

META-ANALYTIC EVIDENCE FOR THE INCREASING IMPORTANCE OF
INTERPERSONALLY-ORIENTED BEHAVIORS ACROSS DECADES: THE CASE OF
SUPPORT, CONSIDERATE LEADERSHIP, AND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

by

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(Under the Direction of BRIAN J. HOFFMAN)

ABSTRACT

This study proposes that interpersonally-oriented behaviors will play an increasingly pivotal role in workers' evaluations of their satisfaction with their work and supervisors' evaluations of their employees' task performance. Three separate meta-analyses are used to examine the moderating effect of year on the relationship between interpersonally-oriented behaviors (social support, considerate leader behaviors, and individualized consideration leader behaviors) and satisfaction, and a fourth meta-analysis explores the moderating effect of year on the relationship between supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior and ratings of task performance. The relationships between more task-oriented work variables (skill variety, initiating structure, and intellectual stimulation) and satisfaction were examined to ensure that any observed differences are due to interpersonally-oriented behaviors and not a general increase in the strength of relationships. Our results suggest an increase in the social support-job satisfaction relationship in more recent years but do not suggest the same for the other three interpersonally-oriented behaviors.

INDEX WORDS: Social Support, Individualized Consideration, OCB,
Changing Nature of Work, Satisfaction

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my fiancé and biggest fan, Ben, for providing me with support and encouragement during my first few years of graduate school. Thank you for always believing in me. It means so much.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Rapid technological advances (Cascio & Montealegre, 2016), an increasingly competitive market (Howard, 1995; National Academy of Sciences, 1999), and associated changes in occupations are proposed to have fundamentally changed the modern workplace (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). The present-day knowledge economy requires an intelligent and educated workforce that can work together to solve complex problems (Marginson, Murphy, & Peters, 2010; Peters, Marginson, & Murphy, 2009). Flattening hierarchies (Toffler, 1973) and team-based projects have led to an increased prevalence of interdependent work while also granting increased decision autonomy (Wood, 2011). At the same time, these changes have placed substantial demands on employees, requiring employees to do more with less. Increasing levels of industry competition require doing more with fewer resources, placing increased demands on employees (Wood, 2014). Although limited, available evidence supports proposed changes, with evidence supporting increases in interdependence, skill variety, and demands (Wood, 2014).

On the basis of an increasingly interdependent, complex, and demanding work context, researchers have proposed numerous changes in the relative efficacy of various management strategies and behaviors (Fried, Grant, Levi, Hadani, & Slowik, 2007; Fried, Levi, & Laurence, 2008; Morgeson & Campion, 2003). From this perspective, to the extent that the nature of work itself has changed, it is possibly necessary to change common management practices (Wood, 2011). Indeed, management research routinely recommends changing common management

practices to optimize their effectiveness for the modern workforce (Benson, Finegold, & Mohrman, 2004).

A common proposition tends to be that interpersonally-oriented behaviors were increasingly important in recent years (Grant, 2007; Grant, Fried, Parker, & Frese, 2010; Maslow, 1973; Molinsky & Margolis, 2005; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). This is based on two primary pieces of rationale. First, in a workplace that requires employee cooperation to complete tasks, interpersonally-oriented behaviors are expected to be increasingly satisfying to workers and increasingly associated with supervisor evaluations of task performance. Second, in a more demanding workplace, workers are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion and work interfering with family (Bakker, Demerouti, & Dollard, 2008), making interpersonally-oriented supervisors and coworkers likely to serve an increasingly important role in employee satisfaction. Yet, empirical research has not yet examined how, if at all, the importance of common management approaches involving interpersonally-oriented behaviors has changed.

On the basis of changes in work context and in particular the increases in work interdependence, complexity, and demands, this study offers the overarching proposition that interpersonally-oriented behaviors have taken on increasing importance in employee satisfaction and performance (Harrison & Wagner, 2015). We explore this concept using four meta-analyses that treat year as a moderator of the relationships between features of the environment and individual perceptions of the environment. We provide the first empirical analysis of this proposition using three meta-analyses that examine whether the relationship between different forms of supervisor and coworker interpersonally-oriented behaviors are more strongly associated with employee satisfaction in recent years. Our fourth meta-analysis examines whether supervisors evaluate interpersonally-oriented performance as more strongly associated

with supervisor evaluations of task performance. In the first meta-analysis, changes in the relationship between social support and job satisfaction are examined. In the second meta-analysis, changes in the relationship between leader consideration behaviors and job satisfaction are explored. In the third meta-analysis, changes in the relationship between individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership are examined. In the fourth meta-analysis, changes in the relationship between supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and task performance are explored. In each meta-analysis, the role of changes in the gender makeup of organizations and occupational skill are also examined as control variables. Together, these meta-analyses provide among the first empirical evidence of whether interpersonally-oriented behaviors are more important to employee satisfaction and whether interpersonally oriented behaviors are more strongly associated with supervisor evaluations of employee task performance in more recent years.

We focus on these four different constructs of interpersonally-oriented behaviors for four reasons. First, each form of interpersonally-oriented behavior is evaluated with reference to coworkers at different hierarchical levels, with peers and supervisors the typical referents for support, supervisors the referents for ratings of consideration and individualized consideration, and direct reports the referents for ratings of organizational citizenship behaviors. Second, these four constructs have literature bases dating back from at least the 1980's, providing an adequate time span to examine time-based changes. Third, these forms of interpersonally-oriented behavior have received substantial research attention and thus are suitable candidates for meta-analysis. Thus, these constructs allow us to explore different hierarchical relationships, allowing for an analysis of the changing role of interpersonally-oriented behaviors across different types of organizational relationships, including supervisor, peer, and subordinate ratings. Fourth,

consideration (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004), individualized consideration (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), and social support (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007) are among the strongest correlates of satisfaction, and OCB is among the strongest correlate of task performance (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007), supporting the relevance of these constructs to the focal outcomes.

Documenting changes in these relationships offers numerous potential contributions to research and practice. Most centrally, empirical support for changes in these focal relationships is needed to provide evidence-driven recommendations to organizations. In particular, this study has the potential to highlight the criticality of interpersonally-oriented behaviors in the modern workplace to organizations. Practically, support for the proposed changes has the potential to inform the design and content of staffing, performance management, training, and development systems.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

The Changing Nature of Work and the Increasing Importance of Interpersonally-Oriented Behaviors

Research examining the changing nature of work has proposed that changes in aspects of the task, social, and physical nature of the workplace have altered the discrete context of the workplace (Felin, Zenger, & Tomsik, 2009; Godin, 2009; Howard, 1996; Johns, 2006; Kessels, 2001; Maney, 2009). Three overarching changes are frequently proposed to have played a pivotal role in the increased importance of interpersonally-oriented behaviors. First, greater complexity requires employees to work together cooperatively on more complex projects that demand effective coordination with stakeholders across organizational levels and functions (National Academy of Sciences, 1999). As a result, teams have become increasingly prevalent in organizations, requiring employees to work together effectively to meet competitive demands. Consistent with these observations, Wood (2011) found that interdependence has significantly increased since 1985. More plainly, when work requires working effectively with others, we expect interpersonally-oriented coworkers to be increasingly important.

Second, the workplace makeup in recent years is characterized by a highly skilled, professional, and autonomous workforce (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001; Kessels, 2001). For instance, the modern workforce is much more educated relative to years past, with close to 40% of the working population holding at least a college degree in 2012 compared to less than 20% in 1975 (U.S. Census Bureau, 1975; 2011). In addition, as organizations have reduced

layers of management, lower level employees have been granted greater autonomy in decision making. According to Grant, Gino, and Hofmann (2011), traditional approaches to leadership, such as structuring leadership, are potentially detrimental to employee motivation when managing highly-skilled and autonomous employees. Instead, interpersonally-oriented behaviors are potentially a more effective leadership strategy when managing a highly-skilled and autonomous workforce (Grant et al., 2011).

