form of a behavior to assist a specific target individual with an immediate work-related problem or of a more general

prosocial behavior. Thus, the overlap between these two constructs appears obvious.

Agreeableness comprises a prosocial and collectivistic trait (John & Srivastava, 1999).

It describes an interpersonal skill (Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Wiggins, 1991). Highly

agreeable people are expected to perform a greater amount of OCB targeted toward

specific others (Organ, 1994b) or that maintain the social-psychological environment in

the organization (Small & Diefendorff, 2006). They are also expected to be more likely

to emphasize the maintenance of interpersonal relationships than their own self-interest

(Ashton & Lee, 2001; King et al., 2005) and thus to focus on serving the needs of the

group rather than their own personal needs (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998;

Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). Thus, highly agreeable people should perform more acts

of OCB than less agreeable people (John & Srivastava, 1999). Based on this review, I

propose:

Hypothesis 1b: Agreeableness is positively related to OCB.

Extraversion and OCB. Although extraversion was included as a potential

predictor in one of the original conceptualizations of OCB (Smith et al., 1983),

inconsistencies also appear in the literature on the relationship between extraversion and

OCB. Some research supports a positive relationship between these constructs (Hogan

et al., 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; McManus & Kelly, 1999; Miller et al., 1999),

although the relationship is often weak (e.g., Borman et al., 2001; Van Scotter &

Motowidlo, 1996); some supports a negative relationship (Hogan et al., 1998), and some

finds no relationship (Barrick et al., 1993; Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Smith et al., 1983;

Small & Diefendorff, 2006). Some research even finds inconsistent results in same

study, based on the dimension of OCB being assessed. For example, Van Scotter and

Motowidlo (1996) adapted the contextual performance construct by dividing it into 1)

interpersonal facilitation and 2) job dedication. Interpersonal facilitation is composed of

interpersonal behaviors that attempt to maintain the organization's social environment so

that organizational goals may be accomplished and includes OCB dimensions such as

altruism (Smith et al., 1983). Job dedication comprises individual behaviors directed

toward the maintenance of organizational directives, including rule-following and

problem-solving. It includes such OCB dimensions as generalized compliance (Smith et

al., 1983). Van Scotter and Motowidlo found a small, positive relationship between

extraversion and the interpersonal facilitation dimension, but a nonsignificant negative

relationship with job dedication. In line with McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, it

may be that individuals who have a greater amount of the basic tendency of extraversion

might engage in greater numbers of interpersonal helping behaviors (i.e., the objective

biography of OCB) because extraverted people possess a dispositional tendency toward

interacting with others and derive pleasure from such interactions. Helping behaviors

might be especially common because these behaviors facilitate positive interactions

among people.

Leading to further confusion, some researchers state that the extraversion-OCB

findings are inconsistent and that more work is needed to fully understand this

relationship (Borman et al., 2001), whereas others state that there is "strong evidence"

supporting the extraversion-OCB relationship (Small & Diefendorff, 2006). Several

reasons exist to explain the inconsistencies in the literature. First, some of the research

conducted on the extraversion-OCB relationship included the trait of positive affectivity in the category of extraversion [e.g., Organ & Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis]. Thus, a lack of concept clarity and/or construct contamination could be the cause of previous poor support for this relationship. Further, differences across findings may be due to differences in the jobs held by the employees in the sample. For example, Borman et al. (2001) propose that structure can have an influence. Examining past research, Borman et al. (2001) state that in high-structure jobs (e.g., retail clerks used by LePine & Van Dyne, 2001), extraversion may detract from OCB while in low-structure jobs (e.g., insurance representatives used by McManus & Kelly, 1999), extraversion may enhance OCB. Presumably, in a job with a highly-structured routine, extraversion may distract employees from their tasks (e.g., by socializing) and may not be used as a tool for helping others. Alternatively, in jobs lacking structure, extraversion may provide the necessary impetus for individuals to go beyond job requirements to assist others (e.g., coworkers, customers). Also, extraversion is positively related to interpersonally-oriented or socially driven vocational interests (Barrick, Mount, & Gupta, 2003), so if only a small number of similar positions (e.g., high-structure, low-structure, interpersonally-oriented), or only people from one organization (Schnieder, 1987) are included in a sample, the full range of occupations and differences among them may fail to be captured, thus attenuating the relationship between extraversion and OCB.

Despite the equivocal empirical results for extraversion and OCB, theory and research defining the behavior more broadly are fairly clear: extraversion should be related to OCB. Research indicates that extraversion is positively related to prosocial

behavior (Krebs, 1970). Extraverted individuals are described as spontaneous (Krebs, 1970), tuned into the external social environment surrounding them (Eaves & Eysenck, 1975; John & Srivastava, 1999; Krebs, 1970), and as having a positive perception of other people and social interactions with them (John & Srivastava, 1999). Extraverts also are described as focusing more on the external environment than on themselves (Eaves & Eysenck, 1975). As such, they may be more open to engage in OCB due to their altruistic (Krebs, 1970) and interpersonal nature (Small & Diefendorff, 2006). Further, in a discussion regarding why people help, Organ (1994b) states that some people who help might merely want to be seen as a "most valuable player." It is intuitive that extraverts are people who might want to be viewed in this positive spotlight. If so, it follows that they will be more likely than their introverted counterparts to engage in OCB. Thus,

Hypothesis 1c: Extraversion is positively related to OCB.

Emotional stability and OCB. The Big Five trait of emotional stability, or its polar opposite neuroticism, has received less research attention than the three previously discussed traits. However, the literature is clearer regarding the relationship between this trait and OCB. The majority of the extant literature indicates a positive relationship between emotional stability and OCB (Hogan et al., 1998; Krebs, 1970; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Miller et al., 1999; Small & Diefendorff, 2006; Smith et al., 1983). However, some researchers have failed to find a relationship (Barrick et al., 1993). Still, researchers do not agree about the potential of emotional stability as a predictor of OCB, with some indicating emotional stability is one of the best predictors of OCB from

among the Big Five (Small & Diefendorff, 2006) and others indicating it is not a

meaningful predictor (Barrick et al., 1993).

There is reason to expect a relationship between these two constructs. First,

Smith et al. (1983) discussed emotional stability as a potential predictor of OCB.

Individuals at the negative end of the emotional stability scale (i.e., neurotics) are

described as having a general negative worldview (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and as being

preoccupied with their own anxiety and thus unable to concern themselves with the

problems of others or issues outside their immediate responsibilities (King et al., 2005;

Krebs, 1970). They may therefore perceive requests for help as frustrating or

threatening to their position and so avoid helping. Finally, neurotics may be the ones

who need help rather than the ones able to offer it to others due to their high levels of

stress and anxiety (King et al., 2005). Emotionally stable individuals, on the other hand,

may experience the opposite situation and react positively to requests for help. Thus, the

basic tendency of emotional stability may influence the objective biography of OCB

such that individuals at the low end of the emotional stability continuum may focus on

different behaviors (e.g., help seeking) than those at the high end (e.g., offering help).

Based on this, I propose:

Hypothesis 1d: Emotional stability is positively related to OCB.

Openness to experience and OCB. Openness to experience has received very

little attention in the OCB literature and is probably the least studied Big Five dimension

overall. There is little evidence to support a link between openness and task

performance or OCB (Barrick et al., 2003; King et al., 2005; Small & Diefendorff,

2006). The descriptors of this trait, including original, imaginative, and liberal (McCrae & Costa, 1987) emphasize creativity and intelligence. These adjectives describing the basic tendency of openness to experience do not appear to relate to the objective biography of OCB (i.e., interpersonal or social skills related to OCB performance). As such, no relationship is expected between openness to experience and OCB and none is hypothesized.

In sum, the extant literature is equivocal regarding the relationships between many of the Big Five personality traits and OCB. The present paper attempts to rectify some of the concerns over boundary conditions in prior studies by examining these relationships using multi-source data that crosses industry and organizations.

Overview of Organizational Commitment[1]

There is a long history surrounding the term "organizational commitment." In the following paragraphs, I trace the development of the organizational commitment construct to its present state. While each researcher's conceptualization is different, certain commonalities exist across the literature. For example, most conceptualizations describe organizational commitment as an attitude (Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991; 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974), although several researchers also include behaviors (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982) or identifications (e.g., O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter et al., 1974) in their conceptualizations. Further, whereas most explanations of organizational commitment describe it as comprised of several factors, those factors differ across conceptualizations,

---

[1] Although people can be committed to a variety of different foci (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), the interest of this paper is a commitment to the organization.

as will be discussed next. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) reviewed definitions of commitment in the extant literature including the three influential ones described next and identified two common elements across definitions: a) commitment is a consistent force that b) directs behavior. Thus, they define commitment as "a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (p. 301). The following paragraphs will review the major trends in the organizational commitment literature to demonstrate how the field has come to this current position.

Porter et al. (1974) defined organizational commitment as employees' levels of identification with and involvement in their organizations. They proposed that the committed employee a) agrees with and has faith in the goals and values of the organization, b) voluntarily works hard to benefit the organization, and c) wants to maintain membership in the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) expanded this conceptualization of organizational commitment, suggesting that the construct is comprised of two components: a) *attitudinal commitment*, which involves the development of organizationally-relevant thoughts and ideas and employees' perceptions of the congruence between their own goals and values and those of the organization and b) *behavioral commitment*, which involves the tendency for employees to become irrevocably tied to their organizations and the ways in which they deal with this tie. This conceptualization of commitment has received a great deal of research attention; however, it is not the most commonly cited model (as will be discussed later). Further, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed to assess

attitudinal commitment and is the most frequently used unidimensional measure of organizational commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) define organizational commitment as employees' psychological attachment to their organizations and state that it includes the extent to which employees internalize the goals and attributes of the organization. They further propose that individuals' commitment, in the form of a psychological attachment, is based on three components: a) *compliance*, or employees' display of organizationally-relevant attitudes and behaviors in order to receive rewards, b) *identification*, employees' involvement in the organization as based on a desire to be accepted by and maintain a relationship with the organization, and c) *internalization*, which describes employees' involvement in the organization due to the congruence between the goals and values of the employee and those of the organization. Although an influential conceptualization, this perspective has received less empirical attention than Meyer and Allen's (1997) conceptualization, which will be discussed next.

Meyer and Allen (1997) proposed a commonly-accepted conceptualization of organizational commitment, which will be the conceptualization utilized in the present paper. They describe organizational commitment as employees' psychological state in reference to their organizations and propose that it influences the desire to remain a member of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Their view of organizational commitment is multi-dimensional, comprised of three components. First, *affective commitment* describes an employee's emotional bond with his or her organization. Affective commitment stems from employees' feelings of involvement in, attachment to,

and identification with their organizations and influences their desire to maintain organizational membership (Mowday et al., 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Second, *normative commitment* describes an employee's feelings of obligation, duty, or moral responsibility toward their organizations (Weiner, 1982). Finally, *continuance commitment* is a cost-based form of commitment (Becker, 1960). Employees reporting continuance commitment remain in their organizations due to the perceived work-and non-work-related costs associated with leaving and the loss of organizational benefits. In sum, employees experiencing affective commitment remain in their organizations because they *want* to stay, those experiencing normative commitment remain because they feel they *ought* to stay, and those experiencing continuance commitment report remaining because they feel they *need* to stay.

Throughout the remainder of this paper, when the term "organizational commitment" is used, it is referring to the tripartite conceptualization of commitment offered by Meyer and Allen (1997). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argued that these three mindsets—affective, continuance, and normative—are distinct ways of thinking about the binding force of commitment. Thus, the underlying nature of commitment as a binding force is consistent across the three mindsets, but the way that bond is experienced differs. Meyer and Allen's theory is the most commonly used description of the commitment construct (Meyer et al., 2002). It has received a large amount of attention in the extant literature and is thus a well-supported theory. Additionally, the measure of organizational commitment they offer has been utilized in a great deal of research and has therefore received a great amount of validation support.

The Three Mindsets of Organizational Commitment

   Affective commitment. Much of the research on organizational commitment focuses specifically on the affective commitment component (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). Affective commitment involves an emotional attachment, identification, and involvement with the organization. While results from studies examining the development of affective commitment are equivocal, some research points to socialization processes, in the form of individual need fulfillment, in its development (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Indeed, Mowday et al., (1982) state, "socialization practices of organizations provide the stimulus for creation of employee attachment" (p. 62). Some researchers (e.g., Wanous, 1992) propose that met expectations, or the instance in which a new employee's preconceived notions regarding an organization are confirmed, lead to positive feelings toward the organization in the form of affective commitment. Thus, individuals' affective commitment develops as they are socialized into the organization and they learn whether or not their expectations are met (Wanous, 1992) and whether or not their goals and values are congruent with the organization's (Mowday et al., 1982) and as they have positive workplace experiences that fit with their values or satisfy their needs (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Past research has found a positive relationship between met expectations and a general sense of commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977). More recently, Wanous, Poland, Premack, and Davis (1992) reported a correlation of .39 between the level of met expectations and employees' affective commitment to the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) interpret such findings as support for the notion that met expectations are related to organizational commitment,

but caution that these results are limited to the early stages of employment and inform us that the relationship between met expectation and organizational commitment at a later stage of an employee's tenure are less clear.

Normative commitment. Normative commitment is an individual's moral obligation to remain in an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Weiner (1982) first proposed the notion of commitment as driven by normative motivational processes, based on Fishbein's (1967) behavioral intentions model, which states that individuals' intentions to perform a behavior are partly based on their perceptions of the normative pressure to perform the behavior. This is relevant to Meyer and Allen's (1997) component of normative commitment, as normative commitment involves the internalization of these subjective norms. Thus, normative commitment leads individuals to act in ways consistent with their own and other's ideas regarding appropriate behaviors and leads them to act in ways that are congruent with organizational goals and values. Through socialization processes, individuals' values can become congruent with those of the organization, and normative commitment can be developed. Affective and normative commitment are often found to be strongly related (Meyer et al., 2002), possibly because they both are thought to develop throughout the socialization process.

Continuance commitment. Continuance commitment involves employees' feelings that they have to remain in an organization due to the costs associated with leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002) defined continuance commitment as comprised of two components of: a) investments

and b) alternatives. Their ideas regarding *investments* stem from Becker's (1960) side-bet theory. Becker described commitment as an individual's tendency to continue a course of action (i.e., employment) due to the accumulation of side bets (i.e., something valuable to the employee, the possession of which is contingent upon continued employment) that the individual would surrender if the course of action were to be discontinued. It is the threat of the loss of these investments that commits the individual to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1997) also proposed that perceived *alternatives*, or a lack thereof, can influence an individual's level of continuance commitment, such that individuals who perceive that they have several other job opportunities will experience lower levels of continuance commitment than those individuals who perceive that they have few viable alternatives.

Discrimination among Organizational Commitment Components

Meyer and Allen (1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990) conceptualized organizational commitment as comprised of three distinct components. However, research examining the relationship between two components, affective and normative commitment, has demonstrated that they may not be entirely distinct, leading to several calls to further investigate the structure of the commitment construct (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Bergman, 2006; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). There is some evidence that affective and normative commitment may be tapping the same underlying construct, with moderate to strong correlations between these scales reported (Ko, Price & Mueller, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002). However, other research using factor analytic techniques has found them to be discriminant (Chen & Francesco, 2003;

Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Cohen, 1996; Dunham, Grube, & Castenada, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990) and the three-factor structure has been supported cross-culturally (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003; Wasti, 2003). Finally, affective and normative commitment have been found to have differential relationships with outcome variables [e.g., turnover intentions (Cohen, 1996); satisfaction, intent to remain in profession (Meyer et al., 1993)]. Thus, affective and normative commitment tend to be related to the same constructs yet these relationships are not of the same magnitude.

The research has been clearer regarding the relationships between continuance commitment and each of affective and normative commitment. Continuance commitment is both theoretically (Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991; 1997) and empirically (Meyer et al., 1993) distinct from both affective and normative commitment. Further, Meyer et al. (2002) meta-analytically examined the inter-relationships among the three components and found only modest relationships between continuance commitment and each of affective and normative commitment. Thus, although there are some discriminability concerns regarding affective and normative commitment, there are no such concerns about continuance commitment.

OCB and Organizational Commitment

It seems intuitive to expect that organizational commitment will be related to OCB. Some conceptualizations of OCB include something akin to organizational commitment within their dimensions. For example, Borman and colleagues' (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) soldier effectiveness construct included organizational commitment.

Further, organizational loyalty has been touted as a component of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Organizational loyalty includes such descriptors as maintaining commitment to an organization even during dire times. Further, at least one scale designed to assess motives for performing OCB taps organizational commitment (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Therefore, conceptually, organizational commitment has been related to OCB.

Empirical research also supports an organizational commitment-OCB link. In fact, both primary studies (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Feather & Rauter, 2004; Moorman, 1991; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993; Organ, 1988; 1994a; Smith et al., 1983; Van Scotter, 2000; Wagner & Rush, 2000) and meta-analyses (e.g., Dalal, 2005; Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Riketta, 2002) support such a relationship. Further, some researchers indicate that attitudes, including organizational commitment, relate more strongly to OCB than to task performance (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2007). Also, job attitudes have been found to be better predictors of OCB than personality traits (Organ & McFall, 2004). Finally, another job attitude, job satisfaction, has received a great deal of attention as a meaningful predictor of OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Hoffman et al., 2007; Moorman, 1991; Moorman et al., 1993; Organ, 1988; 1990a; 1994; Organ & Lingl, 1995; Smith et al., 1983).

It is expected that organizational commitment is related to OCB. Employees who report high levels of organizational commitment are more focused on their work than employees reporting lower levels (Van Scotter, 2000). They demonstrate greater satisfaction with their jobs and view their work as fulfilling. As such, they are more apt to exert extra effort for their organization, such as by engaging in OCB (Mowday et al.,

1982). This relationship may also work in the opposite direction. The performance of OCB may make work more attractive for employees. This attractive environment may increase employees' commitment to their organizations (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). This argument is consistent with McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, as they do not specify direction. They define objective biography as individuals' experiences, which can include OCB. Additionally, they define characteristic adaptations as including attitudes that are overt manifestations of basic tendencies. I propose that organizational commitment is a characteristic adaptation. Consistent with the framework, the relationship between organizational commitment and OCB could work such that organizational commitment precedes OCB or such that OCB precedes organizational commitment. I will later outline an argument in support of the former explanation (organizational commitment precedes OCB).

Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) work on focal and discretionary behavior is relevant for an understanding of the relationship between OCB and organizational commitment. *Focal behavior* is a direct consequence of an individual's commitment (e.g., maintaining membership). Committed individuals are compelled to perform focal behavior because focal behavior is required in order to maintain organizational membership. On the other hand, *discretionary behavior* is not required to maintain organizational membership so the performance of this type of behavior is at the discretion of the individual; discretionary behaviors should vary depending on the types of commitment felt.

Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) discussed their expectations regarding the relationships between discretionary behavior and the different commitment components. They proposed that discretionary behavior should be most likely to occur under conditions of pure affective commitment. Indeed, the extant literature indicates that affective commitment is correlated with a larger array of outcome variables and that that it shows stronger correlations with any specific outcome measure than either normative or continuance commitment alone (Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Herscovitch). Discretionary behavior should be second most likely to occur when high levels of both affective and normative or continuance commitment are present. Additionally, it is possible that pure normative commitment is more likely than pure continuance commitment to lead to discretionary behavior. Finally, pure continuance commitment is not expected to be more likely to lead to discretionary behavior than the absence of commitment.

Research examining this proposition is sparse. Wasti (2005) found that individuals who were described as highly committed (i.e., high levels of each component of commitment), affective-normative dominant (i.e., high levels of affective and normative commitment and slightly lower than average levels of continuance commitment) and affective dominant (i.e., high levels of affective commitment and slightly lower than average levels of normative and continuance commitment) displayed greater levels of the altruism and loyal boosterism components of OCB. Further, Gellatly, Meyer, and Luchak (2006) found a three-way interaction among the commitment components in predicting OCB. Specifically, the relationship between

affective commitment and OCB was stronger if both normative and continuance commitment levels were low than if one was high. But, the strongest relationship occurred when all three components of commitment were high. Further, the normative commitment-OCB relationship was strongest when affective and continuance commitment were low and the relationship was actually negative when affective commitment was low and continuance commitment was high. Finally, the strongest negative relationship between continuance commitment and OCB was found when affective commitment was low and normative commitment was high.

Based on previous literature discussed above, it appears obvious that affective commitment is related to OCB. Indeed, additional research indicates that this is the case (Feather & Rauter, 2004; Van Scotter, 2000; Wagner & Rush, 2000). In line with McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, affective commitment describes a characteristic adaptation indicative of a positive bond with the organization. This positive bond should make it likely that such individuals will want to help both others in the organization and the organization itself through the performance of OCB, an objective biography. Thus,

Hypothesis 2a: Affective commitment is positively related to OCB.

Additionally, as discussed by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), Wasti (2005), and Gellatly et al. (2006), it is expected that normative commitment, independent of the other commitment components, will be positively related to OCB. Highly normatively committed employees experience a sense of obligation (i.e., characteristic adaptation) toward the organization, which should include such behaviors (i.e., objective biographies) as "giving back" to the organization. Thus,

Hypothesis 2b: Normative commitment is positively related to OCB.

Finally, as discussed above, continuance commitment has not received much support as a predictor of OCB. The literature on commitment profiles also is equivocal regarding continuance commitment (Gellatly et al., 2006; Wasti, 2005); however, it does appear that continuance commitment in isolation is never an impetus for the performance of OCB. Rather, its influence appears infrequently when it enhances the effect of affective or normative commitment on OCB. However, it can also hinder these effects as well. Individuals with a strong sense of continuance commitment feel that they have to remain in an organization due to the costs associated with leaving. This type of commitment does not include a sense of an emotional tie nor a feeling of responsibility for the organization itself. Therefore, it is unlikely that continuance commitment will be related to OCB and no relationship is hypothesized.

Organizational Commitment and Personality

The modicum of research examining the link between individual differences and organizational commitment primarily has focused on the traits of positive and negative affectivity, locus of control, and self-efficacy. Additionally, much of this research has focused on one component of organizational commitment, namely affective commitment. Cropanzano, James, and Konovsky (1993) found a positive correlation between positive and negative affectivity and organizational commitment, as did Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, and deChermont (2003) in their qualitative and quantitative review involving positive and negative affectivity. Meyer et al. (2002) meta-analytically examined the relationship between each of locus of control and self-

efficacy and affective commitment. Their results supported a negative relationship between external locus of control and affective commitment and a positive relationship between self-efficacy and affective commitment. Mowday et al. (1982) discuss several other personality factors that have been found to relate to organizational commitment. Specifically they note that past research has found achievement motivation, sense of competence, higher-order needs (Koch, 1974; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Rotondi, 1976; Steers, 1977; Steers & Spencer, 1977), a strong personal work ethic (Buchanan, 1974; Card, 1978; Goodale, 1973; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hulin & Blood, 1968; Kidron, 1978; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977), and a work-oriented central life (i.e., the importance of an individual's work institution in his or her identity; Dubin, Champoux, & Porter, 1975) to be related to organizational commitment.

Three recent studies have examined the relationship between personality and commitment (Erdheim, Wang, & Zickar, 2006; Leiva, Payne, Huffman, Watrous, Chalkley, & Webber, 2005; Naquin & Holton, 2002). Naquin and Holton (2002) examined the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and work commitment, a construct similar to organizational commitment that captures individuals' work ethic, involvement in the job, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. Their overall findings suggest agreeableness and conscientiousness are predictors of work commitment. However, an examination of their correlation table indicates that affective commitment was found to be negatively related to neuroticism[2] and positively

---

[2] Whereas the present paper defined this trait via the positive pole (i.e., emotional stability), other researchers have defined the trait via the negative pole (i.e., neuroticism). When reviewing previous research, the terminology used in the original work is included here.

related to extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Further, continuance commitment was positively related to neuroticism and negatively related to extraversion and openness to experience.

Erdheim et al. (2006) examined the relationship between the Big Five personality factors and the three components of organizational commitment in a field sample. Their results point to a disposition-commitment link, indicating that openness to experience was negatively related to continuance commitment (although this relationship was not hypothesized), conscientiousness was positively related to affective commitment (although not hypothesized) and normative commitment, extraversion was positively related to affective and normative commitment and negatively related to continuance commitment, agreeableness was positively related to normative commitment (although not hypothesized), and neuroticism was positively related to continuance commitment.

Finally, Leiva et al. (2005) conducted two studies to investigate the personality-commitment link. They also controlled for situational variables (i.e., tenure, perceptions of fairness, social involvement), allowing them to determine whether personality variables predicted the commitment components above and beyond some situational variables, and studied commitment to several foci (i.e., organization, university, service provider, service organization). Although they failed to find support for several of their hypotheses, their results did indicate that extraversion and agreeableness were positively related to affective commitment above and beyond the situational variables.

Taken together, the results of these three studies offer modest support for a personality-organizational commitment relationship (see Table 1). Although specific

relationships were not always consistent across studies, overall findings indicate that conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness are positively related to affective commitment; extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience are negatively related to continuance commitment; and some support is evident for a positive agreeableness-normative commitment relationship. The current paper will attempt to delve further into this relationship and determine the reason for the equivocal state of the literature regarding specific personality trait-commitment component relationships. Additionally, I will attempt to answer the calls to examine the disposition-job attitude link (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; George, 1992; Lubinski, 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986) and, more specifically, the disposition-organizational commitment link (Meyer et al., 2002). In the next section, I develop some specific hypotheses regarding relationships among the Big Five traits and the three organizational commitment components.

Table 1

Summary of Personality-Commitment Relationships

	Openness to Experience	Conscientiousness	Extraversion	Agreeableness	Neuroticism
AC	+C	+C +A	+C +A +B	+C +B	-C
NC			+A	+A	
CC	-C - A	+A	-C -A		+C +A

Notes: AC = affective commitment, NC = normative commitment, CC = continuance commitment, A = Erdheim et al. (2006) results, B = Leiva et al. (2007) results, C = Naquin and Holton (2002) results. Naquin and Holton did not study NC.

Big Five Personality Trait-Organizational Commitment Component Relationships

The personality trait of conscientiousness has received more attention in the organizational commitment research literature than the other Big Five traits. As such, the hypothesized relationships between conscientiousness and the different components of organizational commitment are more guided by theory than those regarding the less studied traits.

Conscientiousness. The extant literature has seen a small amount of research on the conscientiousness-organizational commitment link. For example, Hochwarter, Perrewé, Ferris, and Guercio (1999) proposed that, if organizational commitment has a dispositional basis, it is likely to be conscientiousness. Thus, according to McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, conscientiousness may be a basic tendency that manifests, in part, as the characteristic adaptation of organizational commitment. Additionally, conscientiousness has been found to have relationships with other constructs in the commitment literature, including goal commitment (Barrick et al., 1993; Hollenbeck,

Klein, O'Leary, & Wright, 1989), work commitment (Naquin & Holton, 2002), and even

the commitment component of Sternberg's (1986, 1998) triangular theory of love

(Engel, Olson, & Patrick, 2002).

Conscientiousness is marked by adjectives such as careful, reliable, practical, and

organized (McCrae & Costa, 1987). At its core, conscientiousness involves a sense of

duty and responsibility, making it likely that it is an important component of an

individual's tie to his or her organization. Conscientious individuals are, by definition,

achievement oriented. Because work allows individuals the opportunity for

achievement, conscientious individuals may develop emotional ties to their organization,

the environment that provides opportunities for them to achieve (Bergman, Benzer, &

Henning, 2009), thus resulting in affective commitment.

Recently, links have been made in the literature between organizational

commitment and motivation (e.g., Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Meyer &

Herscovitch, 2001). If organizational commitment is linked to motivation, then it may

be viewed as directing behavior toward a specific entity (i.e., the organization) and

making employees more likely to engage in activities that fulfill obligations within that

entity. Indeed, conscientiousness has been linked to a perception that contractual

obligations exist in the workplace (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004; Zimmerman, 2008). As

such, conscientious individuals may be more likely to experience normative commitment

(Bergman et al., 2009). Also, one of the markers of conscientiousness is dependability.

Conscientious individuals may thus be likely to develop normative commitment because

they are dependable and are therefore likely to act dutifully toward the organization and feel an obligation to do so.

Conscientious individuals may become more involved in their work than their less conscientious counterparts. Because of this higher level of involvement in their work, conscientious individuals may be more noticeable to management. Such recognition may enable conscientious individuals greater opportunities to earn rewards (e.g., promotions, pay raises, recognition from management; Organ & Lingl, 1995), the attainment of which can increase the costs associated with leaving an organization, thereby increasing levels of continuance commitment (Erdheim et al., 2006). Additionally, conscientiousness has been negatively linked to spontaneous quitting; rather, conscientious individuals are more likely to consider the long-term consequences of their actions (Maertz & Campion, 2004; Watson, Clark, & Harkness, 1994; Zimmerman, 2008). In a recent meta-analysis, conscientiousness was found to be negatively correlated with both intent to quit (-.16) and actual turnover (-.20; Zimmerman, 2008). As such, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Conscientiousness is positively related to (a) affective, (b) normative, and (c) continuance commitment.

Agreeableness. Little research has been conducted on the relationship between agreeableness and organizational commitment. Naquin and Holton (2002) noted that they failed to find any studies that examined this relationship. However, it seems intuitive that agreeableness should be related to organizational commitment. According to McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, agreeableness may be a basic tendency that

manifests, in part, as the characteristic adaptation of organizational commitment. The Big Five trait of agreeableness is marked by adjectives such as flexible, cheerful, generous, and acquiescent (McCrae & Costa, 1987). As such, agreeable individuals are open to assisting others (Costa & McCrae, 1991). This willingness to assist other people may extrapolate into a willingness to assist the overall organization, which could increase work commitment (Naquin & Holton, 2002). Specifically, the cheerful, generous nature of agreeable individuals may lead them to form positive relationships with others (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Organ & Lingl, 1995) and make them want to assist the organization and to form emotional ties to it due to this willingness to help, thereby leading to an increase in affective commitment. Additionally, individuals who are agreeable are also accommodating and unselfish. People possessing these characteristics are likely to develop obligations to entities in which they are involved, including their organizations, thus increasing levels of normative commitment.

Hypothesis 4: Agreeableness is positively related to (a) affective and (b) normative commitment.

However, a relationship between agreeableness and continuance commitment is not expected. Continuance commitment describes a cost-based tie to an organizational entity. Agreeableness is marked by descriptors such as generous or helpful. It does not stand to reason that a generous or helpful individual would be more or less likely to form a cost-based tie to an organization in the same way such an individual may form an emotional or obligatory tie. Stated differently, it is not expected that the basic tendency of agreeableness would manifest as the characteristic adaptation of continuance

commitment. As such, no agreeableness-continuance commitment relationship is expected.

Extraversion. Extraversion is marked by descriptors like sociable, friendly, and bold (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Additionally, some researchers purport that extraversion is equivalent to positive affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1992, 1997; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) and positive affectivity has been found to be positively related to organizational commitment (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Thoresen et al., 2003). Thus, in the terminology of McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, extraversion represents a disposition (i.e., basic tendency) that is demonstrated, in part, as the characteristic adaptation of organizational commitment. However, extraversion extends beyond positive affectivity with its risk-taking component.

Extraverted individuals, by nature, are more outgoing and sociable than their introverted counterparts. Their social nature likely allows them to create more emotional ties to their coworkers (McCrae & Costa, 1997), and by extension, to their organizations, thus positively influencing levels of affective commitment. Moreover, because extraverts are likely to have positive social workplace experiences that they find to be more rewarding than introverts would (Watson & Clark, 1997), they may feel obligated to their organizations due to the organization's provision of a positive social environment, leading to higher levels of normative commitment (Erdheim et al., 2006). Finally, because extraverts are likely to have large social networks, both within and external to their organizations, they are likely to perceive a greater number of alternative opportunities for employment (March & Simon, 1958). Indeed, research indicates that

extraverts are more comfortable with and more likely to engage in networking behaviors (Wanberg, Kanfer, & Banas, 2000). This, paired with the risk-taking component of extraversion, may lead extraverted individuals to feel less continuance commitment to their organizations. Thus,

Hypothesis 5: Extraversion is positively related to (a) affective and (b) normative commitment.

Hypothesis 5c: Extraversion is negatively related to continuance commitment.

Emotional stability. Emotionally stable individuals are described as secure and not anxious or worried (McCrae & Costa, 1987). While little research has been conducted on the emotional stability-organizational commitment relationship, some researchers equate neuroticism, emotional stability's opposite pole, with negative affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1992, 1997; Watson et al., 1988), which has been found to be negatively related to organizational commitment (Cropanzano et al., 1993; Thoresen et al., 2003). Additionally, Judge and colleagues (e.g., Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) introduced a personality trait, core self-evaluation, to aid in the understanding of job satisfaction. This trait is a basic evaluation individuals have of themselves and the world around them. Core self-evaluation consists of self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control. While research on this trait generally has been targeted toward job satisfaction and job performance (e.g., Judge et al., 1998), this trait also has been found to be negatively related to goal commitment (Erez & Judge, 2001).

Emotional stability should be related to organizational commitment. Emotional stability can be defined as a basic tendency, per McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework. Additionally, organizational commitment can be defined as a characteristic adaptation, such that it represents a manifestation of emotional stability and arises out of the individual-environment interaction. Different manifestations (i.e., different components of organizational commitment) should be expected based on an individual's unique level of the basic tendency of emotional stability. As such, individuals low in emotional stability (i.e., neurotics) are likely to have difficulty forming close relationships due to their high levels of insecurity and nervousness. It is likely that this inability to form personal relationships will extend to the organization, such that they will fail to form emotional ties to their organizations. In contrast, emotionally stable individuals should have an easier time in forming such relationships, resulting in a positive emotional stability-affective commitment link. Further, neurotic individuals are likely to feel very anxious about their obligations and may be too focused on their day-to-day tasks to concern themselves with higher-order constructs like commitment, while the lower anxiety levels of emotionally stable individuals should enable them to focus on higher-level constructs, resulting in a positive emotional stability-normative commitment relationship. Finally, the anxiety associated with the consideration of the costs associated with leaving an organization and the nervousness and worry surrounding a search for another job opportunity may lead neurotic individuals to remain in their current organization, while emotionally stable individuals may experience less of a negative effect from such thoughts, indicating a positive relationship between emotional

stability and continuance commitment. In a recent study, emotional stability was found

to have a small but positive direct effect on turnover (Zimmerman, 2008). Zimmerman

speculated that this may be due to the fact that, while neurotic individuals may intend to

quit their jobs, they may be doubtful regarding their chance of finding alternative

employment or anxious about the evaluations they would receive during the job search

process, which actually may make them less likely to quit. In essence, this doubt and

insecurity may increase their continuance commitment to their current organization.

Thus,

Hypothesis 6: Emotional stability is positively related to (a) affective and (b)

normative commitment.

Hypothesis 6c: Emotional stability is negatively related to continuance

commitment.

Openness to experience. The basic tendency of openness to experience is marked by descriptors like original, curious, and creative (McCrae & Costa, 1987). High levels of this trait may manifest as a willingness to take on a new role in an organization. This could increase employees' inter-role network (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991), which could lead to the creation of more emotional ties, thus increasing levels of affective commitment. Alternatively, the trait of openness to experience could imply a rejection of social conventions, including the component of normative commitment that includes a norm of reciprocity. As such, individuals high on openness to experience may experience lower levels of normative commitment. Finally, individuals with high levels of this trait are more likely to seek or be open to new experiences outside the workplace and may value job changes (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). Results from Zimmerman's (2008) meta-analysis indicate a small, positive correlation with actual turnover. Further, results from his path analysis indicate a small, positive, direct effect on both turnover intentions and actual turnover. Thus, individuals high in openness to experience may experience lower levels of continuance commitment. As such,

> *Hypothesis 7a:* Openness to experience is positively related to affective commitment.

> *Hypothesis 7:* Openness to experience is negatively related to (b) normative and (c) continuance commitment.

Organizational Commitment as a Mediator of the Personality-OCB Relationship

This paper thus far has provided an overview of OCB, personality, and organizational commitment; main effect hypotheses of each of personality and organizational commitment on OCB; and main effect hypotheses for personality on commitment. A close examination of the main effect hypotheses suggests that mediation should also be considered. In general, the hypotheses proposed that 1) personality influences organizational commitment, 2) personality influences OCB, and 3) organizational commitment influences OCB (Figure 1). This pattern of predictions follows the classic mediation model (Baron & Kenny, 1986). While it is possible, even likely, that the proposed direct effects will be found, it also is possible, and perhaps more interesting, to consider the interrelationship among these variables based on the work of Motowidlo et al. (1997) theory. Further, research has called for a more thorough investigation of the antecedents to OCB (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2000), noting that past research has treated different antecedents (e.g., dispositions, attitudes, task variables, leadership behaviors) as direct predictors.

Big Five Personality Traits

Conscientiousness
Agreeableness
Extraversion
Emotional Stability
Openness to Experience

Organizational Commitment

Affective Commitment
Normative Commitment
Continuance Commitment

Organizational
Citizenship Behavior
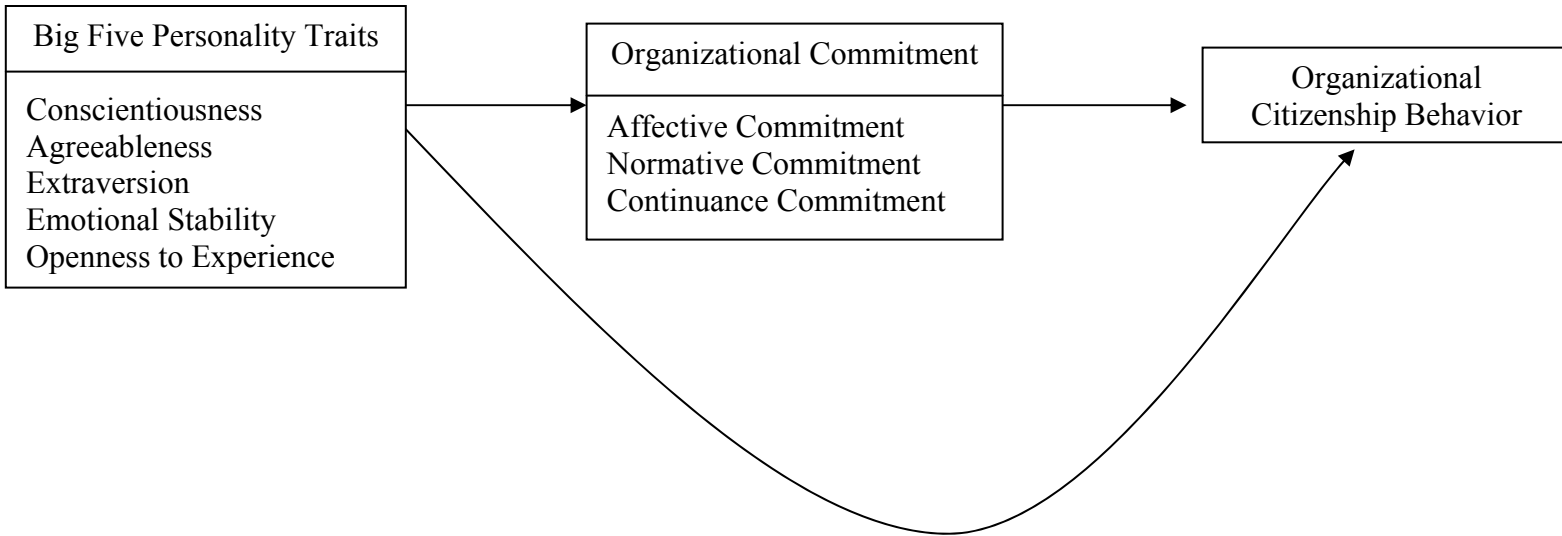
Figure 1. Relationships among personality, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors

It is not merely a methodological fluke that mediation should be considered. Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) theory, which was based on McCrae and Costa's (1996) meta-theoretical framework, and upon whose work the hypotheses thus far are based, theorize that mediation should occur. As discussed previously, Motowidlo et al. propose that different basic tendencies influence task and contextual performance due to the mediating influence of different task- and OCB-specific characteristic adaptations. Specifically, they suggest that OCB-relevant basic tendencies (e.g., personality traits) influence OCB-related characteristic adaptations (e.g., contextual habits, skills, and knowledge), which affect the objective biography of contextual performance. In contrast, task-specific basic tendencies (e.g., cognitive abilities) influence task-related characteristic adaptations (e.g., task habits, skills, and knowledge), which then affect the objective biography of task performance. Further, while crossover effects may exist, such that cognitive ability may influence OCB and personality may influence task performance, the strongest influences are from personality through OCB-related characteristic adaptations to OCB and from cognitive ability through task-related characteristic adaptations to task performance. Also as discussed previously, they expect these specific arrangements because of the different types of attributes necessary to perform OCB and task-related behaviors. While Motowidlo et al. include habits, skills, and knowledge as task- and OCB-relevant characteristic adaptations in their theory, I propose that the variables that serves as characteristic adaptations that mediate the basic tendency-objective biography (i.e., personality-OCB) relationship consist of the organizational commitment components. As I theorized above, affective and normative

commitment—but not continuance commitment—are OCB-relevant characteristic adaptations because they encourage engagement in these behaviors.

Several researchers have speculated about the presence of a mediation involving personality, job satisfaction, and OCB. For example, Organ (1994b) states that personality might explain the relationship between job attitudes and OCB. Additionally, Organ and Ryan (1995) noted that if personality traits are related to OCB, they are only weakly related and likely have their influence via job satisfaction such that personality affects job satisfaction, which influences OCB. Further, Organ and McFall (2004) indicate that one way to interpret findings related to these three classes of variables (i.e., personality, job attitudes, OCB) involves a causal model in which job attitudes directly influence OCB and personality mainly affects OCB indirectly, via its effect on job attitudes. They state one caveat, however, in that they predict that the personality trait of conscientiousness may directly influence OCB. The work of Arvey and colleagues (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Staw et al., 1986; Staw &Ross, 1985; Steel & Rentsch, 1997) has also supported the notion that job satisfaction, an individual variable like organizational commitment, has a dispositional component. This suggests that it is possible that personality, through its influence on job attitudes, has more to do with the motives that encourage OCB than with the actual performance of the behavior itself (Organ & McFall, 2004). Although these lines of research focus on job satisfaction rather than organizational commitment, they offer some support for the idea that job attitudes mediate the personality-OCB linkage.

There also has been some indirect support for the personality-organizational commitment-OCB mediated relationship proposed here. Organ and Ryan (1995) note that individuals possessing certain personality traits, including agreeableness, conscientiousness, and positive and negative affectivity, are inclined to hold particular emotions or orientations toward their coworkers and managers. Further, they note that these emotions may increase the possibility that they will receive satisfying, fair, supportive treatment in their organizations—treatment that is worthy of their commitment. Thus, they state that these personality traits may indirectly contribute to the performance of OCB. Finally, there has been some empirical support for organizational commitment as a mediator of the personality-OCB relationship. Neuman and Kickul (1998) looked at the relationship between personality, the covenantal relationship—which is like a psychological contract and, importantly, partially encompasses organizational commitment—and OCB. They found that conscientiousness and agreeableness predicted OCB both directly and indirectly through the covenantal relationship. Restated, they found that the relationship between agreeableness and conscientiousness and OCB was partially mediated by the covenantal relationship, which, again, includes organizational commitment. Therefore, based on the research and theory reviewed above, it seems likely that personality will influence OCB directly as well as through its effect on organizational commitment. In essence, I propose that in addition to any direct effects, organizational commitment will partially mediate the personality-OCB relationship. I expect partial mediations because several personality traits, especially conscientiousness, should have direct effects on OCB, as noted in

Hypotheses 1a-1d. Although the mediation effects are interesting and allow us to see an entire picture of the disposition-attitude-behavior relationship, main effects of personality on OCB are still important in their own right. The following sections will outline the relationships proposed in the present paper and are organized by personality trait. This review focuses on affective and normative commitment as mediators of the personality-OCB relationship; because no relationship is expected between continuance commitment and OCB, it is not expected that this form of commitment mediates personality-OCB relationships.

Conscientiousness-OCB relationship, mediated by organizational commitment. As discussed previously, conscientiousness is proposed to be related to OCB (Hypothesis 1a). Further, conscientiousness is hypothesized to be positively related to affective (Hypothesis 3a) and normative (Hypothesis 3b) commitment. Combined with the expected positive relationships between affective (Hypothesis 2a) and normative (Hypothesis 2b) commitment and OCB, this leads me to propose:

Hypothesis 8: (a) Affective and (b) normative commitment mediate the relationship between conscientiousness and OCB.

Agreeableness-OCB relationship, mediated by organizational commitment. I proposed that agreeableness is positively related to OCB (Hypothesis 1b). Further, it is expected that this trait is positively related to affective (Hypothesis 4a) and normative (Hypothesis 4b) commitment. I also previously hypothesized that affective (Hypothesis 2a) and normative (Hypothesis 2b) commitment are related to OCB. Thus, with regard to agreeableness, I expect:

Hypothesis 9: (a) Affective and (b) normative commitment mediate the relationship between agreeableness and OCB.

Extraversion-OCB relationship, mediated by organizational commitment. I predicted a positive relationship between extraversion and each of OCB (Hypothesis 1c), affective commitment (Hypothesis 5a), and normative commitment (Hypothesis 5b). Taking into account the hypothesized positive relationships between each of affective (Hypothesis 2a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 2b) and OCB, I propose:

Hypothesis 10: (a) Affective and (b) normative commitment mediate the relationship between extraversion and OCB.

Emotional stability-OCB relationship, mediated by organizational commitment. I proposed that emotional stability is positively related to OCB (Hypothesis 1d). I also proposed that it is positively related to affective (Hypothesis 6a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 6b). Combined with the expected relationships between affective (Hypothesis 2a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 2b), I propose:

Hypothesis 11: (a) Affective and (b) normative commitment mediate the relationship between emotional stability and OCB.

Openness to experience. Finally, because no relationship is expected between openness to experience and OCB, I do not propose any mediating hypotheses regarding this variable. See Table 2 for an overview of all hypotheses.

Table 2

Summary of Hypothesized Relationships

	Main Effect on OCB	Main Effect on AC	Main Effect on NC	Main Effect on CC	Mediates C-OCB Relationship	Mediates A-OCB Relationship	Mediates E-OCB Relationship	Mediates N-OCB Relationship	Mediates O-OCB Relationship
C	+	+	+	+	---	---	---	---	---
A	+	+	+	NR	---	---	---	---	---
ES	+	+	+	-	---	---	---	---	---
E	+	+	+	-	---	---	---	---	---
O	NR	+	-	-	---	---	---	---	---
AC	+				Y	Y	Y	Y	NR
NC	+				Y	Y	Y	Y	NR
CC	NR				NR	NR	NR	NR	NR

Notes: C = conscientiousness, A = agreeableness, E = extraversion, ES = emotional stability, O = openness to experience, AC = affective commitment, NC = normative commitment, CC = continuance commitment, NR = no hypothesized relationship, Y = yes, --- = cell not relevant

In sum, I propose that I will support McCrae and Costa's (1996) and Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) theories regarding the relationships between dispositions (i.e., basic tendencies), job attitudes (i.e., characteristic adaptations), and behaviors (i.e., objective biographies). However, I do expect that these mediations will be tempered by direct, main effects of personality traits on OCB as well. Further, I will use data from two samples to test hypotheses.

CHAPTER II

SAMPLE 1 METHOD

Participants

Two categories of participants were used in this study. The first category consisted of currently employed undergraduate students at a large, southwestern university. Participants were employed part- or full-time at the time of their participation. Participants were recruited for participation in the "Work Experiences Survey" from the introductory psychology research pool; participation was voluntary but provided partial credit toward the fulfillment of a research participation requirement in the course. These participants will be referred to as primary participants.

Primary participants were asked to identify a coworker with whom they worked at their current job (referred to as coworker participants). They were given a paper-and-pencil survey to give to their coworker to complete and return to the researchers in a self-addressed, stamped envelope. Primary participants were responsible for contacting these coworker participants and for ensuring their participation. For each of the coworker surveys returned, the primary participants earned an additional credit toward the fulfillment of their course requirement.

Three hundred primary participants were recruited for participation in this study. Complete data was available across both surveys (primary and coworker) for 133 participants. All results reported here are based on this sample of 133 participants.

Primary participants. Regarding sex, 67.7% of the sample was female while 32.3% was male. Participants' ages ranged from 16-25 ($M = 19.00$, $SD = 1.30$).

Regarding ethnicity, 89.5% of participants identified themselves as Caucasian, 3.0% as

Hispanic, 1.5% as African American, and 1.5% as Asian,. Additionally, 3.0% identified

themselves as both Caucasian and Hispanic and 1.5% did not report their ethnicity. Most

participants were employed part-time (97%) and worked an average of 17.07 hours per

week ($SD = 7.65$). On average, participants had been employed for less than one year

($M = .89$, $SD = 1.20$, range= 0-8.25). Most participants categorized their jobs as school-

year or after school jobs (i.e., jobs worked around course schedule, 84.2%). Others

categorized their jobs as temporary jobs (5.3%), internships (1.5%), or as other (7.5%).

One participant (0.75%) did respond.

   Coworker participants. Females accounted for 54.9% of this sample while

males accounted for 36.8% (8.3% did not indicate their sex). Coworker participants

ranged in age from 17-82 ($M = 26.66$, $SD = 12.35$). Regarding ethnicity, 78.9% of

participants identified themselves as Caucasian, 5.3% as Hispanic, 3.8% as African

American, and 3.0% as Asian. Additionally, 5.3% selected more than one ethnicity or

"other" and 3.8% did not report their ethnicity. The majority of participants were

employed part-time (57.9%) and worked an average of 27.48 hours per week ($SD =$

14.12). On average, participants had been employed for 3.05 years ($SD = 4.52$, range=

.08-20.25). Most participants categorized their jobs as school-year or after school jobs

(57.9%). Others categorized their jobs as temporary jobs (4.5%), internships (.8%), or as

other (36.1%; .8% did not report).

Measures

    Primary survey. In addition to information on demographic characteristics and job-related information, primary participants completed measures about their OCB, personality, and organizational commitment.

    Primaries' OCB was assessed using a 22-item scale adapted from Borman's work (e.g., Borman et al., 2001). Participants responded to items on a seven-point response scale (0 = never, 6 = more than once a day). Mean scores on this scale ranged from 1.55 to 6.0 ($M = 3.78$, $SD = 1.05$). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .92. See Appendix A for full scale.

    Primaries' Big Five personality traits were assessed using Goldberg's (1992) unipolar markers. This scale includes a 20-item subscale for each trait. Respondents indicate how accurately each adjective describes them using the accompanying a four-point response scale (1 = very inaccurate, 4 = very accurate). Scores on conscientiousness ranged from 1.5 to 4.0 ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 0.40$, $\alpha = .89$). Scores on agreeableness ranged from 1.3 to 4.0 ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 0.41$, $\alpha = 0.91$). Scores on extraversion ranged from 1.4 to 3.9 ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 0.48$, $\alpha = 0.89$). Scores on emotional stability ranged from 1.9 to 3.45 ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 0.36$, $\alpha = 0.78$). Scores on openness to experience ranged from 1.75 to 3.95 ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 0.37$, $\alpha = 0.81$). See Appendix B for full scale.

    The three components of *organizational commitment* (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance) were assessed using Meyer et al.'s (1993) 18-item scale for primary participants. This scale includes six-item subscales for each component. Respondents

indicate their level of agreement with each statement using a five-point response scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Scores on affective commitment ranged from 1.00 to 4.83 ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 0.83$, $\alpha = 0.87$). Scores on normative commitment ranged from 1.00 to 4.67 ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 0.84$, $\alpha = 0.86$). Scores on continuance commitment ranged from 1.67 to 4.83 ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 0.65$, $\alpha = 0.56$). See Appendix C for full scale.

Coworker survey. In addition to providing demographic and job-related information, coworker participants assessed the *OCB of the primary participant* who gave them the survey. The purpose of this measure was to provide an outside rating of primary participants' OCB. Coworkers completed the same 22-item scale adapted from Borman's work (e.g., Borman et al., 2001) as the primary participants did with the only difference being that coworkers were assessing the OCB of the primary participants so items were reworded to ask which behaviors "your coworker" engaged in at work. Items were accompanied by a seven-point response scale (0 = never, 6 = more than once a day). Mean scores on this scale ranged from 0.00 to 6.0 ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.33$). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .95.

Procedure

Primary participants completed a paper-and-pencil survey in small groups during 30-45 minute experimental sessions. Primary participants were each assigned a unique identification number to allow the coordination of the primary and coworker surveys. All participants completed an informed consent form, were given instructions regarding survey completion (e.g., answer all items, may leave the session without completing the

survey if uncomfortable with items), and were allowed to ask questions during the survey completion. Participants were recruited from and received credit toward a research participation requirement in Introductory Psychology classes. Upon completion of the primary survey, primary participants were given the coworker surveys along with coworker consent forms in a stamped envelope addressed to the researchers to distribute. The researchers notified the primary participants via email when the completed coworker surveys were received. Researchers made no additional efforts to encourage primaries or their selected coworker participants (who were unknown to the researchers) to return completed secondary surveys.

CHAPTER III

SAMPLE 2 METHOD

A second study was conducted to provide an older, more stably employed sample and to utilize different measures of the variables of interest. Because Sample 1 included undergraduate students as its primary participants, Sample 2 used employed adults who were contacted outside the university context to provide a sample more similar to the traditional working population than that included in Sample 1. Additionally, different assessments of OCB and personality were included in Sample 2 than those used in Sample 1 in order to demonstrate that relationships were not specific to the measures used but rather that they existed across measures. The same assessment of organizational commitment was used across studies, as it is the most commonly used measure and it maps onto the conceptualization of the construct used in this paper. In contrast, several commonly-used measures exist for OCB and Big Five personality traits.