Third, increased competition requires companies to produce more output with fewer resources to succeed in the marketplace (Howard, 1996; National Academy of Sciences, 1999). One approach organizations have adopted to “do more with less” is labor reduction and the redistribution of the workload to remaining employees (Best, 1973). In that the amount of work likely does not change following a labor reduction, those who remain have expanded roles or may even have to learn a new position (Labib & Appelbaum, 1994). In addition, facilitated by technology, employees have the ability to complete work from anywhere and at any time, a phenomena that has been revealed as a substantial source of stress (Lanaj, Johnson, & Barnes, 2014; Potosky & Lomax, 2013). Consistent with the hypothesis of increasing demands on employees, the number of hours worked per week in the United States over the past three decades has increased (Wood, 2011, 2014). At the same time, an increasing proportion of women working in full-time professional roles has resulted in a dramatic increase in hours worked per week per household, with a 70% increase in dual-income households between 1976 and 2009 (Generation & Gender in the Workplace, 2006; U.S. Census Bureau, 2011; 2013). Together, these changes are expected to yield a more demanding and stressful context. Consistent with these observations, Wood (2014) documented evidence for increases in work family conflict, role conflict, and emotional exhaustion in recent decades. Employees may place more value on

interpersonally-oriented behaviors in a more demanding environment because of the ability for these behaviors to help mitigate the negative outcomes of high demands.

The idea that interpersonally-oriented behaviors can serve as a buffer between stressors and work outcomes is a well-accepted concept in the organizational literature (Ganster, Mayes, & Fusilier, 1986; La Rocco & Jones, 1978; Nahum-Shani & Bamberger, 2011; Seers, McGee, Serey, & Graen, 1983). Work-related sources of support result in decreased exhaustion (Halbesleben, 2006) and increased job satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2007). Employees who perceive their workplace as supportive are better able to cope with stress (Bolger, Zuckerman, & Kessler, 2000; Cohen, 1992; Stroebe & Stroebe, 1996).

Together there is evidence that, on average, modern jobs require increased cooperation with others, a greater breadth of skills, and also increasing demands. An interpersonally dependent, highly-skilled, and demanding workplace may impact how satisfied employees are in their positions. Given the modern workplace context, we articulate the reasons that different forms of interpersonally-oriented behaviors are thought to be increasingly important when employees report their satisfaction and supervisors give task performance ratings. We examine the extent to which these changes occur controlling for changes in the gender makeup of organizations and the skill level of occupations.

Theoretical Overview: Value-Percept Theory

Greater average levels of interdependence, complexity, and demands in modern workplaces have impacted the organizational environment. Over time, employees have increasingly found themselves in an environment that requires them to work with others, making the likelihood for relational conflict greater (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). The greater complexity of work and higher demands placed on employees can lead to higher levels of stress

and exhaustion (Xie & Johns, 1995). Driven by these environmental changes in the workplace over time, we argue employees value different things than they had in the past, as environmental influences impact what employees value (Pervin, 1968).

Values represent employee needs, desires, and preferences and affect the way employees perceive the behaviors that they encounter at work (Locke, 1976; Mobley & Locke, 1970). According to Locke (1969)'s value-percept theory, employees estimate the relationship between actions and their values, either consciously or subconsciously. Employee reactions to actions, such as interpersonally-oriented behaviors, are the product of value judgements (Locke, 1969). Satisfaction is a result of obtaining what employees value; if employees value interpersonally-oriented behaviors, encountering increasing levels of these behaviors will lead to higher levels of job satisfaction (Locke, 1969).

Several studies have employed similar theorizing to examine the relative importance of specific variables to individuals by looking at their relationships with individual outcomes. For example, Fischer and Boer (2011) examine the relative importance of wealth by looking at its relationship with well-being. In a review of the life satisfaction literature, Erdogan, Liden, and Kraimer (2006) assert that the importance of autonomy to individuals is dependent on the situation; the authors illustrate examples of studies that evidenced differing correlations between autonomy and life satisfaction depending on the context. Similarly, Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, and Rich (2010) examine the relationship between pay and job satisfaction as a way to examine the importance of pay to an individual. Overall, studies have used satisfaction as a way to gage the relative importance and value of variables to an individual.

In the context of the present study and based on value-percept theory, we argue that as the work environment has changed to become more complex, demanding, and interdependent,

the environmental characteristics that employees value would also be expected to change. Value-percept theory asserts that satisfaction is a result of an interaction between employees and their environment. That is, as the work context has shifted to be more complex, interdependent, and demanding, we expect that modern workers will increasingly value coworkers who are interpersonally-oriented. Consistent with this expectation, research has shown that interpersonally-oriented behaviors help to buffer the impact of job demands on employee well-being (Beehr, Jex, Stacy, & Murray, 2000; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Ganster et al., 1986; Nahum-Shani & Bamberger, 2011), and substantial empirical research has supported the buffering effect of interpersonally-oriented relationships at work on the deleterious effects of high job demands.

Satisfaction. We draw from value-percept theory to interpret changes in the relationship between interpersonally-oriented behaviors and satisfaction. Satisfaction is a useful outcome variable for this study, because the relationship between environmental characteristics and satisfaction is conceptualized as an index of the importance of environmental variables to the employees (Locke, 1969). As Locke (1969) asserts, “Every experience of satisfaction or dissatisfaction reflects a dual value judgment: the degree of value-percept discrepancy and the relative importance of the value to the individual” (Locke, 1969, p. 330). In other words, to the extent that the environment provides valued outcomes, satisfaction is expected to be high and more valued outcomes are more satisfying relative to less value outcomes (Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, & Mansfield, 2012). For instance, the relationship between environmental characteristics such as autonomy and satisfaction has been used gauge the relative importance of autonomy to a person’s overall satisfaction across cultures (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003; Fischer & Boer, 2011; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Drawing from this theory, we propose that,

as the environment has become more demanding, interdependent, and knowledge-based, various forms of interpersonally-oriented behaviors support have become more critical to employee evaluations of their satisfaction with their environment (See Figure 1).

Supervisor ratings of task performance. In examining supervisor-rated task performance as our criterion, we rely on similar rationale as with satisfaction. Supervisor ratings of task performance can be an indirect way to gage the overall evaluation of an employee's value to the supervisor and organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). As the organizational context has become more competitive and has become flatter in terms of hierarchies, we expect the value of behaviors to supervisor evaluations of employee task performance to also change (Avolio, 2007; Jehn & Bezrukova, 2004). Similar to the rationale for changes in correlations with satisfaction, Campbell, McHenry, and Wise (1990) proposed that the relative importance of various facets of performance to overall performance would depend on job requirements and can be indexed as the correlation between each facet and ratings of overall task performance. In the context of the present study, we propose that supervisor ratings of overall task performance will increasingly include elements of employee citizenship behaviors. Specifically, as employees are increasingly expected to work in teams and on interdependent tasks, we expect supervisors to place greater emphasis on these aspects of performance when evaluating employee task performance.

In summary, value-percept theory applied to changes in worker preferences over time proposes that: (a) worker values involve a change toward a more interpersonally-oriented environment in more recent years and, (b) because of this change in values, employees will be more satisfied when they experience an interpersonally-oriented environment at work. In the

same way, supervisors will evaluate interpersonally-oriented behaviors displayed by direct reports as more critical to employee task performance.

Forms of Interpersonally-Oriented Behaviors

Research across disparate domains has consistently identified interpersonally-oriented constructs as key variables that capture the concept of these interpersonal behaviors at work (Eby & Allen, 2012). For instance, interpersonally-oriented behaviors are central to taxonomies of leadership, mentoring, team, and task performance behaviors (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eby, Lockwood, & Butts, 2006; Morgeson, Reider, & Campion, 2005; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). In addition, such interpersonal behaviors have been shown to be critical across multiple organizational levels, such as among peers, supervisors, and followers (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008).

The present effort focuses on four forms of interpersonally-oriented behaviors: social support (Halbesleben, 2006), leader consideration (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Fisher & Edwards, 1988; Judge et al., 2004), individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 1995; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), and OCB (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000) to explore how interpersonally-oriented behaviors function in different hierarchical interactions in the workplace. Although there are differences in these constructs, a key component of each is the involvement of behaviors that promote the maintenance of effective working relationships. For instance, items on measures of each of these constructs tend to focus on the degree of support provided, the degree of concern for others' well-being, and the quality of interpersonal relationships.