Participants

Participants were recruited through The Sample Network, an internet sampling and surveying company. In all, 1225 participants signed on to the online survey; all but one agreed to the consent form. A single screening item, asking participants whether they had a job outside the home, was the first item because personal communication with the account manager at The Sample Network suggests that it is common for a large number of individuals who are sent invitations to participate in research to not have jobs outside the home (e.g., retirees, students, housewives, individuals with home-based businesses). Therefore, only those people who answered "yes" to the screening item (N=

606 ; 49.5%) were eligible to continue the survey. The sample was further restricted to

only those individuals for whom complete data on all measures of interest (i.e., OCB,

Big Five personality traits, organizational commitment) were available (n = 241). As

such, all analyses were conducted on this sample of 241. Of these, 50.6% were male and

49.4% were female. Participants ranged in age from 18-75 (*M* = 44.91, *SD* = 11.59).

Regarding ethnicity, 82.6% of participants identified themselves as Caucasian, 6.6% as

African American, 3.7% as Hispanic, 0.8% as Asian American, and 0.4% as Native

American. Other participants identified as foreign nationals or not US citizens (0.4%) or

as other (2.1%); 3.3% of participants selected more than one response on this item.

Most participants were employed full-time (80.1%) and worked an average of 39.62

hours per week (*SD* = 11.47). On average, participants had been employed at their

current jobs for 7.49 years (*SD* = 7.22, range= 0.08-40.83). The majority of participants

were core (65.1%) rather than temporary (34.0%) workers (0.8% of participants did not

respond to this question). Finally, 34.0% of participants reported being in management.

Measures

  Organizational citizenship behavior. OCB was assessed using a shortened, 15-

item version of Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) scale. Three items were used to assess each of

altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Respondents

indicated their agreement with each statement using a seven-point scale (1 = strongly

disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Scores on this scale ranged from 3.6 to 7.0 (*M* = 5.64, *SD*

= 0.81, α = .84). See Appendix E for full scale.

Personality. Big Five personality traits were assessed using Saucier's (2002) Mini-Modular Markers. This 40-item scale consists of eight-item subscales to assess each Big Five factor. Respondents indicate how accurately each adjective describes them using the accompanying five-point response scale (1 = very inaccurate, 5 = very accurate). Scores on conscientiousness ranged from 1.63 to 4.88 ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 0.65$, $\alpha = .73$). Scores on agreeableness ranged from 1.38 to 5.0 ($M = 3.82$, $SD = .65$, $\alpha = .75$). Scores on extraversion ranged from 1.5 to 5.0 ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.77$, $\alpha = .84$). Scores on emotional stability ranged from 1.38 to 4.63 ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 0.68$, $\alpha = .72$). Scores on openness to experience ranged from 2.25 to 4.88 ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 0.57$, $\alpha = .65$). See Appendix F for full scale.

Organizational commitment. As in Sample 1, the three components of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, normative, and continuance) were assessed using Meyer et al.'s (1993) 18-item scale. Scores on affective commitment ranged from 1.0 to 5.0 ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.87$, $\alpha = .82$). Scores on normative commitment ranged from 1.0 to 5.0 ($M = 3.08$, $SD = 0.99$, $\alpha = .89$). Scores on continuance commitment ranged from 1.0 to 5.0 ($M = 3.01$, $SD = 0.92$, $\alpha = .79$). See Appendix C for full scale.

Procedure

Data were collected using an online survey and a sample company. The survey company invited individuals to participate via an email invitation. This email was sent to people who were registered to participate in internet survey panels. The sample company did not use banner ads to solicit participation.

CHAPTER IV

POWER ANALYSES

Power analyses were conducted to determine the power level associated with the present study's results. All power analyses were conducted using the program available at http://www.danielsoper.com with an alpha level of .05. Further, power analyses were conducted using the following benchmarks: a small effect size is equal to .02, a medium effect size is equal to .15, and a large effect size is equal to.35.

All direct effect hypotheses were tested using regression analyses. Using linear regression with one predictor and Sample 1 ($N = 133$), the power level to detect a small effect size was .38, the power level to detect a medium effect size was 1.00, and the power level to detect a large effect size was 1.00. Using the same parameters with Sample 2 ($N = 241$), the power level to detect a small effect size was .61, the power level to detect a medium effect size was 1.00, the power level to detect and a large effect size was 1.00.

All mediation hypotheses were tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach. Power analyses were conducted using the following parameters: two predictors and $N = 133$ (Sample 1) or $N = 241$ (Sample 2). Using Sample 1 data, the power level to detect a small effect was .29, the power level to detect a medium effect was 1.00, and the power level to detect a large effect was 1.00. Using Sample 2 data, the power level to detect a small effect was .50, the power level to detect a medium effect was 1.00, and the power level to detect a large effect was 1.00.

Finally, exploratory analyses were conducted using hierarchical regression. Two sets of power analyses were conducted: 1) three organizational commitment components in Step 1 and five personality traits in Step 2 and $N = 133$ (Sample 1) or 241 (Sample 2); 2) five personality traits in Step 1 and three organizational commitment components in Step 2 and $N = 133$ (Sample 1) or 241 (Sample 2). For the first set of power analyses using Sample 1 data, the power level to detect a small effect was .19, the power level to detect a medium effect was .94, and the power level to detect a large effect was 1.00. For the first set of power analyses using Sample 2 data, the power level to detect a small effect was .35, the power level to detect a medium effect was 1.00, and the power level to detect a large effect was 1.00. For the second set of power analyses using Sample 1 data, the power level to detect a small effect was .24, the power level to detect a medium effect was .97, and the power level to detect a large effect was 1.00. For the second set of power analyses using Sample 2 data, the power level to detect a small effect was .43, the power level to detect a medium effect was 1.00, and the power level to detect a large effect was 1.00.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Tables 3 (Sample 1) and 4 (Sample 2) contain the means, standard deviations, ranges, and reliabilities for each scale, as well as the correlations among the scales for both samples. The correlation between OCB assessed by the primary participant and OCB assessed by the coworker participant in Sample 1 is significant, thus offering multitrait-multimethod evidence of the construct. Tables 3 and 4 also indicate that affective and normative commitment are significantly correlated in each sample, consistent with the extant literature (Ko et al., 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer et al., 2002).

Table 5 contains the sample-weighted correlations for all study variables. These correlations provide the average correlation between the study variables across samples and were conducted to examine the overall relationships between each of the Big Five personality traits and the organizational commitment components and OCB in this study. As such, they provide a more representative picture of these relationships.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Sample 1 Variables

	Scale (source)	Range	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Primary OCB	1.55-6.00	3.78 (1.05)	.92									
2.	Coworker OCB	0.00-6.00	3.81 (1.33)	.21*	.95								
3.	Conscientiousness	1.50-4.00	3.29 (0.40)	.34**	.21*	.89							
4.	Agreeableness	1.30-4.00	3.42 (0.41)	.32**	.12	.59**	.91						
5.	Extraversion	1.40-3.90	2.98 (0.48)	.21*	.13	.36**	.26**	.89					
6.	Emotional Stability	1.90-3.45	2.77 (0.36)	.10	.14	.35**	.26**	.19*	.78				
7.	Openness to Experience	1.75-3.95	3.16 (0.37)	.33**	.03	.52**	.42**	.54**	.22**	.81			
8.	Affective Commitment	1.00-4.83	3.05 (0.83)	.55**	.27**	.22**	.17	.09	.08	.12	.87		
9.	Normative Commitment	1.00-4.67	3.21 (0.84)	.36**	.25**	.20*	.13	.02	.12	.06	.67**	.86	
10.	Continuance Commitment	1.67-4.83	3.10 (0.65)	.03	.10	-.02	-.12	-.03	-.10	-.09	.14	.22*	.56

Notes: $N = 133$. Cronbach's alphas appear on the diagonal. * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, two-tailed.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Sample 2 Variables

	Scale (source)	Range	M (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	OCB	3.60-7.00	5.64 (0.81)	.84								
2.	Conscientiousness	1.63-4.88	3.77 (0.65)	.31**	.73							
3.	Agreeableness	1.38-5.00	3.82 (0.65)	.37**	-.01	.75						
4.	Extraversion	1.50-5.00	3.48 (0.77)	.34**	.27**	.27**	.84					
5.	Emotional Stability	1.38-4.63	3.23 (0.68)	.25**	.13*	.14*	.16**	.72				
6.	Openness to Experience	2.25-4.88	3.51 (0.57)	.12	.14*	-.12	.46*	.02	.65			
7.	Affective Commitment	1.00-5.00	3.12 (0.87)	.35**	.07	.19**	.24**	.01	-.07	.82		
8.	Normative Commitment	1.00-5.00	3.08 (0.99)	.30**	.02	.19**	.16*	.00	-.19**	.75**	.89	
9.	Continuance Commitment	1.00-5.00	3.01 (0.92)	-.08	-.17*	.00	-.10	-.20**	-.18**	.17**	.35**	.79

Notes: $N = 241$. Cronbach's alphas appear on the diagonal. * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, two-tailed.

Table 5

Sample Weighted Correlations among Study Variables

	Scale (source)	OCB$_A$	OCB$_B$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Conscientiousness	.32	.27							
2.	Agreeableness	.35	.28	.20						
3.	Extraversion	.29	.27	.30	.27					
4.	Emotional Stability	.20	.21	.21	.18	.17				
5.	Openness to Experience	.19	.09	.28	.07	.49	.09			
6.	Affective Commitment	.42	.32	.12	.18	.19	.03	.00		
7.	Normative Commitment	.32	.28	.08	.17	.11	.04	-.10	.72	
8.	Continuance Commitment	-.04	-.02	-.12	-.04	-.08	-.16	-.15	.16	.30

Notes: OCB$_A$ = Sample 1 Primary OCB and Sample 2 OCB; OCB$_B$ = Sample 1 Coworker OCB and Sample 2 OCB.

Table 6 contains the results of the regressions of the various personality and commitment measures on the OCB measure for Sample 1. Hypotheses 1a-1d concerned the relationships between OCB and personality. Hypothesis 1a predicted that conscientiousness would positively relate to OCB. This hypothesis was supported across both assessments of OCB in Sample 1 (i.e., primary, coworker). Hypothesis 1b, that agreeableness is positively related to OCB, received mixed support. When both measures came from the primary participant, agreeableness was related to OCB; however, when the coworkers' assessment of OCB was included, agreeableness was not related to OCB. This same pattern of results occurred for Hypothesis 1c; a positive relationship between extraversion and OCB occurred when both measures came from the same participant. When the coworkers' assessment of OCB was used, this hypothesis was unsupported. Hypothesis 1d, which predicted that emotional stability is related to

OCB, was not supported in the Sample 1 data. Finally, as expected, there was no relationship between openness to experience and OCB. An examination of the correlations among these variables indicates that the only instance in which these variables were correlated occurred when both measures came from the primary participants in Sample 1 (see Table 3).

Hypotheses 2a-2b concerned the relationships between OCB and organizational commitment. As shown in Table 6 and consistent with Hypotheses 2a and 2b, affective and normative commitment were positively related to OCB across both sources in Sample 1. Additionally, no relationship was expected between OCB and continuance commitment and, as shown in Table 3, these variables were not correlated when either source of OCB ratings was used.

Table 6

Regressions of OCB on Personality and Commitment for Sample 1

Personality Trait or Commitment Component	Source of OCB rating	Beta	R^2	F
Conscientiousness	Primary	.34	.12	17.38**
	Coworker	.21	.04	5.91*
Agreeableness	Primary	.32	.10	14.95**
	Coworker	.12	.01	1.79
Extraversion	Primary	.21	.04	5.73*
	Coworker	.13	.02	2.33
Emotional stability	Primary	.10	.01	1.30
	Coworker	.14	.02	2.53
Affective Commitment	Primary	.55	.30	56.55**
	Coworker	.27	.07	10.45**
Normative Commitment	Primary	.36	.13	18.90**
	Coworker	.25	.06	8.41**

Notes: For all regressions, *N*=133. * *p*<.05, ***p*<.01.

Table 7 contains the results of the regressions of the various personality and commitment measures on the OCB measures for Sample 2. Again, Hypotheses 1a-1d concern the relationships between OCB and personality. All of these hypotheses were supported by the Sample 2 data. Conscientiousness (Hypothesis 1a), agreeableness (Hypothesis 1b), extraversion (Hypothesis 1c), and emotional stability (Hypothesis 1d) were all positively related to OCB. As expected, no relationship was found between openness to experience and OCB (see Table 4).

Hypotheses 2a-2b, that OCB would be predicted by affective and normative commitment, were supported by the Sample 2 data. As shown in Table 7, affective (Hypothesis 2a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 2b) were positively related to OCB. Also consistent with expectations, no relationship was found between OCB and continuance commitment (see Table 4).

Table 7

Regressions of OCB on Personality and Commitment for Sample 2

Personality Trait or Commitment Component	Beta	R^2	F
conscientiousness	.21	.10	25.39**
agreeableness	.37	.13	36.81**
extraversion	.34	.11	30.35**
emotional stability	.25	.06	15.43**
affective commitment	.35	.12	32.81**
normative commitment	.30	.09	24.17**

Notes: For all regressions, *N*=241. * *p*<.05, ***p*<.01.

Table 8 contains the results of the regressions of the personality measures on the commitment measure for Sample 1. Hypotheses 3-7 concern the relationships between personality and organizational commitment. Hypotheses 3a-3c involve the relationships between conscientiousness and the commitment components. Conscientiousness was found to be positively related to affective (Hypothesis 3a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 3b) but not to continuance commitment (Hypothesis 3c). Hypotheses 4a-4b, which deal with the agreeableness-organizational commitment relationship, were not supported, as agreeableness was not related to affective (Hypothesis 4a) or normative commitment (Hypothesis 4b). Additionally, no relationship was expected between agreeableness and continuance commitment and none was found (see Table 3). Hypotheses 5a-7c were not supported in the Sample 1 data, as extraversion, emotional stability, and openness to experience were unrelated to all of affective, normative, and continuance commitment.

Table 8

Regressions of Organizational Commitment on Personality for Sample 1

Personality Trait	Commitment Component	Beta	R^2	F
conscientiousness	affective	.22	.05	6.84*
	normative	.20	.04	5.34*
	continuance	-.02	.00	.07
agreeableness	affective	.17	.03	3.89
	normative	.13	.02	2.14
extraversion	affective	.09	.01	1.00
	normative	.02	.00	.05
	continuance	-.03	.00	.15
emotional stability	affective	.08	.01	.73
	normative	.12	.01	1.50
	continuance	-.10	.01	1.43
openness to experience	affective	.12	.01	1.80
	normative	.06	.00	.54
	continuance	-.09	.01	.98

Notes: For all regressions, *N*=133. * *p*<.05, ** *p*<.01.

Table 9 contains the results of the regressions for Hypotheses 3-7 for Sample 2. Hypotheses 3a and 3b were not supported, as conscientiousness was not related to either affective (Hypothesis 3a) or normative commitment (Hypothesis 3b). However, in support of Hypothesis 3c, conscientiousness was positively related to continuance commitment. Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported in the Sample 2 data; agreeableness was positively related to affective (Hypothesis 4a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 4b). Also consistent with expectations, agreeableness was not related to continuance commitment (see Table 4). Hypotheses 5a-5c involved the extraversion-organizational commitment relationships. Hypothesis 5a, which predicted that

extraversion would be positively related to affective commitment, and Hypothesis 5b, which predicted that extraversion would be positively related to normative commitment, received support in the Sample 2 data; however, Hypothesis 5c, which predicted that extraversion would be negatively related to continuance commitment did not receive support. Further, the hypotheses regarding emotional stability's relationship with organizational commitment received mixed support in the Sample 2 data, as emotional stability was found to be negatively related to continuance commitment, in accordance with Hypothesis 6c but not related to affective or normative commitment, thus failing to support Hypotheses 6a and 6b. Finally, Hypotheses 7a-7c dealt with the openness to experience-organizational commitment relationships. Hypothesis 7a (that openness to experience is positively related to affective commitment) was not supported. Hypothesis 7b, that openness to experience is negatively related to normative commitment, and Hypothesis 7c, that openness to experience is negatively related to continuance commitment, were supported.

Table 9

Regressions of Organizational Commitment on Personality for Sample 2

Personality Trait	Commitment Component	Beta	R^2	F
conscientiousness	affective	.07	.01	1.25
	normative	.02	.00	0.12
	continuance	-.17	.03	6.74**
agreeableness	affective	.19	.04	8.59**
	normative	.19	.04	9.19**
extraversion	affective	.24	.06	14.60**
	normative	.16	.03	6.07*
	continuance	-.10	.01	2.37
emotional stability	affective	.01	.00	0.02
	normative	.00	.00	0.00
	continuance	-.20	.04	10.19**
openness to experience	affective	-.07	.01	1.19
	normative	-.19	.04	8.91**
	continuance	-.18	.03	7.94**

Notes: For all regressions, $N=241$. * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$.

Hypotheses 8a-11b concerned the organizational commitment components as mediators of the personality trait-OCB relationships. All mediation hypotheses were tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach [see David Kenny's (2008) website for updates: http://davidakenny.net/cm/mediate.htm]. According to this approach, three criteria must be met when testing for mediation: 1) the predictor and the criterion must be related; 2) the predictor and the mediator must be related; and, 3) the mediator and the criterion should be related when controlling for the predictor. The *B* coefficient for the predictor variable of interest is then examined. If it is reduced to zero when the mediator is included, this indicates full mediation. If it is reduced, then partial mediation is

indicated. Finally, formal significance tests of indirect effects are conducted using the

Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004).

The first stage of the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach was examined in

Hypotheses 1a-1d, the relationships between each of the personality traits and OCB. If

these relationships were not significant, then there is no relationship to mediate. Using

the Sample 1 data, significant relationships were found between conscientiousness

(Hypothesis 1a) and OCB when OCB was assessed by either the primary participant or

the coworker. Further, significant relationships were found between agreeableness

(Hypothesis 1b) and extraversion (Hypothesis 1c) and OCB when OCB was assessed by

the primary participant only. The relationship between emotional stability and OCB

(Hypothesis 1d) was not significant. Therefore, this relationship was not further

examined and Hypotheses 11a and 11b (affective and normative commitment,

respectively, mediating the emotional stability-OCB relationship) were not supported by

the Sample 1 data.

Second, the relationships between the predictor variables and the mediators were

examined in Hypotheses 3a-7d. Conscientiousness was significantly related to affective

(Hypothesis 3a) and normative (Hypothesis 3b) commitment. However, agreeableness

was not related to affective (Hypothesis 4a) or normative commitment (Hypothesis 4b),

nor was extraversion (Hypotheses 5a and 5b). Further, emotional stability was not

related to affective (Hypothesis 6a) or normative commitment (Hypothesis 6b); this has

no further effect on examining the mediation of the personality trait-OCB relationship

because Hypothesis 1d (emotional stability-OCB relationship, i.e., Step 1 of this

mediation analysis) was not supported and therefore negated the need for further

examination of Hypotheses 11a and 11b in Sample 1. Finally, there was no expectation

that commitment would mediate an effect of openness on OCB, because such a

relationship was not theorized and no relationship was found. In sum, in Step 2 of the

mediation analyses, Hypotheses 9a, 9b, 10, and 10b were not supported and only the

mediation hypotheses involving conscientiousness (Hypotheses 8a and 8b) were

examined further using the Sample 1 data.

Using Sample 1 data, Hypothesis 8a was supported. Using the OCB report from

the primary and coworker participants in Sample 1, the effect of conscientiousness on

OCB was reduced but remained greater than zero when affective commitment was added

to the equation, suggesting partial mediation (using primary OCB, β dropped from β =

.34 to β = .23; using coworker OCB β dropped from β = .21 to β = .16). Further, results

of Sobel tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) using OCB reports from the primary

participants further supported this hypothesis (z = 2.04, p = .04); however, analyses

using the coworker data did not (z = 1.88, p = .06).

Hypothesis 8b also received support using Sample 1 data. Using the OCB report

from the primary and coworker participants, the effect of conscientiousness on OCB

decreased but remained greater than zero when normative commitment was included the

equation, suggesting partial mediation (using primary OCB, β dropped from β = .34 to β

= .28; using coworker OCB β dropped from β = .21 to β = .17). Additionally, the results

of Sobel tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) using OCB reports from the primary

participants provided further evidence of a mediating relationship (z = 1.97, p = .05);

however, this effect was not found using OCB reports from coworker participants ($z =$ 1.68, $p = .09$).

The mediation hypotheses (8a-11b) were also tested using data from Sample 2. Again, the first step involved examining the relationships between each of the personality traits and OCB to ensure that there were significant relationships to mediate. As discussed previously, conscientiousness (Hypothesis 1a), agreeableness (Hypothesis 1b), extraversion (Hypothesis 1c), and emotional stability (Hypothesis 1d) were all positively related to OCB. For the second step in the mediated regression analyses, the relationships between the personality traits and the organizational commitment components were examined. As reported above, conscientiousness was not related to either affective (Hypothesis 3a) or normative commitment (Hypothesis 3b), thus Hypotheses 8a and 8b were not supported using data from Sample 2. Further, emotional stability was unrelated to affective (Hypothesis 6a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 6b), thus failing to offer support for Hypotheses 11a and 11b using Sample 2 data. As such, only the mediation hypotheses involving agreeableness (Hypotheses 9a and 9b) and extraversion (Hypotheses 10a and 10b) were examined further using the Sample 2 data.

Using Sample 2 data, Hypothesis 9a was supported; the effect of agreeableness on OCB was reduced but remained greater than zero when affective commitment was added to the equation, suggesting partial mediation (β dropped from $\beta = .37$ to $\beta = .35$). Further, results of Sobel tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) supported this hypothesis ($z =$ 2.43, $p = .02$). Hypothesis 9b also received support using Sample 2 data. The effect of

agreeableness on OCB decreased but remained greater than zero when normative commitment was included the equation, suggesting partial mediation (β dropped from β = .37 to β = .32). Additionally, the results of Sobel tests (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) provided further evidence of a mediating relationship ($z = 2.45$, $p = .01$).

Hypotheses 10a and 10b examined affective commitment and normative commitment as mediators of the extraversion-OCB relationship. Using the Sample 2 data, Hypothesis 10a received support. When affective commitment was entered into the equation, the effect of extraversion on OCB decreased but remained greater than zero, suggesting partial mediation (β dropped from β = .34 to β = .27). Further, results of a Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) support this hypothesis ($z = 2.88$, $p = .003$). Hypothesis 10b was also supported in Sample 2. The effect of extraversion on OCB was reduced but remained greater than zero when normative commitment was entered into the equation (β dropped from β = .34 to β = .30). Further, results of a Sobel test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004) offer more support for a mediating relationship ($z = 2.14$, $p = .03$).

Results of the current study are summarized in Table 10. As hypothesized, each of the four personality traits predicted to relate to OCB (Hypotheses 1a-1d) did so in at least one analysis. Conscientiousness was positively related to all assessments of OCB (Hypothesis 1a) in Samples 1 and 2. Agreeableness (Hypothesis 1b) and extraversion (Hypothesis 1c) were positively related to OCB when the assessment came from the primary participant in Sample 1 and in Sample 2. Emotional stability was positively related to OCB in Sample 2. Also consistent with expectations, both affective

(Hypothesis 2a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 2b) were related to OCB across both samples and all three measures of OCB.

However, the pattern of relationships between the Big Five personality traits and the organizational commitment components is less clear. Conscientiousness was related to affective (Hypothesis 3a) and normative commitment (Hypothesis 3b) in Sample 1 but not Sample 2. No other personality trait-organizational commitment relationships were significant in Sample 1; however, several relationships were significant in Sample 2. Specifically, agreeableness (Hypothesis 4a) and extraversion (Hypothesis 5a) were related to affective commitment; agreeableness (Hypothesis 4b), extraversion (Hypothesis 5b), and openness to experience (Hypothesis 7b) were related to normative commitment; and conscientiousness (Hypothesis 3c), emotional stability (Hypothesis 6c), and openness to experience (Hypothesis 7c) were related to continuance commitment in the expected directions. Finally, several of the mediated hypotheses (8a-11b) received at least partial support in at least one sample. Affective (Hypothesis 8a) and normative (Hypothesis 8b) commitment partially mediated the relationship between conscientiousness and both the primary and coworker assessments of OCB in Sample 1. Further, affective commitment mediated the relationships between agreeableness (Hypothesis 9a) and extraversion (Hypothesis 10a) and OCB and normative commitment mediated the relationships between agreeableness (Hypothesis 9b) and extraversion (Hypothesis 10b) and OCB. Thus, the present study offered support for both direct relationships between the Big Five personality traits, organizational commitment components, and OCB as well as for several mediated relationships.

Table 10

Summary of Results

	Hypothesis	Supported—Sample 1	Supported—Sample 2
OCB and Personality			
1a	Conscientiousness is positively related to OCB.	P, C	Y
1b	Agreeableness is positively related to OCB.	P	Y
1c	Extraversion is positively related to OCB.	P	Y
1d	Emotional stability is positively related to OCB.	N	Y
OCB and Organizational Commitment			
2a	AC is positively related to OCB.	P, C	Y
b	NC is positively related to OCB.	P, C	Y
Organizational Commitment and Personality			
3a	Conscientiousness is positively related to AC.	Y	N
3b	Conscientiousness is positively related to NC.	Y	N
3c	Conscientiousness is positively related to CC.	N	Y
4a	Agreeableness is positively related to AC.	N	Y
4b	Agreeableness is positively related to NC.	N	Y
5a	Extraversion is positively related to AC.	N	Y
5b	Extraversion is positively related to NC.	N	Y
5c	Extraversion is negatively related to CC.	N	N
6a	Emotional stability is positively related to AC.	N	N
6b	Emotional stability is positively related to NC.	N	N
6c	Emotional stability is negatively related to CC.	N	Y
7a	Openness to experience is positively related to AC.	N	N
7b	Openness to experience is negatively related to NC.	N	Y
7c	Openness to experience is negatively related to CC.	N	Y
Mediation Hypotheses			
8a	AC mediates the relationship between conscientiousness and OCB.	P, C (PS)	N
8b	NC mediates the relationship between conscientiousness and OCB.	P, C (PS)	N
9a	AC mediates the relationship between agreeableness and OCB.	N	Y

Table 10, continued

	Hypothesis	Supported— Sample 1	Supported— Sample 2
9b	NC mediates the relationship between agreeableness and OCB.	N	Y
10a	AC mediates the relationship between extraversion and OCB.	N	Y
10b	NC mediates the relationship between extraversion and OCB.	N	Y
11a	AC mediates the relationship between emotional stability and OCB.	N	N
11b	NC mediates the relationship between emotional stability and OCB.	N	N

Notes: AC = affective commitment, NC = normative commitment, CC = continuance commitment, P = supported with primary OCB data, C = supported with coworker OCB data, Y = yes, N = no, PS = partial support

CHAPTER VI

EXPLORATORY ANALYSES

This study proposed and examined relationships among Big Five personality traits, three organizational commitment mindsets, and OCBs by considering only one personality trait and/or one commitment component at a time. However, neither personality traits nor organizational commitment components occur in isolation. Rather, individuals experience varying levels of these eight predictors simultaneously. In an attempt to explore the combined influence of the predictors on the criterion, two sets of exploratory analyses were conducted: 1) the influence of all five personality traits on OCB with the organizational commitment factors controlled and 2) the influence of the all three organizational commitment factors on OCB with the Big Five personality traits controlled.

The first set of exploratory analyses examined the influence of organizational commitment on OCB, above and beyond the personality variables, using hierarchical regression. Using Sample 1 OCB data from the primary participants as the criterion, the five personality variables were entered in the first step, followed by the three organizational commitment variables in the second step. As depicted in Table 11, the organizational commitment variables incrementally added to the prediction of primary OCB above and beyond the personality variables. The organizational commitment variables explained an additional 23% of the variance in primary ratings of OCB. An examination of the *b*-weights indicates that affective commitment was the only variable with a *b*-weight that is significantly different from zero when the others are present. A

similar analysis was conducted using Sample 1 OCB data from the coworker participants as the criterion. Again, the five personality variables were entered in the first step, followed by the three organizational commitment variables in the second step. As depicted in Table 11, the organizational commitment variables incrementally added to the prediction of coworker OCB above and beyond the personality variables. The organizational commitment variables explained an additional 6% of the variance in coworker OCB. An examination of the b-weights indicates that none of the variables was a significant contributor independent of the others.

The influence of organizational commitment on OCB, above and beyond the personality variables, was also assessed using hierarchical regression on the Sample 2 data. With OCB as the criterion, the five personality variables were entered in the first step, followed by the three organizational commitment variables in the second step. As depicted in Table 12, the organizational commitment variables incrementally added to the prediction of primary OCB above and beyond the personality variables. The organizational commitment variables explained an additional 7% of the variance in primary OCB. An examination of the b-weights indicates that none of the variables was significantly different from zero.

Table 11

Hierarchical Regression with OCB on Organizational Commitment with Personality Controlled (Sample 1)

Variable	Primary OCB					Coworker OCB				
	B	Beta	R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F	B	Beta	R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F
Step 1			.13	.16**	4.94**			.03	.07	1.92
1. conscientiousness	.21	.08				.57	.17			
2. agreeableness	.31	.12				.01	.00			
3. extraversion	.03	.01				.37	.14			
4. emotional stability	-.11	-.04				.28	.08			
5. openness to experience	.50	.18				-.62	-.17			
Step 2			.35	.23**	10.03**			.08	.06*	2.37*
1. affective commitment	.63**	.50				.27	.17			
2. normative commitment	-.02	-.02				.14	.09			
3. continuance commitment	-.02	-.01				.13	.06			

Note: *$p \leq .05$; **$p \leq .01$

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression with OCB on Organizational Commitment with Personality Controlled (Sample 2)

Variable	B	Beta	OCB R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F
Step 1			.27	.29**	18.99**
1. conscientiousness	.28**	.23			
2. agreeableness	.36**	.28			
3. extraversion	.09	.09			
4. emotional stability	.18**	.15			
5. openness to experience	.19*	.14			
Step 2			.34	.07**	16.38**
1. affective commitment	.15	.16			
2. normative commitment	.13	.16			
3. continuance commitment	-.05	-.06			

Note: *$p \le .05$; **$p \le .01$

The second set of exploratory analyses examined the influence of the Big Five personality traits on OCB, above and beyond the organizational commitment components, using hierarchical regression. Using Sample 1 OCB data from the primary participants as the criterion, the three organizational commitment variables were entered in the first step, followed by the five personality variables in the second step. As depicted in Table 13, the personality variables incrementally added to the prediction of primary OCB above and beyond the organizational commitment variables, explaining an additional 9% of the variance in primary OCB. An examination of the *b*-weights indicates that none of the personality variables was significant. A similar analysis was conducted using Sample 1 OCB data from the coworker participants as the criterion. Again, the three organizational commitment variables were entered in the first step, followed by the five personality variables in the second step. As depicted in Table 13, while the overall model was significant, the change in R^2 was not; thus the personality variables did not significantly add to the prediction of coworker OCB above and beyond the organizational commitment variables.

Table 13

Hierarchical Regression with OCB on Personality with Organizational Commitment Controlled (Sample 1)

Variable	Primary OCB					Coworker OCB				
	B	Beta	R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F	B	Beta	R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F
Step 1			.29	.30**	18.80**			.06	.08*	3.95**
1. affective commitment	.63**	.50				.27	.17			
2. normative commitment	-.02	-.02				.14	.09			
3. continuance commitment	-.02	-.01				.13	.06			
Step 2			.35	.09**	10.03**			.08	.05	2.37*
1. conscientiousness	.21	.08				.57	.17			
2. agreeableness	.31	.12				.01	.00			
3. extraversion	.03	.01				.37	.14			
4. emotional stability	-.11	-.04				.28	.08			
5. openness to experience	.50	.18				-.62	-.17			

Note: $*p \leq .05; **p \leq .01$

The influence of the influence of the Big Five personality variables on OCB, above and beyond the organizational commitment components, was also assessed using hierarchical regression on the Sample 2 data. Using Sample 2 OCB data as the criterion, the three organizational commitment variables were entered in the first step, followed by the five personality variables in the second step. As depicted in Table 14, the personality variables incrementally added to the prediction of primary OCB above and beyond the organizational commitment variables, explaining an additional 21% of the variance in primary OCB. An examination of the *b*-weights indicates that conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience all had *b*-weights that were significantly different from zero.

Table 14

Hierarchical Regression with OCB on Personality with Organizational Commitment Controlled (Sample 2)

			OCB		
Variable	B	Beta	R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F
Step 1			.14	.15**	14.35**
1. affective commitment	.15	.16			
2. normative commitment	.13	.16			
3. continuance commitment	-.05	-.06			
Step 2			.34	.21**	16.38**
1. conscientiousness	.28**	.23			
2. agreeableness	.36**	.28			
3. extraversion	.09	.09			
4. emotional stability	.18**	.15			
5. openness to experience	.19*	.14			

Note: $*p \leq .05; **p \leq .01$

It is difficult to discern a clear pattern of results across samples from the combined results of these exploratory analyses. In the first set of exploratory analyses examining the influence of organizational commitment on OCB above and beyond personality, affective commitment was the only variable with a significant b-weight when the primary measure of OCB was used from the Sample 1 data; however, no single predictor had a significant b-weight when the OCB ratings came from the coworker or the Sample 2 data. Finally, in the second set of exploratory analyses examining the influence of personality on OCB above and beyond organizational commitment, several personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience) had significant b-weights when the measure of OCB from the Sample 2 data was used; however, no single predictor had a significant b-weight when the OCB ratings came from the primary participant in Sample 1 and the model was not significant when the coworker data from Sample 1 was used. Thus, the overall picture differs across samples but it appears that affective commitment and the personality traits of conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience are exerting the greatest influence on OCB, indicating that they are the most useful predictors of OCB.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As discussed previously, OCB is an important organizational outcome,
influencing overall organizational effectiveness (Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo,
1993; 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Katz, 1964; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994;
Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; 1997;
Podsakoff et al., 2000) and individual outcomes, such as supervisory evaluations of
performance (Borman et al., 1995; Hoffman et al., 2007; MacKenzie et al., 1991;
Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Orr et al., 1989; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994). As
such, a clear understanding of the antecedents of OCB is important and has implications
for individual and organizational effectiveness. The current study examined four sets of
hypotheses regarding the interrelationships between the Big Five personality traits, three
organizational commitment components, and OCB: 1) direct relationships between
personality traits and OCB, 2) direct relationships between organizational commitment
components and OCB, 3) direct relationships between personality traits and
organizational commitment components, and 4) organizational commitment components
as mediators of personality trait-OCB relationships in an attempt to determine the
influence of individual difference variables on this important organizational outcome, an
unexplored area in the extant literature. Additionally, this study used data across two
distinct samples, an undergraduate sample for whom OCB ratings were available from
both the primary participants and their coworkers and an older, more stably employed

adult sample. Finally, this study used different assessments of OCB across the two samples, which can provide evidence for the stability of the construct.

The results from the present study contribute to our understanding of the theoretical links between individual differences, commitment, and organizationally driven behaviors. As outlined previously in this document, McCrae and Costa (1996) offer a meta-theoretical framework that seeks to explain the role of individual differences in behavior. The present study explored three components of this framework in an attempt to provide a test of the theory and add to the knowledge base describing the role of individual differences in behavior. McCrae and Costa described basic tendencies as dispositional traits, including personality. They also described characteristic adaptations as instantiations of basic tendencies, developed through the interaction of basic tendencies and experiences and which become ingrained over time. Characteristic adaptations include attitudes and skills that grow out of individuals' interactions with their environments; this description includes organizational commitment. Finally, they note that the purpose of personality theories is to predict objective biographies, or experiences, including overt behaviors. McCrae and Costa did not specify a working order for these variables but rather describe their framework as adaptive, such that the components can work together in a variety of patterns.

Motowidlo et al. (1997) used McCrae and Costa's framework to explain the antecedents of task performance and OCB, proposing a specific order of relationships. Relevant for this study, they proposed that certain basic tendencies influence OCB-specific characteristic adaptations, which then influence OCB. Thus, while Motowidlo

et al. base their theory on McCrae and Costa's framework, a fundamental difference

between the two is that McCrae and Costa indicate no specific arrangement among the

components of their meta-theoretical framework, such that either independent, direct or

mediated effects are possible, whereas Motowidlo et al. clearly specify that mediated

relationships should occur. In this study, I relied on these theories to categorize Big Five

personality traits as basic tendencies, organizational commitment as a characteristic

adaptation, and OCB as an objective biography. I further attempted to determine which

arrangement of the variables would be supported, one that was limited to direct effects or

one that allowed for both direct effects and/or mediation. The results of this study alone

were unable to clearly determine a consistent pattern of relationships, as both direct and

mediated effects were found.