In this regard, social support typically involves the degree of support provided by the individuals one interacts with in the workplace (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). On the

other hand, consideration and individualized consideration focus specifically on the degree of interpersonally-oriented behaviors provided by one's immediate supervisor (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Furthermore, OCB is a performance-oriented construct that is typically evaluated by one's supervisor and thus, reflects an evaluation of behaviors (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006). To show that a strengthened relationship between interpersonally-oriented behaviors and satisfaction over time is unique and not applicable to all variables, we also examine a task-oriented variable that stems from the same literature as the focal interpersonally-oriented behavior variable. This task-oriented variable is used as a comparative referent when possible. Doing so is an important step to rule out a positive increase in the strength of associations among both sets of constructs over time. Below we discuss the reason that we expect each form of interpersonally-oriented behaviors to be more strongly associated with the relevant outcome variable than each form of task-oriented behavior is associated with that relevant outcome variable.

Study 1: Social support and job satisfaction. *Social support* is defined as the degree to which a job offers getting assistance and advice from other organization members (Karasek et al., 1998; Karasek, 1979) and contains opportunities for friendship on the job (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976). Social support has been linked to a variety of outcomes, including satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and internal motivation (Halbesleben, 2006; Humphrey et al., 2007). Indeed, a meta-analysis by Humphrey et al. (2007) found that social support was the strongest correlate of job satisfaction relative to autonomy, skill variety, task variety, task significance, and task identity.

On the basis of evidence for increased interdependence and increased demands from work, we propose that of social support were an increasingly important determinant of job

satisfaction in more recent years. First, interdependent contexts require greater cooperation to complete tasks and thus, working effectively with one's coworkers is expected to be increasingly important in the modern, interdependent context. Consistent with this idea, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) showed that the level of interdependence of the context impacts the strength of the relationship between coworker support and job satisfaction. To the extent that interdependence has increased in recent years, it follows that coworker support will also exert a more important influence on job satisfaction. Relationship conflict, an outcome of poor interpersonally-oriented behaviors, has been shown to be particularly detrimental to job satisfaction (De Drue & Weingart, 2003; de Wit, Greer, & Jehn, 2012). To the extent that the modern workplace is more interdependent, relationship conflict would be expected to be more prevalent. To avoid the negative consequences of relationship conflict, employees may place more value on social support to mitigate such conflict (Labianca & Brass, 2006). In summary, given increases in interdependence and associated increase in relationship conflict, we expect social support to play a particularly important role in employees' evaluations of their job satisfaction.

Second, we predict that social support will be more critical to job satisfaction given the high levels of demands associated with the modern workplace. Work family conflict (Elloy & Smith, 2003), burnout, and emotional exhaustion (Wood, 2014) have significantly increased, a finding that coincides with increases in hours worked (Generation & Gender in the Workplace, 2006; U.S. Census Bureau, 1975; 2011; 2013). According to stress and coping theory, emotional support plays a key buffering role in the relationship between stressors and feelings of dissatisfaction (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986), and high levels of social support have been related to decreased feelings of stress and burnout (Carlson &

Perrewé, 1999; Constable & Russell, 1986). As the American workplace has experienced increases in demands on workers and the complexity of the work, the stressful nature of modern organizations has created a situation in which employees will likely value social support from organizations.

For this study, we focus on *job satisfaction* as opposed to other forms of satisfaction as the relevant correlate of social support, because job satisfaction has been among the most commonly studied correlates of social support and thus, provides sufficient data to conduct temporal analyses. As a comparative referent to ensure changes are not due to overall stronger relationships over time, we focus on changes in skill variety, as it is the more task-oriented of the job characteristics commonly reported in the transformational leadership literature. Of the similar work characteristics with a sufficient data base to provide a meta-analysis, skill variety was chosen as the comparative form of task-oriented behavior because it is the most task-oriented of the various work characteristics commonly examined in this literature (Humphrey et al., 2007). We expect the change in the relationship between social support and job satisfaction to be stronger than any potential change in the relationship between skill variety and job satisfaction. Together, based on an increasingly interdependent and demanding work, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between social support and job satisfaction has increased in recent years, and the observed increase were stronger than any potential increase in the relationship between skill variety and job satisfaction.

Studies 2 & 3: Considerate leadership, individualized consideration, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with leadership. Considerate leader behaviors have been a staple of the

leadership literature for over 60 years. We provide meta-analyses of two forms of considerate leadership: *Considerate leadership*, among the earliest conceptualizations of leader behavior (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill & Coons, 1957), and *individualized consideration*, a component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). Both forms of considerate leadership describe a leader showing care and respect for followers, displaying concern for their well-being, and expressing gratitude and support, and both have consistently shown substantial correlations with follower outcomes (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Judge et al., 2004). Given their similarity, we discuss these variables simultaneously. However, for practical reasons, the outcome of interest differs between these two measures. For consideration, we focus on job satisfaction, as job satisfaction was among the most studied outcomes of leader consideration-initiating structure research (Judge et al., 2004). On the other hand, for individualized consideration, we focus on *satisfaction with leadership*. This is because the transformational leadership literature has typically focused on satisfaction with leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004), as this form of satisfaction is explicitly included on the most popular measure of individualized consideration, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985).

We propose that considerate leader behaviors are of increased importance to employee job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership based on the transition to a knowledge economy and increasing demands on employee psychological resources (Drucker, 1973). Knowledge work is characterized by jobs that are cognitively demanding and involve the creation, packaging, sharing, and manipulation of knowledge (Arthur, DeFillippi, & Lindsay, 2008). According to various contingency theories of leadership (e.g., Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974), when followers have high levels of ability, as would be expected by knowledge workers, considerate leader behaviors are often prescribed. In addition to higher levels of ability, the

workforce has become much more educated over time, as almost 40% of the working population held a college degree in 2012 as opposed to 20% in 1975 (U.S. Census Bureau, 1975, 2012). When followers have higher levels of education and ability as they do in the context of complex and autonomous job conditions requiring knowledge-based work (Kessels, 2001; Potosky & Lomax, 2013), followers are more likely to have high levels of initiative and ability and therefore benefit more from considerate leadership than initiating structure leadership (Yukl, 1989). In situations when followers have high levels of proactivity, as in the modern workplace, certain leadership traits are less effective whereas considerate behaviors are of greater importance (Grant et al., 2011; Liu, Chen, & Yao, 2011). To the extent that there has been a shift toward knowledge work and a more educated workforce, we expect considerate leadership to be increasingly important to employee job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership.

Second, based on increasing demands we expect considerate leadership to be particularly important to follower job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership. Due to decades of increases in technology use (Coovert, 1995; Van der Spiegel, 1995), interdependence (Wong, DeSanctis, & Staudenmayer, 2007), hours worked from home (Madden & Jones, 2008), and cognitively-demanding knowledge work (Cohen, 1980; Cohen & Spacapan, 1978), workers experience greater demands, stressors, and work-family conflict (Wood, 2014). Considerate leadership helps employees cope with the high-level of demands present in the modern-day work environment. To the extent that work is increasingly demanding, we expect considerate leadership to be particularly important to followers.

If employees increasingly value consideration, higher levels of consideration in organizations should be more strongly associated with job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership in more recent years (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). To ensure that observed

effects do not indicate increased importance of leadership behaviors in general, rather than consideration in particular, initiating structure was included as a comparative referent for consideration and intellectual stimulation. These variables were chosen as they are the more-task focused of variables that are commonly examined with consideration and individualized consideration.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between leader consideration and job satisfaction has increased in recent years and the observed increase were stronger than any potential increase in the relationship between leader initiating structure and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between the individualized consideration facet of transformational leadership and satisfaction with leadership has increased in recent years and the observed increase were stronger than any potential increase in the relationship between intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership.

Study 4: OCB. The first three hypotheses concerned the relationship between aspects of interpersonally-oriented behaviors and job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership. In this set of analyses, we consider changes in the relationship between the most commonly measured interpersonally-oriented performance behavior, OCB, and supervisor-rated *task performance*. Notably, the fourth meta-analysis examines change in the relationship between interpersonally-oriented behaviors (in the form of OCB) and supervisor-rated task performance, rather than job satisfaction. Despite the focus on supervisor task performance ratings, we rely on similar rationale as with satisfaction. Specifically, like with job satisfaction, supervisor ratings of task

performance can be viewed as an overall evaluation of an employee's value to the supervisor and organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Luthans et al., 2007). To the extent that the context has changed, we expect the relative importance of certain behaviors to supervisor-rated task performance to also change (Avolio, 2007; Jehn & Bezrukova, 2004).