Personality-OCB Relationships

The first set of hypotheses examined direct relationships between personality

traits and OCB. Although not entirely consistent, a general pattern of results emerged

across the two samples and three OCB reports, with each of conscientiousness,

agreeableness, extraversion, and emotional stability positively related to OCB in at least

one analysis. These results help to clarify the equivocal state of the extant literature, by

strengthening the argument that personality is related to OCB (e.g., Borman, 2004;

Hogan et al., 1998; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988). More specifically,

this study further supports the proposition that conscientiousness shows promise as a

predictor of OCB (Organ & McFall, 2004; Organ, 1994b; Organ & Ryan, 1995;

Podsakoff et al., 2000). Indeed, as proposed by King et al. (2005), conscientiousness

may offer the feeling of responsibility that provides the impetus for individuals to engage in behaviors that guarantee the effective functioning of groups or the overall organization. Further, the present study adds to the literature supporting an agreeableness-OCB link (e.g., Borman et al., 2001; Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), which has been proposed because agreeableness is a prosocial and collectivistic trait, so highly agreeable people should perform more acts of OCB than less agreeable people (John & Srivastava, 1999). Results also bolster support for the idea that more extraverted individuals engage in more OCB than less extraverted individuals do (e.g., Hogan et al., 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001), possibly due to their altruistic (Krebs,1970) and interpersonal nature (Small & Diefendorff, 2006). Finally, this set of results offers further support for the emotional stability-OCB link found in past research (e.g., Hogan et al., 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001) and the proposition that, while neurotic individuals may be the individuals in need of help (King et al., 2005), emotionally stable individuals may be able to offer it to others.

In sum, while four of the Big Five personality traits (i.e., conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, emotional stability) positively related to OCB in at least one analysis, the only personality characteristic that consistently related to OCB across samples and self- and other-reports of OCB was conscientiousness. This finding is in line with research suggesting that conscientiousness is the best predictor of OCB among the Big Five traits (Borman et al., 2001; King et al., 2005; Organ, 1994b; Organ & McFall, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). It further supports

the task performance-OCB distinction by supporting previous research that has found

differential antecedents across these two domains, with personality as a stronger

predictor of OCB and cognitive ability as a stronger predictor of task performance (e.g.,

Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Motowidlo &

Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988). Finally, it is also consistent with a possibility

discussed previously, such that under McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework, it is

possible that the conscientiousness component apparent in many conceptualizations of

OCB (e.g., Smith et al.'s [1983; Organ, 1988] generalized compliance; Borman and

Motowidlo's (1997) conscientiousness subfactor in their model of soldier effectiveness)

is driven by the basic tendency of conscientiousness.

Organizational Commitment-OCB Relationships

The second set of hypotheses examined direct relationships between the

organizational commitment components and OCB. In this set of analyses, a very clear

pattern of relationships emerged—both affective and normative commitment were

positively related to OCB across both samples and all three measures of OCB. These

results are consistent with both primary studies (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ,

1988, 1994a) and meta-analyses (e.g., Dalal, 2005; Hoffman et al., 2007; LePine et al.,

2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995) that support a relationship between organizational

commitment and OCB, and in particular affective (e.g., Van Scotter, 2000; Wagner &

Rush, 2000) and normative commitment (e.g., Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Wasti, 2005)

and OCB. Further, results support the intuitive idea that organizational commitment and

OCB should be related, as highly committed employees are more focused on their work

(Van Scotter, 2000) and more satisfied with their jobs (Mowday et al., 1982) than employees reporting lower levels and thus are likely to exert extra effort for their organization, such as by engaging in OCB (Mowday et al., 1982). However, due to the cross-sectional nature of the data in the present study, the possibility that engaging in OCB makes work more attractive for employees, which increases their organizational commitment (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) cannot be ruled out.

In conclusion, results of the present study are consistent with the extant literature and overwhelmingly support affective commmitment- and normative commitment-OCB relationships. Further, consistent with past research (e.g., Gellatly et al., 2006; Wasti, 2005), the results of the present study found an absence of a relationship between OCB and continuance commitment, as these variables were not correlated across samples and ratings. This finding, or lack thereof, is consistent with Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) proposition that continuance commitment should not predict discretionary behaviors, including OCB. Finally, the present results also are consistent with the present interpretation of McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework. I proposed that organizational commitment, as a characteristic adaptation, influenced an objective biography in the form of OCB. Indeed, this proposition was supported, as affective and normative commitment were each related to OCB.

Personality Traits-Organizational Commitment Relationships

The third set of direct relationship hypotheses examined relationships between personality traits and organizational commitment. The pattern of results that emerged across the samples was more equivocal for this set of hypotheses. Conscientiousness,

agreeableness, and extraversion were found to relate positively to affective commitment in at least one analysis. Conscientiousness, agreeableness, and extraversion were positively and openness to experience was negatively related to normative commitment at least once. Finally, conscientiousness was positively and emotional stability and openness to experience were negatively related to continuance commitment in at least one analysis. The only significant personality trait-organizational commitment component relationships in Sample 1 were between conscientiousness and each of affective and normative commitment. All other significant findings occurred in Sample 2. While not consistent across samples, these results are important as they add to the small amount of research examining the relationship between the Big Five and organizational commitment (Erdheim et al., 2006; Leiva et al., 205; Naquin & Holton, 2002) and further clarify interrelationships among these sets of variables. Present results coincide with previous findings that conscientiousness (Erdheim et al., 2006; Naquin & Holton, 2002), extraversion (Erdheim et al., Leiva et al., 2007; Naquin & Holton), and agreeableness (Leiva et al.; Naquin & Holton) are positively related to affective commitment; extraversion and agreeableness (Erdheim et al.) are positively related to normative commitment; and conscientiousness (Erdheim et al.) is positively related and openness to experience (Erdheim et al.; Naquin & Holton) and emotional stability (Erdheim et al.; Naquin & Holton) are negatively related to continuance commitment. Further, the present study adds unique findings to the personality-organizational commitment literature (i.e., openness to experience is negatively and conscientiousness is positively related to normative commitment).

There are several possible explanations for the inconsistent pattern of findings for the Big Five personality traits-organizational commitment component relationships. The first two possibilities concern the personality measures used. Specifically, different personality inventories were used in the two samples. Sample 1 used Goldberg's (1992) unipolar markers, which is a 100-item inventory (20 items per trait) accompanied by a 4-point response scale. Sample 2 used Saucier's (2002) Mini-Modular Markers, which is a 40-item inventory (8 items per trait) accompanied by a 5-point response scale. First, regarding the number of items per scale, some researchers suggest that the Big Five personality traits may be too broad to predict organizational commitment (Organ & McFall, 2004) and should be broken down into more specific facets (e.g., Hough, 1992). It is possible that Goldberg's scale assesses more of the specific facets of the Big Five traits than Saucier's scale does and that this difference between the scales could influence the personality trait-organizational commitment component relationships. The second possibility concerns the different response scales. While the means on the trait subscales (see Tables 3 and 4) appear similar, they are biased by the different response scales. As such, Sample 1 participants actually reported higher levels of several traits than Sample 2 participants did. While these mean differences did not influence the correlations or regressions between the personality traits and organizational commitment components, the fact that the participants in the two samples had different levels of some traits may have influenced these relationships.

Individuals across the two samples reported different levels of the Big Five traits. Further, the relationships between the Big Five traits and the organizational commitment

components differed across the samples. Thus, it is possible that something influenced

these relationships. One explanation involves the age of the participants across the two

samples. Participants in Sample 1 ranged in age from 16 to 25 ($M = 19$) while

participants in Sample 2 ranged from 18 to 75 ($M = 44.91$). While some personality

researchers (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1988) support the idea that personality is formed by

the age of 30 and is not likely to change afterward, other researchers suggest that

personality can change throughout adulthood (e.g., Mroczek & Spiro, 2003; Roberts &

Mroczek, 2008; Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). Indeed, recent meta-analytic

evidence suggests that increases in social vitality (one component of extraversion) and

openness to experience occur in adolescence; increases in social dominance (another

component of extraversion), conscientiousness, and emotional stability occur in young

adulthood (between 20 and 40 years of age); and increases in agreeableness occur in old

age. Thus, it is possible that participants in Sample 1 were undergoing changes to their

personalities, which could have influenced the way they responded to the personality

inventory and/or the relationships with organizational commitment.

A second explanation for the pattern of personality-organizational commitment

relationships concerns participants' employment. Sample 1 consisted of employed

undergraduate students while Sample 2 included older, more stably employed adults. It

is possible, perhaps even likely, that individuals in Sample 1 perceived themselves as

employed in "jobs" whereas individuals in Sample 2 perceived themselves as employed

in "careers." Indeed, employed undergraduate students are likely employed in jobs that

are conducive to an academic schedule. In contrast, individuals in Sample 2 are

expected to be more likely to be established in their careers rather than working at more temporary jobs. Consistent with these statements, most participants in Sample 1 were employed part-time (97%) and categorized their jobs as school-year or after school jobs (84.2%) whereas the majority of Sample 2 participants were employed full-time (80.1%) and considered their jobs to be core (65.1%) rather than temporary (34.0%). It is possible that the different stages of employment across samples influenced either the way participants responded to the organizational commitment items or the relationships between the personality traits and the organizational commitment components. The student participants in Sample 1 may not have understood the organizational commitment items relative to a true sense of commitment and may not consider their work situation as contributing to their long-term careers. Finally, it is possible that the inconsistent pattern of results for the personality trait-organizational commitment component relationships is due to random chance.

Regardless of the inconsistent findings or the reasons for them, results of the present study do offer some support for a personality-organizational commitment relationship. This relationship is consistent with the present study's interpretation of McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework. Specifically, although equivocal across samples and instruments, the present study supports the proposition that basic tendencies, in the form of personality, are manifested in characteristic adaptations, in the form of organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment as a Mediator of the Personality-OCB Relationship

The final set of hypotheses examined the organizational commitment components as mediators of the personality-OCB relationships. Again, the pattern of results across samples and OCB measures was less clear; however, support was found for the mediating role of organizational commitment overall. Specifically, both affective and normative commitment mediated the relationships between conscientiousness, agreeableness, and extraversion and OCB for some of the measures of OCB. However, the mediation analyses were hampered by the lack significant findings for some of the proposed personality-OCB relationships (i.e., Step 1 of the mediation analyses; emotional stability-OCB in Sample 1) and by the lack of some of the proposed personality-organizational commitment relationships (e.g., Step 2 of the mediation analyses; extraversion-continuance commitment, emotional stability-affective commitment, emotional stability-normative commitment, openness to experience-affective commitment in both samples). Because these direct relationships were not significant, mediation analyses involving them could not be explored.

Although not all hypotheses were supported, the general framework proposed by Motowidlo et al. (1997) was supported, i.e., mediation appears to be the correct arrangement among the variables. Motowidlo et al. suggest that different basic tendencies (i.e., personality traits and cognitive ability) influence OCB- and task-specific characteristic adaptations (i.e., task or contextual habits, skills, and knowledge), which then influence OCB or task performance. I have proposed the same basic arrangement (i.e., basic tendencies-characteristic adaptations-objective biography) and have

maintained that personality is a basic tendency and OCB is an objective biography; however, my argument expands upon that of Motowidlo et al. in that I propose that one of the characteristic adaptations that could mediate the personality-OCB relationship is organizational commitment. Thus, while the arrangement of the framework's components is similar and I have found some level of support for that arrangement, the variables representing the characteristic adaptation in the present study differs from that proposed by Motowidlo et al. Implications of these results for theory will be discussed shortly.

Exploratory Analyses

The exploratory analyses help clarify the influence of the personality and organizational commitment predictors on OCB. The general pattern of results that emerged here indicates that among organizational commitment components, affective commitment influences OCB. However, when the organizational commitment components were individually predicting OCB, both affective and normative commitment were significantly related to OCB across samples and ratings of OCB. Thus, a difference in findings occurred depending on whether the organizational commitment components were examined independently as predictors of OCB or hierarchical regression was used to analyze the combined influence of the organizational commitment components above and beyond the personality variables. It is possible that the lack of significant b-weights is due to the strong correlations between affective and normative commitment (see Tables 3 and 4); because these variables are correlated and share variance, it may be difficult for both to be significant when they are included in the

model simultaneously. It also is possible that affective commitment has a stronger influence on OCB in the present study, as is indicated by its significant effect in the exploratory analyses. This finding is consistent with Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) expectations that discretionary behavior should be most likely to occur under conditions of pure affective commitment and with the finding in the extant literature that affective commitment shows stronger correlations with any specific outcome measure than either normative or continuance commitment alone (Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Herscovitch).

The other general finding from the exploratory analyses indicates that the influence of personality on OCB appears to come from conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. Once again, discrepancies exist between results of the direct relationships and the hierarchical regressions. In the tests of Hypotheses 1a-1d, regarding the personality-OCB direct relationships, conscientiousness was the only trait related to OCB across samples and OCB ratings. Agreeableness and extraversion were positively related to OCB when the OCB rating came from the primary participant in Sample 1 and in Sample 2; no openness to experience-OCB relationship was expected and the only correlation between these variables occurred in Sample 1 when the OCB rating came from the primary participant. One consistency in these findings is that conscientiousness represents a basic tendency that consistently relates to the objective biography of OCB. This statement holds true regardless of sample, rating of OCB (i.e., primary or coworker), personality inventory used, and type of analysis conducted (i.e., direct relationship or hierarchical regression). Thus, it is apparent that, in this study as in past research,

conscientiousness is predictive of OCB (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 1993; Borman et al., 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; King et al., 2005; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Neuman & Kickul, 1998; Organ, 1994b; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). This finding is further consistent with the theoretical proposition that personality is a stronger predictor of OCB than of task performance (e.g., Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1988).

Finally, the general pattern of results from the exploratory analyses indicates that organizational commitment adds more to the prediction of OCB above and beyond personality than personality does above and beyond organizational commitment. This finding is consistent with Organ and McFall's (2004) finding that attitudes are better predictors of OCB than personality traits are. One possible explanation for this finding relates to the proximity of the variables to the behavior, such that organizational commitment is proximal cause while traits are a distal cause of OCB. Thus, because organizational commitment is "closer" to OCB, its influence would be stronger than that of personality.

Theoretical and Methodological Concerns

As discussed in detail previously, several inconsistencies exist both between the findings of the present study and the extant literature and between different sets of findings in the present study. Several reasons exist for this state of equivocalness. First, it is possible that differences across the samples stem from fundamental differences in the methodologies used. As discussed previously, Sample 1 included employed

undergraduate students who completed a paper-and-pencil survey with Goldberg's

(1992) unipolar markers to assess personality, and an OCB measure adapted from

Borman's work (e.g., Borman et al., 2001) that was completed by both the primary

participants and their coworkers to assess the primaries' OCB, which resulted both self

and other reports of the criterion. In contrast, Sample 2 consisted of an online survey

distributed to an older, more stably employed adult sample including Saucier's (2002)

Mini-Modular Markers to assess personality and an abbreviated version of Podsakoff et

al.'s (1990) scale to assess OCB. Both samples answered Meyer et al.'s (1993) measure

of organizational commitment. As such, while the present study attempted to utilize

different samples and different measures of the constructs of interest in order to

demonstrate that relationships were not specific to the measures used, this was not

achieved. It is impossible to determine whether it was differences in samples or

differences in instrumentation that led to the different results across the two studies.

While the results from the two samples differed, the sample weighted correlations (Table

5) provide a clearer picture of the pattern of relationships among the study's variables.

Also relevant to the methodology used, the power levels associated with some analyses

were low. As such, the ability to detect significant relationships when they exist among

the study's variables was restricted in some analyses. The inclusion of a larger sample

size may have led to the finding of a greater number of significant relationships.

Second, McCrae and Costa (1996) included six components in their framework.

In addition to the three examined presently (i.e., basic tendencies, characteristic

adaptations, and objective biography), they include self-concept (feelings of self-identity

or personal worth), external influences (specific and global situations), and dynamic processes (components such as identity formation and information processing that link the other components). It is quite possible that the results of the present study may have been clearer if self-concept and/or external influences had been taken into consideration. Self-concept includes an individual's self-evaluation or self-identity and relates to feelings of personal worth. It is possible that self-concept may influence individuals' propensity to perform OCB. Similar to expectations surrounding the emotional stability-OCB relationship (e.g., King et al., 2005; Krebs, 1970), individuals with a low self-concept may be anxious and preoccupied with their own concerns and thus be less likely to concern themselves with others' problems or issues outside their immediate responsibilities. External influences include specific situations, such as workplace characteristics, and global situations, such as culture. Indeed, some research in the personality literature indicates that, when used to predict organizational outcomes, personality may better be assessed specifically in the work context. By providing a frame-of-reference in which employees can respond to personality inventory items (i.e., the workplace), the predictive validity of personality in organizational settings can be increased (e.g., Hunthausen, Truxillo, Bauer, & Hammer, 2003; Schmit, Ryan, Stierwalt, & Powell, 1995; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). While the present study examined the variables of interest across a multitude of organizations, it may be that individuals in the two samples had different frames-of-reference regarding their responses to the personality inventories. Because the scales included in the survey involved workplace attitudes and behaviors (e.g., organizational commitment, OCB), respondents may have

been in an organizational mindset when completing the survey. However, as discussed previously, participants in Sample 1 may have an organizational frame-of-reference indicative of a job while Sample 2 participants may perceive their work as a career. Additionally, other organizationally- or personally-relevant basic tendencies, such as age or tenure, may have affected responses.

A third set of possibilities relates to the assessment of the predictor variables. First, regarding personality, while the Big Five breaks down the construct of "personality" into five factors, the traits subsumed under this theory may be too broad or general to capture important information about personality (Hough, 1992) or to be predictive of attitudes such as organizational commitment and behaviors such as OCB (Organ & McFall, 2004). It may be useful to conceptualize personality in terms of specific facets that lie within the Big Five traits rather than at the general level of the Big Five (Organ & McFall, 2004). For example, the personality trait conscientiousness encompasses a number of more specific facets (e.g., dutifulness, self-discipline, deliberation) as does agreeableness (e.g., trust, altruism, modesty; Costa, McCrae, & Dye, 1991). Some of these aspects may relate to OCB while others may not.