In recent years, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and related constructs have emerged as a focal in conceptualizing task performance, although substantial emphasis has been placed on the importance of examining task performance behaviors that go beyond job-specific task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000). As a result, the literature recommends OCB be defined as “nonrequired contributions that are regarded by the person as relatively less likely to lead along any clear, fixed path to formal rewards” (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 549). Several types of OCB including OCB-Individual (OCBI) and OCB-Organizational (OCBO) have been established (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Thus, examining changes in the relationship between ratings of OCB and supervisor-rated task performance is a useful approach to documenting whether OCB has become of more critical value to organizations and supervisors in more recent years (Edwards, Bell, Arthur Jr, & Decuir, 2008; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). Specifically, because supervisors typically provide ratings of task performance (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Dalal, 2005), examining the overlap between ratings of task performance and OCB will give an indication of the extent to which supervisors perceive that OCB is more critical to task performance in more recent years (Landy & Farr, 1980; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Consistent with the claim that supervisor-rated task performance represents supervisor satisfaction with subordinate behaviors, some studies have interpreted task performance ratings

as reflecting an affordance of how satisfying the ratee's performance is to the rater. Furthermore, substantial overlap between task performance and OCB is well documented (Hoffman et al., 2007). Campbell et al. (1990) argue that the association between any given facet of performance and overall performance will depend on the job context. As the job context has changed, so too has the importance of OCB. OCB would be expected to be given increased weight in evaluating task performance in the modern world of work for two main reasons: competition and flatter organizational hierarchies. In this way, just as examining the changing relationship between interpersonally-oriented behaviors and job satisfaction and satisfaction with leadership shows whether these behaviors have increased in value to employees, examining correlations between OCB and supervisor-rated task performance will indicate whether OCB has increased in importance from the perspective of supervisors (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In the following section, we link the specific increases in employee demands and supervisor responsibility in predicting the increased importance of OCB over time.

First, OCB is essential in organizations that need to demand more from their employees (Hoffman et al., 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000) because OCB allows companies to be more productive with fewer resources. Because companies must achieve higher levels of productivity with less capital in the modern workplace due to increased levels of industry competition, OCB should be of increased importance to organizations in recent years. Furthermore, flatter organizational hierarchies force fewer workers to be responsible for larger segments of work and greater numbers of workers (Howard, 1996). With more workers to manage, supervisors can no longer closely monitor employees or assign them specific tasks (Paul, Niehoff, & Turnley, 2000). Therefore, it is more important for employees to take initiative and show autonomy in their work. Because OCB involves employees performing above and beyond their required task

duties (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), OCB is of increased value in a workplace environment that requires employees to display proactive behaviors and independent decision making in their work. Because of these increases in employee demands and supervisor responsibility in recent years, we expect the relationship between OCB and supervisor-rated task performance to have become stronger over time. Because companies must achieve higher levels of productivity with less capital in the modern workplace due to increased levels of competition and flatter hierarchies, OCB should be of increased importance to organizations in recent years.

Second, the interpersonally-oriented nature of OCB makes such behavior likely more important to modern-day organizations. As noted above, jobs have become more interdependent, requiring employees to work together to effectively complete work roles. Given high levels of interdependence, it has become increasingly important that employees engage in interpersonally-oriented behaviors, such as OCBI, courtesy, and altruism. On this basis, we propose that supervisors in organizations aiming to remain competitive in the interdependent and competitive marketplace will place higher value on OCB, making OCB more likely to play an important role in supervisor task performance ratings (Hoffman et al., 2007). Therefore, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between OCB and supervisor-rated task performance has increased in recent years.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

We conducted a literature search using *Psychological Abstracts* (PsycINFO, 1966-2013) and Web of Science (1966-2013) to locate studies for the meta-analyses. Studies were limited to peer-reviewed journal articles and dissertations. Specific information and search terms for the four meta-analyses are presented in Table 1.

Criteria for Inclusion

We evaluated each of these studies for inclusion in the meta-analyses based on the following rules of inclusion. First, the article must have provided quantitative data to be included. Second, studies needed to provide a correlation between one of the constructs of interest (see Table 1 for constructs of interest) and satisfaction (or task performance for Study 4) or a statistic that could be converted into a correlation (e.g., means and t-test results).

Third, except for Study 1, all variables had to be measured using specific measures. In selecting measures, our goal was to select measures that were commonly used over a relatively long time span. This was to ensure that any observed findings are due to changes in the substantive relationship and not due to changes in the measure. The measures used for each construct are included in Tables 2 and 3. For study 1, numerous measures of social support and skill variety appear in the literature, and no one measure is used in a substantial majority of studies. Therefore, a variety of measures were used for social support and skill variety. Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975)'s measure of was the most frequently used measure of social support, and the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) was the most

commonly used measure for skill variety. For study 2, studies were included only if they measured consideration and/or initiating structure with the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), the original and most frequently used measure for consideration and initiating structure. For study 3, studies were only coded if they employed use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Bass & Avolio, 2000), the original and most commonly used measure for intellectual stimulation and intellectual stimulation. Furthermore, the MLQ contains a measure of satisfaction of leadership, ensuring that the dependent variable remained consistent over time as well. For study 4, included studies must have used Williams and Anderson (1991)'s measure of OCB because it is the most commonly used measure that distinguishes between OCBI and OCBO.

Fourth, only studies using U.S. based workplace samples were included. Focusing on U.S. based samples is important in order to avoid confounding time-based changes with cultural differences (Twenge & Campbell, 2001; Twenge & Im, 2007). Only studies with employed individuals at the time of data collection were included (e.g., lab-based studies with undergraduate students were excluded). Fifth, we only included studies if the focal construct and correlate (e.g., satisfaction) were obtained cross-sectionally and from the same source. Limiting our study to cross-sectional data avoids confounding changing relationships with changes in methodologies such as the tendency of more recent studies to utilize longitudinal designs. Furthermore, the vast majority of studies have historically employed the use of cross-sectional data, making the focus on cross-sectional data important to ensure adequate power in our study.

Study 1: Social Support and Skill Variety. Correlations between *social support* and *job satisfaction* were included if they examine any type of peer, supervisor, or workplace support in general. Correlations between *skill variety* and *job satisfaction* were also collected to provide a

more task-based comparison to measures of social support. All variables for the correlations collected in Study 1 had to be completed by the same employee during the time period.

Study 2: Consideration and Initiating Structure. Correlations of *consideration* and *job satisfaction* were included if they are both reported at the same time by direct reports of the focal leader. For example, leader self-ratings were excluded as well as studies in which different subordinates complete the leader behavior measure and the job satisfaction measure. As a comparative relationship, *initiating structure* and *job satisfaction* correlations was also collected using the same criteria.

Study 3: Individualized Consideration and Intellectual Stimulation. Correlations between *individualized consideration* and *satisfaction with leadership* warranted inclusion if they were reported at the same time by direct reports of the focal leader. *Intellectual stimulation* and *satisfaction with leadership* correlations were compared with the individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership correlations and therefore followed their same inclusion criteria.

Study 4: OCB. Correlations between task performance and OCB were only included if they are completed by the same supervisor at the same time. The OCB subfacets were noted as OCBI and OCBO in order to compare the more interpersonally-oriented and task-oriented counterparts of OCB.

Coding of Studies

Primary studies. The literature search yielded 16,917 non-redundant articles across all constructs of interest for potential inclusion. Of these articles, 7,789 were part of the meta-analytic update of the current effort. After articles that contained variables not related to our variables of interest were eliminated, 1,997 variables remained, 342 of which met our inclusion criteria. Fourteen of these studies were dissertations.

Each article was coded by two independent coders. Inter-rater agreement values were adequate for all four studies and were calculated based on the level of agreement between variable reliabilities, variable categorizations, sample sizes, correlations, and percentages of males in the samples. All studies evidenced high levels of agreement; Study 1 had an agreement value of 89%, Study 2 showed 79% agreement, Study 3 showed 98% agreement, and Study 4 showed 89% agreement. As suggested by Oliver and Hyde (1993) and consistent with prior practice in cross temporal meta-analyses (Twenge, 2000, 2001; Twenge & Campbell, 2001), the year of data collection was coded as two years before the study's publication year unless the year of collection was clearly stated. Preliminary levels of agreement were examined as a percentage. Any differences in coding were checked against the original documents and resolved via discussion.

In addition to the variables of interest, several variables were coded as potential control variables. First, the occupation of the sample was coded for each study. This is important to ensure that any observed changes are not attributable to sampling different occupations in more recent years. In order to code sample occupation, occupational information reported in each study was coded. Then, using the skill level as determined by information based on Hollingshead (1975), the level of occupational skill was coded on a scale of 1 to 3, with 1 representing low skill and 3 representing high skill. To be clear, occupational characteristics have actually changed in the broader economy and thus, accounting for changes in occupational characteristics provides a rigorous test of the stability of proposed changes in the importance of interpersonally-oriented behaviors. Employee occupational skill is crucial to control for because contextual changes have produced differences in the proportional representation of occupations in the

economy (Levy & Murnane, 2012). The sample characteristic of gender was coded as percent male to control for whether any observed changes are associated with sample demographics.

Once all of the study data were coded, we used an adapted version of Arthur, Bennett, and Huffcutt (2001)'s SAS 9.1 PROC MEANS program to analyze the data using an adapted version of Raju, Normand, Burke, and Langlois (1991) method. This method of random effects meta-analysis corrects effect sizes individually for artifacts. This approach follows the meta-analysis procedure recommended by Hunter and Schmidt (2004), although our method differed because corrections were completed for each effect size and used an artifact distribution only when reliability information was not available. Specifically, we weighted each effect size by sample size and corrected for attenuation due to unreliability in both the predictor and criterion variables. If reliabilities were not reported, an artifact distribution was constructed by averaging the reliability for all studies that reported reliability values for a given variable. Individually, these disattenuated, sample-weighted correlations were then averaged. The effect size obtained by these analyses, ρ , represents the strength of the relationship in the population.

The primary analyses involved examining whether year moderates the relationship between the focal predictor-criterion relationship. To complete these analyses, we examined whether year moderates the predictor-criterion relationship by using weighted least squares regression to regress the magnitude of the predictor-criterion relationship onto year (Steel & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2002). Weighted least squares is beneficial to use because it is unaffected by multicollinearity and provides a minimally biased estimation, even at small sample sizes (Steel & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2002). We repeated these steps for the relationship between year and the relationship between the comparison task-oriented variable and outcome variables. To

determine whether correlations between the interpersonal and task constructs differed significantly, we used Meng, Rosenthal, and Rubin (1992)'s method of comparing correlations.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Study 1: Social Support and Skill Variety. The uncorrected meta-analytic correlation between social support and job satisfaction was .37 ($k = 57$; See Table 4). For skill variety and job satisfaction, the uncorrected correlation was .34 ($k = 75$). The uncorrected correlation between social support and job satisfaction reported by Humphrey et al. (2007) was .56 ($k = 52$) and between skill variety and job satisfaction was .32 ($k = 111$), supporting the consistency of our findings with those of past research. Intercorrelations and descriptive statistics for Study 1 variables are included in Table 5.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that the relationship between social support and job satisfaction has increased in recent years, and the observed increase would be stronger than any potential increase in the relationship between skill variety and job satisfaction. Weighted least squares (WLS) regression was used to regress the correlation between social support and job satisfaction on year as a test of Hypothesis 1. In support of Hypothesis 1, year significantly moderated the relationship between social support and job satisfaction ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .20$; $p < .001$; $k = 56$; See Table 6), and the positive B value suggests that the relationship between social support and job satisfaction has become stronger over time. As a referent comparison, WLS regression results for the correlation of skill variety and job satisfaction regressed on year were obtained. Year did not significantly moderate the relationship between skill variety and job satisfaction ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .01$; $p = .49$; $k = 73$).

Because social support has not benefited from a common operationalization over time, we included multiple operationalizations in the analyses, also examining peer and supervisor social support. In order to determine whether the effects were consistent across different types of social support, we conducted meta-analytic and WLS regression analyses that examined peer and supervisor support separately. Overall, although the magnitude of effects differed by the type of support, the pattern of the results was quite consistent across the different types of social support. That is, year accounted for more variance in the peer social support ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .47$; $k = 16$; $p < .01$) and supervisor social support ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .34$; $k = 22$; $p < .01$) correlations with job satisfaction than the overall social support and job satisfaction correlation ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .20$; $k = 56$; $p < .01$). For all three findings, support continued to be more strongly associated with satisfaction in recent years.

We tested whether the difference in association between year and the social support-job satisfaction relationship and year and the skill variety-job satisfaction relationship was significant. To do so, we weighted the corrected correlations by sample size and used Meng et al. (1992)'s test of significant differences in dependent correlations. The social support-job satisfaction corrected correlation with year weighted by sample size ($r_c = .55$; $k = 56$) was significantly greater than the skill variety-job satisfaction correlation with year weighted by sample size ($r_c = -.09$; $k = 73$; $t[35,957] = 139.22$; $p < .001$). Together, these results support Hypothesis 1.

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with sample demographics, we controlled for the percentage of males in the sample by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of social support and job satisfaction and skill variety and job satisfaction regressed on year and the percentage of males in the sample. Not all studies reported the gender

makeup of their samples, resulting in a lower number of data points for this set of analyses.

Results show that, when controlling for sample percent male, the correlation between social support and job satisfaction is still significantly associated with year ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .15$; $k = 30$; $p < .05$). When controlling for percentage of males in the sample, the correlation between skill variety and job satisfaction is still not significantly associated with year ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .03$; $k = 39$; $p = .35$; See Table 7).

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with changes in the complexity of the occupations in the samples, we controlled for occupational skill level by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of social support and job satisfaction and skill variety and job satisfaction regressed on year and occupational skill level. Not all studies reported the title of the jobs explored in their samples and many included multiple occupations and thus could not be coded, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses. Results remained consistent when controlling for occupational skill. Results show that, when controlling for occupational skill level, year continued to moderate the relationship between social support and job satisfaction ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .31$; $k = 20$; $p < .05$; See Table 8) and suggest that the relationship between social support and job satisfaction has still become stronger over time. When controlling for occupational skill level, the relationship between skill variety and job satisfaction remained nonsignificant ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .02$; $k = 21$; $p = .59$).

Study 2: Consideration and Initiating Structure. The average uncorrected meta-analytic correlation between consideration and job satisfaction was .51 ($k = 54$; See Table 9). For initiating structure and job satisfaction, the average uncorrected correlation was .15 ($k = 58$). Judge et al. (2004) reported the uncorrected correlation between consideration and job

satisfaction as .40 ($k = 76$) and between initiating structure and satisfaction as .19 and ($k = 72$). Thus, these results support the consistency of our findings with those of past research.

Intercorrelations and descriptive statistics for Study 2 variables can be found in Table 10.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the relationship between the relationship between leader consideration and job satisfaction has increased in recent years, and the observed increase would be stronger than any potential increase in the relationship between leader initiating structure and job satisfaction. WLS regression was used to regress the correlation between consideration and job satisfaction on year as a test of Hypothesis 2. Support for Hypothesis 2 was not found. Year did not significantly moderate the relationship between consideration and job satisfaction ($B = -.01$; $R^2 = .00$; $p = .94$; $k = 54$; see Table 11). As a referent comparison, WLS regression results for the correlation of initiating structure and job satisfaction regressed on year were obtained. In contrast to expectations, year significantly moderated the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction ($B = .02$; $R^2 = .17$; $p < .01$; $k = 58$). This result was opposite of the intended predicted relationship, as it suggests that the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction has become stronger over time.

To determine whether the difference in the impact of year on the consideration-job satisfaction and initiating structure-job satisfaction relationships was significant, we weighted the corrected correlations by sample size and used Meng et al. (1992) test of significant differences in dependent correlations. The difference between the corrected consideration and job satisfaction and initiating structure and job satisfaction correlations with year weighted by sample size was significant ($t[8099] = 47.40$; $p < .001$), with the initiating structure-job satisfaction correlation with year ($r_c = .66$; $k = 58$) showing a significantly higher value than the

than the consideration-job satisfaction relationship with year ($r_c = .13$; $k = 54$). Together, the results did not support Hypothesis 2.

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with sample demographics, we controlled for the percentages of males in the sample by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of consideration and job satisfaction and initiating structure and job satisfaction regressed on year and the percentage of males in the sample. Not all studies reported the gender makeup of their samples, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses. Controlling for the percentage of males in the follower sample, results remained largely unchanged. Year did not significantly moderate the consideration and job satisfaction relationship ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .03$; $p = .93$; $k = 37$; See Table 12). In addition, controlling for sample percent male, the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction and year remained significant ($B = .02$; $R^2 = .31$; $p < .00$; $k = 38$).