The second issue regarding the assessment of the predictor variables concerns the measurement of organizational commitment. The present study examined affective, normative, and continuance commitment independently. However, individuals do not experience these components in isolation but rather experience different levels of the three components simultaneously. To account for this, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) introduced the concept of commitment profiles, which represent the standing an

individual has on each of the three commitment components combined. Meyer and Herscovitch argued that the commitment profile is an important determinant of behavior because the three commitment components are very different, and possibly conflicting, cognitions about the organization and because different commitment profiles would lead to different levels of outcome variables. The different commitment profiles, represented by individuals' various levels of each of affective, normative, and continuance commitment, may differentially predict objective biographies such as OCB. For example and as discussed previously, Wasti (2005) found that individuals who were described as highly committed, affective-normative dominant, and affective dominant displayed greater levels of the altruism and loyal boosterism components of OCB and Gellatly et al. (2006) found that the strongest relationship between organizational commitment and OCB occurred when all three components of commitment were high. Thus, the pattern of results in the present study may have been affected by the examination of distinct commitment components rather than of commitment profiles. The exploratory analyses attempted to provide an examination of the simultaneous effect of the commitment components on OCB; however an examination of commitment profiles would provide a more in-depth view of the combined influence of the commitment components on OCB.

Limitations

Several limitations were apparent in the present study. First, Sample 1 consisted of employed undergraduate students. Such individuals are markedly different from the typical employed adult (e.g., they are typically working "jobs" not "careers"). The

inclusion of Sample 2 was an attempt to remedy this issue by including older, more stably employed adults; however, these individuals were contacted by an online survey company. As such, they are likely different from the general working population in that they may be more technologically savvy, spend more time on the internet, and be of a higher socioeconomic status because they can afford access to the internet (Raine, Madden, Boyce, Lenhart, Honigan, & Allen, 2003). Additionally, coworker ratings of OCB were not available for Sample 2. Second, different measures of personality and OCB were used across samples. While this was in an attempt to demonstrate the generalizability of the relationships across measures, it may have been more fruitful to maintain consistency of measures across samples because this study provided an initial examination of some of the relationships of interest (e.g., mediated relationships). While the use of two samples and different measures of OCB and personality across the two is a strength of the present study's design, it also makes it impossible to determine if the different results found across samples and measures were due to the different samples, different measures, or random chance. Also regarding the measures used, as discussed in the introduction of this paper, there is some conceptual overlap among the constructs of interest in this study. For example, while conscientiousness was assessed as a personality trait, it is also often included in conceptualizations of OCB [e.g., Smith et al.'s (1983) and Organ's (1988) dimension of generalized compliance]. As such, confirmatory factor analysis could have been conducted to determine the discriminability of the measures; however, the present study did not have sufficient data points to conduct such analyses.

Third, common method and self-report biases occurred when the Sample 1 OCB data came from the primary participants and in the Sample 2 data. The inclusion of the coworker assessment of OCB in Sample 1 was an attempt to remedy the problems associated with common method bias. However, it is possible that, like the primary participants themselves, coworkers were not the best observers of primary participants' OCB. Indeed, the study would have benefited from the inclusion of a supervisor report of primary participants' OCB. Indeed, multi-source data on all variables of interest would improve the study, as individuals may inflate self-reports (Konovsky & Organ, 1996).

Finally, because a cross-sectional design was utilized, we cannot be completely certain whether OCB was the effect of the predictor variables (e.g., organizational commitment) as expected or if it is the cause of them (Podsakoff et al., 2000). As stated previously, the act of performing OCB may increase the attractiveness of the organization for employees, which may increase their organizational commitment (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Longitudinal designs are needed to fully answer this question.

Future Research

Future research should attempt to account for the issues discussed previously. Regarding the limitations of the present study, future research should include a sample of employed adults contacted via a method other than an internet sampling company in an attempt to be inclusive of individuals who vary in their level of technological savvy and socioeconomic status. Second, sufficient sample sizes should be included in future

research to enable the confirmatory factor analysis of data to occur. Third, to reduce the bias associated with self-reports of OCB as well as common method bias, future research should include other ratings of OCB, such as supervisor or customer ratings. Additionally, to determine the order in which organizational commitment and OCB occur, longitudinal data should be collected. For example, personality traits could be assessed during the selection phase. Once the employee has become socialized into the organization, organizational commitment can be assessed. Finally, during an employee's performance evaluation, OCB ratings can be taken. If significant relationships were found, such a pattern of data collection would demonstrate that organizational commitment does, indeed, precede OCB.

Future research also is needed to remedy the theoretical issues apparent in the present study. First, research should examine rather than ignore the situation. Personality instruments should include frame-of-reference directions instructing the respondent to consider the workplace when responding to the items included. Additionally, characteristics of workplaces should be assessed and included in the analyses so that the impact of the situation can be better understood. Further, personality traits should be broken down further into facets of the Big Five traits rather than examined at the level of the Big Five. This step may enable a better understanding of the role of personality in organizational commitment and/or OCB. Finally, it is important to look at commitment profiles.

Implications

The present results have important practical implications. Borman's research (e.g., Borman, 2004; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; 1997; Borman & Penner, 2001) indicates that OCB is related to overall organizational effectiveness. As such, knowledge regarding the personality characteristics that are related to the performance of OCB is useful at the selection stage of employment, enabling organizations to gauge applicants' potential for OCB for positions in which OCB is important (Borman, 2004). For example, according to the results of the present study, individuals scoring high on measures of conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, and, to a lesser extent, emotional stability (as results concerning this variable were less consistent), should be selected for jobs in which OCB is important. Indeed, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) note that research demonstrating a link between personality traits and specific criteria (such as OCB) is important to research on personnel selection. Additionally, once employees are hired, supervisors who know why employees engage in OCB can manipulate the work environment to increase its occurrence (Hogan et al., 1998). For example, work spaces can be situated to increase socialization among employees, such as by stationing employees in a "bullpen" environment rather than in individual offices, because extraversion is related to OCB. Finally, Borman (e.g., Borman, 2004; Borman & Penner, 2001) discusses four future organizationally-relevant trends that highlight the importance of OCB: 1) competition at a global level, 2) organizations structuring work around teams rather than individual employees, 3) trends toward downsizing, and 4) a focus on customer service.

In conclusion, the present study added to the literature examining the antecedents to an important organizational variable, namely OCB. Direct relationships between personality traits and organizational commitment components were found, as were mediated relationships. As such, support was found for both McCrae and Costa's (1996) framework and Motowidlo et al.'s (1997) theory regarding the role of individual differences in task performance and OCB.

REFERENCES

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63,* 1-18.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49*, 252-276.

Allen, T. D., & Rush, M. C. (1998). The effects of organizational citizenship behavior on performance judgments: A field study and a laboratory experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 247-260.

Arvey, R. D., Bouchard, T. J., Segal, N. L., & Abraham, L. M. (1989). Job satisfaction: Environmental and genetic components. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 187-192.

Ashton, M. C., & Lee, K. (2001). A theoretical basis for the major dimensions of personality. *European Journal of Personality, 15,* 327-353.

Barnard, C. (1938). *The functions of the executive.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51,* 1173-1182.

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job

performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44,* 1-26.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Gupta, R. (2003). Meta-analysis of the relationship

between the five-factor model of personality and Holland's occupational types.

Personnel Psychology, 56, 45-74.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Strauss, J. P. (1993). Conscientiousness and

performance of sales representatives: Test of the mediating effects of goal setting.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 715-722.

Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., Neubert, M. J., & Mount, M. K. (1998). Relating member

abilty and personality to work-team processes and team effectiveness. *Journal of

Applied Psychology, 83,* 377-391.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The

relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." *Academy of Management

Journal, 26,* 587-595.

Becker, H. S. (1960). Notes on the concepts of commitment. *American Journal of

Sociology, 66,* 40-53.

Bergman, M. E. (2006). The relationship between affective and normative commitment:

Review and research agenda. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27,* 645-663.

Bergman, M. E., Benzer, J. K., & Henning, J. B. (2009). The role of individual

differences as contributors to the development of commitment. In H. J. Klein, T.

E. Becker, & J. P. Meyer (Eds.), *Commitment in organizations: Accumulated*

wisdom and new directions (pp. 217-252). New York: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Bond, M. H., Nakazato, H., & Shiraishi, D. (1975). Universality and distinctiveness in dimensions of Japanese person perception. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 6,* 346-357.

Borman, W. C. (2004). The concept of organizational citizenship. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 13,* 238-241.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt, & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp. 71-98). San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance, 10,* 99-109.

Borman, W. C., Penner, L. A. (2001). Citizenship performance: Its nature, antecedents, and motives. In B. W. Roberts & R. Hogan (Eds.), *Personality psychology in the workplace* (pp. 45-61). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Borman, W. C., Penner, L. A., Allen, T. D., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2001). Personality predictors of citizenship performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 9,* 54-69.

Borman, W. C., White, L. A., & Dorsey, D. W. (1995). Effects of ratee task performance and interpersonal factors on supervisor and peer performance ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80,* 168-177.

Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review, 11,* 710-725.

Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 19,* 533-546.

Campbell, J. P. (1990). An overview of the army selection and classification project (Project A). *Personnel Psychology, 43,* 231-239.

Card, J. J. (1978). Differences in the demographic and sociopsychological profile of ROTC vs. non-ROTC students. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 11,* 196-215.

Chen, X., Hui, C., & Sego, D. J. (1998). The role of organizational citizenship behavior in turnover: Conceptualization and preliminary tests of key hypotheses. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 922-931.

Chen, Z. X., & Francesco, A. M. (2003). The relationship between the three components of commitment and employee performance in China. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62,* 490-510.

Cheng, Y., & Stockdale, M. S. (2003). The validity of the three-component model of organizational commitment in a Chinese context. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 62,* 465-489.

Cleveland, J. N., Murphy, K. R., & Williams, R. E. (1989). Multiple uses of performance appraisal: Prevalence and correlates. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 130-135.

Cohen, A. (1996). On the discrimanant validity of the Meyer and Allen measure of organizational commitment: How does it fit with the work commitment construct? *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 56,* 494-503.

Coleman, V. I., & Borman, W. C. (2000). Investigating the underlying structure of the citizenship performance domain. *Human Resource Management Review, 10,* 25-44.

Comeau, D. J., & Griffith, R. L. (2005). Structural interdependence, personality, and organizational citizenship behavior: An examination of person-environment interaction. *Personnel Review, 34,* 310-330.

Conway, J. M. (1996). Additional construct validity evidence for the task-contextual performance distinction. *Human Performance, 9,* 309-329.

Conway, J. M. (1999). Distinguishing contextual performance from task performance for managerial jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84,* 3-13.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1986). Personality stability and its implications for clinical psychology. *Clinical Psychology Review, 6,* 407-423.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1988). Personality in adulthood: A six-year longitudinal study of self-reports and spouse ratings on the NEO Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54,* 853-863.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1991). The NEO Personality Inventory: Using the Five-Factor Model in counseling. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 69,* 367-372.

Costa, P. T. Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO Personality Inventory

(NEO PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Costa, P. T. Jr., & McCrae, R. R., & Dye, D. A. (1991). Facet scales for agreeableness and conscientiousness: A revision of the NEO Personality Inventory. *Personality and Individual Differences, 12,* 887-898.

Cropanzano, R., James, K., & Konovsky, M. A. (1993). Dispositional affectivity as a predictor of work attitudes and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14,* 595-606.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90,* 1241-1255.

Davis-Blake, A., & Pfeffer, J. (1989). Just a mirage: The search for dispositional effects on organizational research. *Academy of Management Review, 14,* 385-400.

Deckop, J. R., Mangel, R., & Cirka, C. C. (1999). Getting more than you pay for: Organizational citizenship behavior and pay-for-performance plans. *Academy of Management Journal, 42,* 420-428.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*, 417-440.

Digman, J. M., & Takemoto-Chock, N. K. (1981). Factors in the natural language of personality: Re-analysis, comparison, and interpretation of six major studies. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 16*, 149-170.

Dubin, R., Champoux, J. E., & Porter, L. W. (1975). Central life interests and

organizational commitment of blue-collar and clerical workers. *Administrative*

Science Quarterly, 20, 411-421.

Dunham, R. B., Grube, J. A., & Castaneda, M. B. (1994). Organizational commitment:

The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79,* 370-

380.

Eaves, L., & Eysenck, H. (1975). The nature of extraversion: A genetical analysis.

Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 101-112.

Engel, G., Olson, K. R., & Patrick, C. (2002). The personality of love: Fundamental

motives and traits related to components of love. *Personality and Individual*

Differences, 32, 839-853.

Erdheim, J., Wang, M., & Zickar, M. J. (2006). Linking the Big Five personality

constructs to organizational commitment. *Personality and Individual Differences,*

41, 959-970.

Erez, A., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluation to goal setting,

motivation, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 1270-1279.

Feather, N. T., & Rauter, K. A. (2004). Organizational citizenship behaviours in relation

to job status, job insecurity, organizational commitment and identification, job

satisfaction, and work values. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational*

Psychology, 77, 81-94.

Ferris, G. R., Judge, T. A., Rowland, K. M., & Fitzgibbons, D. E. (1994). Subordinate

influence and the performance evaluation process: Test of a model.

Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 58, 101-135.

Fishbein, M. (Ed.) (1967). *Readings in attitude theory and measurement*. Oxford,

England: Wiley.

Gellatly, I. R., Meyer, J. P., & Luchak, A. A. (2006). Combined effects of the three

commitment components on focal and discretionary behaviors: A test of Meyer

and Herscovitch's propositions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 69,* 331-345.

George, J. M. (1992). The role of personality in organizational life: Issues and evidence.

Journal of Management, 18, 185-213.

George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behaivor, sales

performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal

of Applied Psychology, 75,* 698-709.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of

the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. *Psychological

Bulletin, 112,* 310-329.

Goldberg, L. R. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals

in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social

psychology* (pp. 141-165). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure.

Psychological Assessment, 4, 26-42.

Goodale, J. G. (1973). Effects of personal background and training on work values of the hard-core unemployed. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 57,* 1-9.

Graziano, W. G., & Eisenberg, N. (1997). Agreeableness: A dimension of personality. In R. Hogan, J. A. Johnson, & S. R. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 795-824). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Hackett, R. D., Bycio, P., & Hausdorf, P. A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) 3-component model of organizational commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79,* 15-23.

Hall, D. T., & Schneider, B. (1972). Correlates of organizational identification as a function of career pattern and organizational type. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 17,* 340-350.

Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 15,* 176-190.

Hochwarter, W. A., Perrewé, P. L., Ferris, G. R., & Guercio, R. (1999). Commitment as an antidote to the tension and turnover consequences of organizational politics. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 55,* 277-297.

Hoffman, B. J., Blair, C. A., Meriac, J. P., & Woehr, D. J. (2007). Expanding the criterion domain? A quantitative review of the OCB literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 555-566.

Hogan, J., Rybicki, S. L., Motowidlo, S. J., & Borman, W. C. (1998). Relations between contextual performance, personality, and occupational advancement. *Human Performance, 11,* 189-207.

Hollenbeck, J. R., Klein, H. J., O'Leary, A. M., & Wright, P. M. (1989). Investigation of the construct validity of a self-report measure of goal commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 951-956.

Hough, L. M. (1992). The "Big Five" personality variables—construct confusion: Description versus prediction. *Human Performance, 5,* 139-155.

Hulin, C. L., & Blood, M. R. (1968). Job enlargement, individual differences, and worker responses. *Psychological Bulletin, 69,* 41-55.

Hunter, J. E. (1986). Cognitive ability, cognitive aptitude, job knowledge, and job performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 29,* 340-362.

Hunter, J. E., & Schmidt, F. L. (1996). Intelligence and job performance: Economic and social implications. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 2,* 447-472.

Hunthausen, J. M., Truxillo, D. M., Bauer, T. N., & Hammer, L. B. (2003). A field study of frame-of-reference effects on personality test validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88,* 545-551.

Hurtz, G. M., & Donovan, J. J. (2000). Personality and job performance: The Big Five revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85,* 869-879.

Ilgen, D. R., & Hollenbeck, J. R. (1991). The structure of work: Job design and roles. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol. 2* (2nd ed., pp. 165-207). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Ilies, R., Scott, B. A., & Judge, T. A. (2006). The interactive effects of personal traits and experienced states on intraindividual patterns of citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, 49,* 561-575.

John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five Trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (2nd ed., pp. 102-138). New York: Guilford Press.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 17-34.

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science, 92,* 131-146.

Kidron, A. (1978). Work values and organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal, 21,* 239-247.

King, E. B., George, J. M., & Hebl, M. R. (2005). Linking personality to helping behaviors at work: An interactional perspective. *Journal of Personality, 73,* 585-607.

Ko, J., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1997). Assessment of Meyer and Allen's three-component model of organizational commitment in South Korea. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*, 961-973.

Koch, J. L. (1974). Need environment congruity and self-investment in organizational roles. *Sociology of Work and Occupations, 1,* 175-196.

Konovsky, M. A., & Organ, D. W. (1996). Dispositional and contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17,* 253-266.

Koys, D. J. (2001). The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology, 54,* 101-114.

Krebs, D. L. (1970). Altruism: An examination of the concept and a review of the literature. *Psychological Bulletin, 73,* 258-302.

Leiva, P. I., Payne, S. C., Huffman, A. H., Watrous, K. M., Chalkley, K. M., & Webber, S. S. (2005). *Evidence of cross-situational consistency for the relationship between personality and commitment.* Unpublished manuscript.

LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology,87,* 52-65.

LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (2001). Voice and cooperative behavior as contrasting forms of contextual performance: Evidence of differential relationships with Big Five personality characteristics and cognitive ability. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 326-336.

Lubinski, D. (2000). Scientific and social significance of assessing individual differences: "Sinking shafts at a few critical points." *Annual Review of Psychology, 51,* 405-444.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50,* 123-150.

Maertz, C. P., Jr., & Campion, M. A. (2004). Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory. *Academy of Management Journal, 47,* 566-582.