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with changes in the complexity of the occupations in the samples, we controlled for occupational skill by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of consideration and job satisfaction and initiating structure and job satisfaction regressed on year and occupational skill level. (De Raeve, Vasse, Jansen, van den Brandt, & Kant, 2007). Not all studies reported the title of the jobs explored in their samples and many included multiple occupations and thus could not be coded, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses. Results show that, when controlling for occupational skill, year no longer moderated the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .18$; $k = 41$; $p = .42$; See Table 13), but the relationship between consideration and job satisfaction as moderated by year remained nonsignificant when controlling for occupational skill ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .01$; $k = 38$; $p = .60$). To test

whether this change was due to the occupational skill level control variable or due to the drop in sample size, we ran the studies that reported occupational data in a separate WLS regression test with the correlation of initiating structure and job satisfaction regressed on year. These analyses showed that year did not significantly moderate the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction ($B = .02$; $R^2 = .04$; $k = 41$; $p = .19$). This suggests that the inconsistent results could be driven by the drop in sample size due to unreported follower occupation information.

Study 3: Individualized Consideration and Intellectual Stimulation. The average uncorrected meta-analytic correlation between individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership was .64 ($k = 25$; See Table 14). For intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership, the uncorrected correlation was .61 ($k = 24$). We could not locate any published meta-analytic studies that examined the subfacets of transformational leadership and satisfaction with leadership to compare our results with prior research. Intercorrelations and descriptive statistics for Study 3 variables can be found in Table 15.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the relationship between the individualized consideration facet of transformational leadership and satisfaction with leadership has increased in recent years and the observed increase would be stronger than any potential increase in the relationship between intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership. WLS regression was used to regress the correlation between individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership on year as a test of Hypothesis 3. Year did not significantly moderate the relationship between individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .01$; $p = .66$; $k = 25$; See Table 16). As a referent comparison, WLS regression results for the correlation of intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership regressed on year were obtained. Year was not found to significantly moderate the relationship between intellectual stimulation and

satisfaction with leadership ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .00$; $p = .88$; $k = 24$). Therefore, our moderation results do not support Hypothesis 3.

To determine whether the difference in the impact of year on the individualized consideration-satisfaction with leadership relationship and the intellectual stimulation-satisfaction with leadership relationship was significant, we weighted the corrected correlations by sample size and used Meng et al. (1992)'s test of significant differences in dependent correlations. The corrected correlation between individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership with year weighted by sample size ($r_c = .05$; $k = 25$) was shown to be significantly stronger than the corrected correlation between intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership with year weighted by sample size ($r_c = .01$; $k = 24$; $t[7253] = 4.27$; $p < .001$). Although these findings show a significant difference in the correlations in the expected direction, we argue that, from a practical standpoint, the difference in correlations is too small to provide support for Hypothesis 3.

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with sample demographics, we controlled for the percentage of males in the sample by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership and intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership regressed on year and the percentage of males in the sample. Not all studies reported the gender makeup of their samples, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses. Controlling for follower sample percent male, results remained largely unchanged. Year did not significantly moderate the individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership relationship ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .10$; $p = .33$; $k = 17$; See Table 17). In addition, controlling for

follower sample percent male, the relationship between intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership and year remained nonsignificant ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .03$; $p = .64$; $k = 15$).

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with changes in the complexity of the occupations in the samples, we controlled for occupational skill by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership and intellectual stimulation and satisfaction with leadership regressed on year and occupational skill level. Not all studies reported the title of the jobs explored in their samples and many included multiple occupations and thus could not be coded, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses. Results show that the relationship between individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership, when controlling for occupational skill, became significant ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .23$; $k = 19$; $p < .05$; See Table 18). The relationship between consideration and job satisfaction as moderated by year remained nonsignificant when controlling for occupational skill ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .14$; $k = 19$; $p = .15$). To test whether the change in the individualized consideration-satisfaction with leadership year moderation results was due to the occupational skill level control variable or due to the drop in sample size, we ran the studies that reported occupational data in a separate WLS regression test with the correlation of individualized consideration and satisfaction with leadership regressed on year. These analyses showed that year did not significantly moderate the relationship between initiating structure and job satisfaction ($B = .01$; $R^2 = .20$; $k = 19$; $p = .06$). This suggests that the inconsistent results could be due to the impact of occupational skill level as a control variable in the model as opposed to the drop in studies due to unreported occupational information.

Study 4: OCB. The average uncorrected meta-analytic correlation between OCB and task performance was .57 ($k = 49$; See Table 19). For OCBI and task performance, the uncorrected correlation was .56 ($k = 19$), and for OCBO and task performance the uncorrected correlation was .47 ($k = 20$). Podsakoff et al. (2009) reported an uncorrected correlation of .39 ($k = 24$) between OCBI and task performance and .40 ($k = 22$) between OCBO and task performance. Thus, our results showed a stronger relationship between OCB and task performance than reported in previous research. Intercorrelations and descriptive statistics for Study 4 variables can be found in Table 20.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the relationship between OCB and supervisor-rated task performance has increased in recent years. WLS regression was used to regress the correlation between OCB and task performance on year as a test of Hypothesis 4. Our results do not show support for Hypothesis 4. Year did not significantly moderate the relationship between OCB and task performance ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .00$; $p = .70$; $k = 49$; See Table 21), OCBI and task performance ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .00$; $p = .88$; $k = 19$), or OCBO and task performance ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .00$; $p = .81$; $k = 20$).

To determine whether the difference in the impact of year on the OCBI and OCBO correlations with task performance was significant, we weighted the corrected correlations by sample size and used Meng et al. (1992)'s test of significant differences in dependent correlations. The difference between the OCBI and task performance and OCBO and task performance correlations with year was significant ($t[4343] = 6.56$; $p < .001$), with the weighted OCBO and task performance correlation with year ($r_c = .06$; $k = 20$) showing a greater magnitude than the OCBI-task performance relationship with year ($r_c = -.01$; $k = 19$). The direction of this relationship was in the opposite direction of the predicted relationship and both relationships

were weak and the difference in relationships were weak. Together, these results do not support Hypothesis 4.

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with sample demographics, we controlled for percent male by conducting a WLS regression test with the correlations of task performance with OCB, OCBI, and OCBO separately regressed on year and the percentage of males in the sample. Not all studies reported the gender makeup of their samples, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses.

Controlling for follower gender, results remained largely unchanged. Year did not significantly moderate the task performance-OCB relationship ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .00$; $p = .33$; $k = 46$; See Table 22), the task performance-OBI relationship ($B = -.00$; $R^2 = .01$; $p = .78$; $k = 19$), or the task performance-OCBO relationship ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .02$; $p = .72$; $k = 20$).

To determine whether any observed changes were associated with changes in the complexity of the occupations in the samples, we controlled for occupational skill by conducting a WLS regression test of moderation with the correlations of task performance and OCB, OCBI, and OCBO separately regressed on year and occupational skill level. Not all studies reported the title of the jobs explored in their samples and many included multiple occupations and thus could not be coded, resulting in a lower number of correlation values for this set of WLS regression moderation analyses. Results remained largely unchanged when controlling for occupational skill. The relationships of task performance and OCB ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .02$; $k = 20$; $p = .99$; See Table 23), OCBI ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .05$; $k = 8$; $p = .92$) and OCBO ($B = .00$; $R^2 = .01$; $k = 11$; $p = .96$) remained nonsignificant.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Based in changes in the modern workplace, both academic and popular sources frequently prescribe that management alter common strategies and approaches in order to maximize employee satisfaction and productivity (Costanza, Badger, Fraser, Severt, & Gade, 2012; Davidow, 1992; Humphrey et al., 2007). Based on higher levels of interdependence, it is commonly recommended that leaders alter their behavior to emphasize getting along with others (Gentry, Griggs, Deal, Mondore, & Cox, 2011; House, 1995; Nadler & Tushman, 1990), employees be selected based on their ability to work effectively with peers (Landy, Shankster-Cawley, & Moran, 1995; Organ, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011), and that working effectively with others should receive increased weight be when evaluating performance (Johnson, Holladay, & Quinones, 2009; Nadler & Tushman, 1990). Despite frequent propositions, very little research has empirically examined whether the value for working effectively with others has changed over time.

We examined the evidentiary basis for the overarching proposition of changes in interpersonally-oriented behaviors over time with four separate meta-analyses. However, the results of these analyses, in general, were not supportive of this proposition. The results were not consistently supportive of changes in the importance of any of the variables examined to outcomes, whether interpersonally or task-oriented. Specifically, year was only found to moderate two of the eight relationships examined, and one of these findings was for a task-oriented construct rather than an interpersonally-oriented construct. First we discuss the

interpretation and implications of the unsupportive results. We then will provide commentary on the interpretation of the anomalous significant effects.

Theoretical and Research Implications

It is particularly noteworthy that the findings were general unsupportive because past research has frequently supported that interpersonally-oriented behaviors are increasingly important in the modern workplace. Indeed, what limited research that has examined changes has supported increased importance of interdependence (Wegman, Hoffman, Carter, Twenge, & Guenole, 2016), decreased satisfaction with peers and supervision (Wegman et al., 2016), and even that leaders report relational behaviors are increasingly important to their jobs (Gentry et al., 2011).

There are a few potential reasons for the failure to support the frequently proposed increase in the importance of interpersonally-oriented behaviors in the present study. First, it is possible that despite frequent speculation, relational behaviors are actually not more important in the modern world of work than in years past. This should not be taken to mean that they are unimportant. Indeed, social support, consideration, individualized consideration, and OCB were strongly associated with various forms of satisfaction or in the case of OCB, supervisor-rated task performance. In fact, in the analysis of social support, consideration, and individualized consideration, the relational behavior was more strongly associated with various forms of satisfaction than was the more task-oriented counterpart. Thus, it is possible that relational behaviors have always been critical and despite changes in work, are not actually more important to employees.

Related to this possibility, given the strong associations between relational behaviors and satisfaction, it is possible that the observed correlations are range-restricted. In other words, there

may be a ceiling effect making it near impossible for the correlations to have increased over time. To examine this possibility, we examined the raw correlations from the first five years of data collection in order to get an indication of whether the correlations had always been relatively high, even in early years. The results of this analysis for the consideration-job satisfaction and individualized consideration-satisfaction with leadership from the first five years of data collection were .51 and .69. This suggests that there was little room for these correlations to grow in magnitude. Similarly, the raw correlations from the first five years of data collection between task performance and OCB, OCBI, and OCBO were .59, .58, and .56. Indeed, uncorrected correlations in the organizational sciences are not typically larger than .39 (Bosco, Aguinis, Singh, Field, & Pierce, 2015), suggesting that these correlations are particularly strong. As noted above, these findings potentially indicate that supportive behaviors have always been important to employee satisfaction.

An additional possibility is that these findings would have differed had we focused on different outcomes. For social support, consideration, and individualized consideration, satisfaction was the sole outcome variable. Examining different types of outcomes may have yielded evidence that interpersonally-oriented behaviors have indeed become more important over time. If future studies examine, for example, performance in relation to these variables, the results may suggest the increased importance of interpersonally-oriented behaviors in more recent years.

This discussion notwithstanding, two of the sets of analyses did evidence significant moderation effects. First, the findings indicate that the relationship between social support and job satisfaction is moderated by year, with social support being increasingly important in recent years. Of the variables studied, the relationship between peer social support and job satisfaction

was the relationship most impacted by time. This suggests that there is an even stronger preference for employees in the modern-day work environment to feel encouraged by their peers than in the past. This finding is potentially due to increased interdependence in the workplace; workers may have to rely more on their peers at work and, as a result, it is important to have positive, healthy relationships with them in order to feel satisfied with their job (House, 1995; Wood, 2014). In addition, the high demands placed on today's workers may make peer support more important to employee well-being and, in turn, their job satisfaction (Wood, 2014).

On the other hand, an alternative explanation is that of the relationships examined, social support was the only relationship that included heterogeneous measures. In other words, the other studies included a single measure of the focal supportive behavior in order to hold the measurement constant. However, because the literature has not settled on a primary measure, this was not possible for social support. Accordingly, it is possible that more recent measures somehow differ from other measures and that these measurement differences are responsible for the strengthening effects. Aside from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1975) being the most commonly used measure from 1975 to 1982 and 1987 to 1990, no other measures were employed over multiple years. It is therefore not clear if our findings could have been due to changes in social support measures used over time.

Second, the relationship between leader initiating structure and job satisfaction was the only task-related counterpart significantly impacted by year. This shows that employees may desire more clarification from their leaders in the modern workplace. Although we did not anticipate this finding, this finding makes sense in the context of the changing nature of work. Over time, organizations have gone through downsizing, resulting in flatter organizational hierarchies which force managers to be responsible for more people (Rajan & Wulf, 2006;

Toffler, 1973). With more employees to manage, it becomes difficult for leaders to provide each employee the amount of structure they may need to feel satisfied with their job (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995). Furthermore, knowledge-based work is ambiguous and complex, which may make employees feel a sense of role ambiguity (Anand, Gardner, & Morris, 2007). Role ambiguity is often associated with negative attitudes and outcomes, and leader behaviors such as initiating structure can reduce feelings of role ambiguity (Dierdorff & Rubin, 2007; House & Rizzo, 1972). If role ambiguity has increased over time along with the increases in complexity and autonomy that often come with knowledge-based work, employees may want more structure from their leaders, making it important to their job satisfaction.

Practical Implications

Several practical recommendations can be made based on the findings from this research. From these findings, it is clear that organization members at all levels should provide support to the employees they work with. Strong relationships were witnessed between the interpersonally-oriented variables and satisfaction; the same was witnessed for OCB and supervisor-rated task performance. More specifically, both peers and leaders of employees should encourage and show acceptance for the individuals they work with in order to keep them satisfied (House, 1995; Mohr & Wolfram, 2010). Leaders in organizations should also do their best to foster collaborative, as opposed to competitive, environments, as they may be better suited for encouraging employee social support and collegiality, and, in turn, job satisfaction (Martin, 2005; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995). When employees are stressed due to high demands, feeling supported by coworkers can help them feel more satisfied about their job (Halbesleben, 2006; Mohrman & Cohen, 1995). Managers, however, should be careful as to not specifically focus on

fostering friendships at work, as doing so may inadvertently cause individuals to feel more alienated. For example, those who are high on introversion or who are members of a minority group may benefit more from an organization where coworkers are supportive and collegial as opposed to an organization that places great emphasis on developing friendships at work.

These findings further suggest that initiating structure behaviors exhibited by leaders may be more valued by employees now than in the past. It is possible that because modern-day knowledge-based work environment is highly complex, ambiguous, demanding, and autonomous, employees may be too overwhelmed if they do not receive specific instructions from their bosses (Bordia et al., 2004; House, 1971). They may desire more structure when trying to make decisions in a highly autonomous and uncertain work environment. These results suggest that this type of instructional support may even be more important when leading work projects in today's work environment as compared with the past work environment.

That being said, recent arguments that organizations should drastically change traditional approaches to keep up with the changing nature of work (Cascio & Montealegre, 2016; Davidow, 1992) were not supported based on the present data. This suggests the possibility that interpersonally-oriented behaviors have not become increasingly important over time. Organizations planning to make large-scale changes based on assumptions of what is different about the modern-day work environment compared with the past work are advised to delay such changes until more empirical examination of such changes is conducted. More research needs to be done regarding the changing nature of work before researchers can decide how to update management practices to best suit employees and organizations. Making changes without fully understanding how the workplace environment has changed and how management practices

should be changed could result in management practices that hurt employee satisfaction rather than help it.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although the present effort contributes to the literature in several ways, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of this work. First, the meta-analytic collection conducted for Studies 3 and 4 did not result in a large number of studies to examine relationships between the variables of interest. Furthermore, for Study 3, there were not as many studies in recent years than there were in the past. Therefore, potential changes in the strength of the relationships we examined over time may not have been detected. Future meta-analytic studies on the changing nature of work may examine other variables that may have more adequate sample sizes for a meta-analytic study that examines relationships over time.