Maertz, C. P., Jr., & Griffeth, R. W. (2004). Eight motivational forces and voluntary turnover: A theoretical synthesis with implications for research. *Journal of Management, 30,* 667-683.

March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations.* Oxford, England: Wiley.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52,* 81-90.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: Theoretical contexts for the five-factor model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 51-87). New York: Guilford Press.

McManus, M. A., & Kelly, M. L. (1999). Personality measures and biodata: Evidence regarding their incremental predictive value in the life insurance industry. *Personnel Psychology, 52,* 137-148.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the "side bet theory" of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 69,* 372-378.

Meyer, J. P, & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resources Management Review, 1,* 61-89.

Meyer, J. P, & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Gellatly, I. R. (1990). Affective and continuance commitment to the organization: Evaluation of measures and analysis of concurrent and time-lagged relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75,* 710-720.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*, 538-551.

Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: A conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89,* 991-1007.

Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resources Management Review, 11,* 299-326.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of

antecedents, correlates, and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 61,* 20-52.

Miller, R. L., Griffin, M. A., & Hart, P. M. (1999). Personality and organizational health: The role of conscientiousness. *Work and Stress, 13,* 7-19.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76,* 845-855.

Moorman, R. H., Niehoff, B. P., & Organ, D. W. (1993). Treating employees fairly and organizational citizenship behavior: Sorting the effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 6,* 209-225.

Morris, J. H., & Sherman, J. D. (1981). Generalizability of an organizational commitment model. *Academy of Management Journal, 24,* 512-526.

Motowidlo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmit, M. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance, 10,* 71-83.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79,* 475-480.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Organizational linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover.* San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Mroczek, D. K.,&Spiro, A. III. (2003). Modeling intraindividual change in personality traits: Findings from the Normative Aging Study. *Journals of Gerontology B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences, 58,* 153–165.

Murphy, K. R. (1996). Individual differences and behavior in organizations: Much more than g. In K. R. Murphy (Ed.), *Individual differences and behavior in organizations* (pp. 3-30). Oxford, England: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Naquin, S. S., & Holton, E. F., III. (2002). The effects of personality, affectivity, and work commitment on motivation to improve work through learning. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 13,* 357-376.

Neuman, G. A., & Kickul, J. R. (1998). Organizational citizenship behaviors: Achievement orientation and personality. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 13,* 263-279.

O'Connell, M. S., Doverspike, D., Norris-Watts, C., Hattrup, K. (2001). Predictors of organizational citizenship behavior among Mexican retail salespeople. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 9,* 272-280.

O'Reilly, C. A., III, & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71,* 492-499.

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

Organ, D. W. (1994a). Organizational citizenship behavior and the good soldier. In M. G. Rumsey, C. B. Walker, and J. H. Harris (Eds.), *Personnel selection and classification* (pp. 53-67). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Organ, D. W. (1994b). Personality and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Management, 20,* 465-478.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance, 10,* 85-97.

Organ, D. W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 157-164.

Organ, D. W., & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Social Psychology, 135,* 339-350.

Organ, D. W., & McFall, J. B. (2004). Personality and citizenship behavior in organizations. In B. Schneider & B. Smith (Eds.), *Personality and organizations* (pp. 291-314). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 48,* 775-802.

Orr, J. M., Sackett, P. R., & Mercer, M. (1989). The role of prescribed and nonprescribed behaviors in estimating the dollar value of performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74,* 34-40.

Penner, L. A., Fritzsche, B. A., Craige, J. P., & Freifeld, T. S. (1995). Measuring the prosocial personality. In J. N. Butcher & Spielberger, C. D. (Eds.), *Advances in*

personality assessment, Vol. 10 (pp. 147-163). New York: Taylor and Francis, Inc.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior and sales unit effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research, 31,* 351-363.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Impact of organizational citizenship behavior on organizational performance: A review and suggestions for future research. *Human Performance, 10,* 133-151.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Meta-analysis of the relationships between Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership and employee job attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81,* 380-399.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly, 1,* 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26,* 513-563.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 59,* 603-609.

Rabinowitz, S., & Hall, D. T. (1977). Organizational research on job involvement. *Psychological Bulletin, 84,* 265-288.

Raine, L., Madden, M., Boyce, A., Lenhart, A., Honigan, J., & Allen, K. (2003). *The ever-shifting Internet population: A new look at Internet access and the digital divide.* Pew Internet & American Life Project. Retrieved April 23, 2010 from http://www.pewinternet.org/Reports/2003/The-EverShifting-Internet-Population-A-new-look-at-Internet-access-and-the-digital-divide/02-Who-is-not-online/03-Several-demographic-factors-are-strong-predictors-of-Internet-use.aspx?r=1.

Riketta, M. (2002). Attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23,* 257-266.

Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86,* 1306-1314.

Roberts, B. W., & Mroczek, D. (2008). Personality trait change in adulthood. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 17,* 31-35.

Roberts, B. W., Walton, K., & Viechtbauer, W. (2006). Patterns of mean-level change in personality traits across the life course: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 132,* 1–25.

Roethlisberger, F. J., & Dickson, W. J. (1939). *Management and the worker: An account of a research program conducted by the Western Electric Comapny, Hawthrone Works, Chicago.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Rotondi, T. (1976). Identification, personality needs, and managerial position. *Human Relations, 29,* 507-515.

Rotundo, M., & Sackett, P. R. (2002). The relative importance of task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance to global ratings of job performance: A policy-capturing approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 66-80.

Saucier, G. (2002). Orthogonal markers for orthogonal factors: The case of the Big Five. *Journal of Research in Personality, 36,* 1-31.

Schmidt, F. L., Ones, D. S., & Hunter, J. E. (1992). Personnel selection. *Annual Review of Psychology, 43,* 627-670.

Schmit, M. J., Ryan, A. M., Stierwalt, S. L., & Powell, A. B. (1995). Frame-of-reference effects on personality scale scores and criterion-related validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 80,* 607–620.

Schnake, M. (1991). Organizational citizenship: A review, proposed model, and research agenda. *Human Relations, 44,* 735-759.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology, 40,* 437-453.

Small, E. E., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2006). The impact of contextual self-ratings and observer ratings of personality on the personality-performance relationship. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36,* 297-320.

Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68,* 653-663.

Staw, B. M., Bell, N. E., & Clausen, J. A. (1986). The dispositional approach to job attitudes: A lifetime longitudinal test. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 31,* 56-77.

Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional

 approach to job attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 70,* 469-480.

Steel, R. P., & Rentsch, J. R. (1997). The dispositional model of job attitudes revisited:

 Findings of a 10-year study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82,* 873-879.

Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment.

 Administrative Science Quarterly, 22, 46-56.

Steers, R. M., & Spencer, D. G., (1977). The role of achievement motivation in job

 design. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62,* 472-479.

Sternberg, R. J. (1986). A triangular theory of love. *Psychological Bulletin, 93,* 119-138.

Sternberg, R. J. (1998). *Cupid's arrow: The course of love through time*. London:

 Cambridge Unviversity Press.

Thoresen, C. J., Kaplan, S. A., Barsky, A. P., Warren, C. R., & de Chermont, K. (2003).

 The affective underpinnings of job perceptions and attitudes: A meta-analytic

 review and integration. *Psychological Bulletin, 129*, 914-945.

Turnipseed, D. L. (2003). Hardy personality: A potential link with organizational

 citizenship behavior. *Psychological Reports, 93,* 529-543.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & McLean Parks, J. (1995). Extra-role behaviors: In

 pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). In L.

 L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol.

 17, pp. 215-285). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Van Scotter, J. R. (2000). Relationships of task performance and contextual performance with turnover, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. *Human Resource Management Review, 10,* 79-95.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81,* 525-531.

Wagner, S. L., & Rush, M. C. (2000). Altruistic organizational citizenship behavior: Context, disposition, and age. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 140,* 379-391.

Wanberg, C. R., Kanfer, R., & Banas, J. T. (2000). Predictors and outcomes of networking intensity among unemployed job seekers. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85,* 491-503.

Wanous, J. P. (1992). *Organizational entry: Recruitment, selection, orientation, and socialization of newcomers* (2nd ed.). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Wanous, J. P., Poland, T. D., Premack, S. L., & Davis, K. S. (1992). The effects of met expectations on newcomer attitudes and behaviors: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 77,* 288-297.

Wasti, S.A. (2003). The influence of cultural values on antecedents of organisational commitment: An individual level analysis. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 52*, 533-554.

Wasti, S. A. (2005). Commitment profiles: Combinations of organizational commitment forms and job outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67,* 290-308.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1992). On traits and temperament: General and specific factors of emotional experience and their relation to the five factor model. *Journal of Personality, 60,* 441-476.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1997). Extraversion and its positive emotional core. In R. Hogan, J. J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 767-793). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Harkness, A. R. (1994). Structures of personality and their relevance to psychopathology. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 103,* 18-31.

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54,* 1063-1070.

Weiner, Y. (1982). Commitment in organizations: A normative view. *Academy of Management Review, 3,* 418-428.

Wiggins, J. S. (1991). Agency and communion as conceptual coordinates for the understanding and measurement of interpersonal behavior. In D. Cicchetti & W. M. Grove (Eds.), *Thinking clearly about psychology: Essays in honor of Paul E. Meehl* (pp. 89-113). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota Press.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17,* 601-617.

Zimmerman, R. D. (2008). Understanding the impact of personality traits on individuals'

    turnover decisions: A meta-analytic path model. *Personnel Psychology, 61,* 309-

    348.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE 1 OCB ITEMS

Adapted from Borman's work (e.g., Borman et al., 2001)

This next set of questions ask you how you feel about your **CURRENT**

OCCUPATION, the general class of jobs that are similar to yours (e.g., teacher,

waitress, mechanic, accountant, engineer). Please read each statement carefully and

indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each.

Response Scale:

0-never

1-once a month

2-2 or 3 times a month

3-once a week

4-2 or 3 times a week

5-once a day

6-more than once a day

Items:

1. Persisted with enthusiasm on your job

2. Assisted coworkers in personal matters

3. Carried out tasks not part of your job

4. Helped orient new people

5. Attended and participated in group activities and meetings

6. Spoke positively of your organization to others

7. Cleaned up a mess in your own or a common area

8. Cooperated with other employees

9. Followed your organization's rules and procedures

10. Conscientiously followed my supervisors' instructions

11. Exerted extra effort to provide coworkers with needed information

12. Helped other organizational members

13. Engaged in behavior that benefited individuals in the organization

14. Kept others in the organization informed about upcoming events, activities, or actions

15. Engaged responsibly in meetings and group activities

16. Demonstrated allegiance to the organization

17. Promoted and defended the organization

18. Endorsed, supported, or defended organizational objectives

19. Demonstrated respect for organizational rules and policies

20. Suggested procedural, administrative, or organizational improvements

21. Worked hard with extra effort

22. Engaged in self-development to improve your effectiveness

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE 1 PERSONALITY ITEMS

From Goldberg (1992)

Please read the following list of adjectives and indicate how accurately they describe <u>YOU AS YOU ARE NOW</u>, not how you wish to be or how others see you. Describe yourself as how you are most often.

Response Scale: *-reverse coded

1-very inaccurate

2-somewhat inaccurate

3-somewhat accurate

4-very accurate

Conscientiousness Items:

1. Careful

2. * Careless

3. Conscientious

4. * Disorganized

5. Efficient

6. * Haphazard

7. * Impractical

8. * Inconsistent

9. * Inefficient

10. Neat

11. * Negligent

12. Organized

13. Practical

14. Prompt

15. * Sloppy

16. Steady

17. Systematic

18. Thorough

19. * Undependable

20. * Unsystematic

Agreeableness Items:

1. Agreeable
2. * Cold
3. Considerate
4. Cooperative
5. * Demanding
6. * Distrustful
7. Generous
8. * Harsh
9. Helpful
10. Kind
11. Pleasant
12. * Rude
13. * Selfish
14. Sympathetic
15. Trustful
16. * Uncharitable
17. * Uncooperative
18. * Unkind
19. * Unsympathetic
20. Warm

Extraversion Items:

1. Active
2. Assertive
3. * Bashful
4. Bold
5. Daring
6. Energetic
7. Extraverted
8. * Inhibited
9. * Introverted
10. * Quiet
11. * Reserved
12. * Shy
13. Talkative
14. * Timid
15. * Unadventurous
16. Unrestrained
17. *Untalkative
18. Verbal
19. Vigorous
20. * Withdrawn

Emotional Stability Items:

1. * Anxious
2. * Emotional
3. * Envious
4. * Fearful
5. * Fretful
6. * High-strung
7. Imperturbable
8. * Insecure
9. * Irritable
10. * Jealous
11. * Moody
12. * Nervous
13. Relaxed
14. * Self-pitying
15. * Temperamental
16. * Touchy
17. Undemanding
18. Unemotional
19. Unenvious
20. Unexcitable

Openness to Experience Items:

1. Artistic
2. Bright
3. Complex
4. Creative
5. Deep
6. Imaginative
7. * Imperceptive
8. Innovative
9. Intellectual
10. Introspective
11. Philosophical
12. * Shallow
13. * Simple
14. * Uncreative
15. * Unimaginative
16. * Uninquisitive
17. *Unintellectual
18. * Unintelligent
19. * Unreflective
20. * Unsophisticated

APPENDIX C

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT ITEMS

From Meyer and Allen (1991; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993)

Used in both samples

The following items ask how you feel about the **<u>ORGANIZATION</u>** you work for.

Please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you agree or

disagree with each.

Response Scale:

1-strongly disagree

2-disagree

3-neutral

4-agree

5-strongly agree

*-reverse coded

Affective Commitment Items:

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

3. *I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.

4. *I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.

5. *I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.

6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Normative Commitment Items:

1. *I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.

2. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

3. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

4. This organization deserves my loyalty.

5. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

6. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Continuance Commitment Items:

1. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided that I wanted to leave my organization now.

4. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

5. *If I had not already put so much into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.

6. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE 2 OCB ITEMS

Podsakoff et al. (1990)

The following items ask about your behavior at work. Please read each statement and

indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each.

Response Scale:

1-strongly disagree

2-moderately disagree

3-slightly disagree

4-neither disagree nor agree

5-slightly agree

6-moderately agree

7-strongly agree

*-reverse coded

Altruism Items:

1. I help others who have been absent.

2. I willingly help others who have work related problems.

3. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.

Conscientiousness Items:

1. My attendance at work is above the norm.

2. I do not take extra breaks.

3. I am one of the most conscientious employees at my organization.

Sportsmanship Items:

1. *I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.

2. *I tend to focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.

3. *I tend to made "mountains out of molehills."

Courtesy Items:

1. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.

2. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people's jobs.

3. I consider the impact of my actions on coworkers.

Civic Virtue Items:

1. I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.

2. I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.

3. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE 2 PERSONALITY ITEMS

Saucier (2002)

Please use the following list of common human traits to describe yourself as accurately as possible. Describe yourself as you see yourself at the present time, not as you wish to be in the future. Describe yourself as you are generally or typically, as compared with other pesons you know of the same sex and of roughly the same age.

Response Scale:

1-very inaccurate

2-moderately inaccurate

3-neither accurate nor inaccurate

4-moderately accurate

5-very accurate

*-reverse coded

Conscientiousness Items:

1. * Absent-minded
2. Cautious
3. *Disorganized
4. Efficient
5. *Indecisive
6. Meticulous
7. Organized
8. Perfectionistic

Agreeableness Items:

1. *Cold
2. *Critical
3. *Demanding
4. Harsh
5. Kind
6. Sentimental
7. Sympathetic
8. Tolerant

Extraversion Items:

1. Assertive
2. Playful
3. *Quiet
4. *Reserved
5. *Shy
6. Sociable
7. Talkative
8. *Withdrawn

Emotional Stability Items:

1. *Anxious
2. *Emotional
3. *Fearful
4. *Fretful
5. *High-strung
6. *Nervous
7. Unenvious
8. Unexcitable

Openness to Experience Items:

1. Complex
2. *Conventional
3. Intellectual
4. Nonconforming
5. Philosophical
6. Unconventional
7. *Unintellectual
8. *Unreflective

VITA

Kristen Michelle Watrous-Rodriguez
Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, St. Mary's University
One Camino Santa Maria, San Antonio, TX 78228
kwatrous@stmarytx.edu

Education:
Ph.D., Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Texas A&M University, 2010
M.S., Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Texas A&M University, 2004
B.A., Psychology, The University of Houston, 1999

Publications:
Bergman, M. E., Watrous-Rodriguez, K. M., & Chalkley, K. M. (2008). Identity and language: Contributions to and consequences of speaking Spanish in the workplace. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 30,* 40-68.

Huffman, A. H., Watrous-Rodriguez, K. M., Henning, J. B., & Berry, J. (2009). "Working" through environmental issues: The role of the I-O psychologist. *The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist, 47,* 27-36.

Huffman, A. H., Watrous-Rodriguez, K. M., & King, E. B. (2008). Supporting a diverse workforce: What type of support is most meaningful for lesbian and gay employees? *Human Resource Management, 47,* 237-253.

Payne, S. C., Youngcourt, S. S., & Watrous, K. M. (2006). Portrayals of F. W. Taylor across textbooks. *Journal of Management History, 12,* 385-407.

Samuelson, C. D. & Watrous-Rodriguez, K. M. (2010). Group discussion and cooperation in social dilemmas: Does the medium matter? In R.M. Kramer, M. Bazerman, & A. Tenbrunsel (Eds.), *Social decision making: Social dilemmas, social values, and ethical judgments.* New York: Psychology Press.

Watrous, K. M., Huffman, A. H., & Pritchard, R. D. (2006). When coworkers and managers quit: The effects of turnover and shared values on performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology.*

Recent Conference Presentations:
Henning, J., Jarrett, S., Glaze, R., Huffman, A., & Watrous-Rodriguez, K. M. (2010). *Boundary management strategies and work-family balance.* Poster session presented at the annual conference for the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Atlanta, GA.

Watrous, K. M., Huffman, A. H., Henning, J. B., Berry, J. L. (2009). *Our workplace—our world: I-O psychology and sustainability.* In A. H. Huffman (Chair), "Working" through environmental issues: The role of the I-O psychologist. Paper presented at the annual conference for the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.