Second, Studies 3 and 4 were limited in terms of the range of the years for the available studies. For Study 3 examining individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, the collected studies only ranged over the course of 25 years, from 1987 to 2012. In Study 4, OCB data were only available to analyze the years 1995 to 2013, which only made 18 years available for use in analysis. It is possible that if earlier data were available, we would find year to have a stronger impact on the variables we examined in these studies. Future research can examine constructs that have a larger time period available to explore the possibility for such changes to the workplace.

Third, as noted above our results are limited because our outcome variables were limited to satisfaction for Studies 1, 2, and 3 and task performance for Study 4. Future research may want to expand beyond satisfaction and task performance as outcome variables. Examining

specific behaviors that employees and managers have placed value on could prove a fruitful avenue for future research.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The changing nature of work is frequently referenced, although research documenting proposed changes is limited. Using four comprehensive meta-analyses, this study provides one of the first empirical studies to document changes in workplace attitudes over time. Our study, however, does not, in general, support changes in the importance of interpersonally-oriented behaviors over time. Accordingly, our results suggest the importance of empirically examining how the workplace has changed over time and what this means for workers before making recommendations for workplace managerial updates—updates that may be founded on assumed, but not tested, changes.

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Table 1

Literature Search Information for All Studies

Study	Construct		Criterion Variable	Keywords	Prior Meta and Year	Years in Meta Update	Original Search Number of Studies	Citation Search
Study 1	Interpersonal Construct	Social Support	Job Satisfaction	'coworker support', 'job characteristics', 'job complexity', 'job design', 'job enrichment', 'skill variety', 'social interdependence', 'work and friendship', and 'work and social support'	Humphrey et al. (2007); Years prior to 2005	2005-2013	1898	None
	Task Counterpart	Skill Variety						
Study 2	Interpersonal Construct	Consideration	Job Satisfaction	'consideration and group performance', 'consideration and leader effectiveness', 'consideration and motivation', 'initiating structure', 'production centered', and 'LBDQ'	Judge et al. (2004); Years prior to 2002	2002-2013	920	Judge et al. (2004)
	Task Counterpart	Initiating Structure						
Study 3	Interpersonal Construct	Individualized Consideration	Satisfaction with Leadership	'charisma', 'charismatic leadership', 'vision', and 'transformational leadership'.	Judge and Piccolo (2004); Years prior to 2003	2003-2013	3110	Judge and Piccolo (2004)
	Task Counterpart	Intellectual Stimulation						
Study 4	Interpersonal Construct	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors-Individual	Supervisor-Rated Task Performance	'organizational citizenship behaviors'	(Hoffman et al., 2007); Years prior to 2007	2007-2013	1861	Williams and Anderson (1991)
	Task Counterpart	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors-Organization	Supervisor-Rated Task Performance					

Table 2

Sample Items from the Most Commonly Used Measures Among the Articles Coded for All Studies

Social Support	Leadership Consideration	OCB
Job Characteristics Inventory (Sims et al., 1976) • Social Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ How much opportunity is there to meet individuals whom you would like to develop friendship with? ○ To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work? ○ Friendship from my co-workers ○ The opportunity to talk to others on my job ○ The opportunity to get to know other people. ○ The opportunity to develop close friendships in my job. • Skill Variety <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ How much variety is there in y our job? ○ How repetitious are your duties? ○ To what extent is your job equivalent to being one small cog in a big machine? ○ The opportunity to do a number of different things ○ The amount of variety in my job 	Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) • Consideration <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Does personal favors for group members. ○ Is easy to understand. ○ Finds time to listen to group members. ○ Looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members. ○ Backs up the members in their actions. ○ Treats all group members as equals. ○ Is willing to make changes. ○ Is friendly and approachable. • Initiating Structure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Makes attitudes clear to the group. ○ Tries out new ideas with the group. ○ Rules with an iron hand. ○ Criticizes poor work. ○ Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines. ○ Assigns group members to particular tasks. ○ Schedules the work to be done. ○ Maintains definite standards of performance. ○ Encourages the use of uniform procedures. 	Williams and Anderson (1991) • OCBI <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Helps others who have been absent. ○ Helps others who have heavy workloads. ○ Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked). ○ Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries. ○ Goes out of way to help new employees. ○ Takes a personal interest in other employees. ○ Passes along information to co-workers. • OCBO <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Attendance at work is above the norm. ○ Gives advance notice when unable to come to work. ○ Takes undeserved work breaks. (R) ○ Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations. (R) ○ Complains about insignificant things at work. (R) ○ Conserves and protects organizational property. ○ Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.

Note. Individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation items are not listed because the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2000) is under copyright. (R) indicates a reverse-scored item.

Table 3

Social Support and Skill Variety Measures Used and Frequency of Use in Correlations Coded for Study 1

Measure Name	Frequency	Construct
Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)	45	Skill Variety
Ad hoc	29	Both
Caplan et al. (1975)	8	Social Support
Job Characteristics Inventory (Sims et al., 1976)	9	Both
Hackman and Lawler (1971)	5	Skill Variety
National Study of the Changing Workforce (Bond, 2002)	3	Social Support
Pinneau (1975)	3	Social Support
House (1981)	2	Social Support
Job Content Questionnaire (Karasek et al., 1998)	2	Social Support
Pilot Interviews (Herzberg, 1965; 1974; Adapted)	2	Social Support
Fraley and Shaver (2000)	2	Social Support
Yale Job Inventory (Lawler, Hackman, & Kaufman, 1973)	2	Skill Variety
Florian and Kravetz (1985)	1	Social Support
Job in General (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989)	1	Social Support
Prison Social Climate Survey (Wright & Saylor, 1992)	1	Social Support
Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Adapted)	1	Skill Variety
Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1980)	1	Skill Variety
Job Diagnostic Survey (Idaszak, Bottom, & Drasgow, 1988; Revised)	1	Skill Variety
Job Characteristics Inventory (Sims et al., 1976) & Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975)	1	Skill Variety
Job Complexity Scale & Work Design Questionnaire (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006)	1	Skill Variety
Kunin (1955)	1	Skill Variety
Job Diagnostic Survey (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987; Adapted)	1	Skill Variety

Table 4

Study 1 Meta-Analytic Results of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction

	<i>k</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_c</i>	95% CI	80% CRI	% var SE
Aggregate social support	57	133178	.37	.46	.46-.47	.33-.60	.22
Skill variety	75	39836	.34	.45	.44-.45	.17-.73	.40
Peer social support	16	47237	.35	.41	.40-.41	.27-.54	.38
Supervisor social support	22	75285	.44	.51	.51-.52	.44-.58	.27

Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *n* = sample size; *r* = mean of uncorrected correlations; *r_c* = mean of study correlations corrected for reliability; CI = confidence interval; CRI = credibility interval; var = variance; SE = standard error.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Number of Studies for Specific Correlation for Study 1 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	2 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	3 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	4 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	5 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	6 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	7 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	8 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	9 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)
1. Year	1991.45	11.95	-								
2. Social support and job sat. <i>r</i>	.37	.15	.46* (57)	-							
3. Skill variety and job sat. <i>r</i>	.34	.16	-.08* (75)	.24† (10)	-						
4. Social support <i>Rxx</i>	.82	.10	.46* (49)	.28* (49)	+ (1)	-					
5. Skill variety <i>Rxx</i>	.74	.11	.33* (45)	+ (1)	.20 (47)	+ (1)	-				
6. Job Satisfaction <i>Rxx</i>	.81	.10	.23* (88)	.11 (45)	-.12 (46)	.20 (42)	.38* (43)	-			
7. <i>N</i>	1257.36	4935.93	.06 (132)	.02 (57)	-.10 (75)	.15 (49)	.02 (47)	-.03 (90)	-		
8. Sample % male	54.87	26.38	-.35 (77)	-.24 (37)	.04 (39)	-.08 (31)	-.36 (29)	-.02 (55)	-.04 (74)	-	
9. Occupational skill level	2.60	.52	.49 (10)	+ (2)	.26 (7)	+ (2)	+ (2)	+ (7)	.29 (9)	-.72 (5)	-

Note. sat.= satisfaction; *r* = correlation; *Rxx* = reliability; *N* = total sample size; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard deviation; *r* = uncorrected correlation; *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; * = $p < .05$; † = taken from Humphrey et al. (2007); + = sample size not sufficient to compute correlation.

Table 6

Study 1 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction on the Moderating Role of Year

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>p</i>
Aggregate social support	56	.01	.20	.00
Skill variety	73	-.00	.01	.49
Peer social support	16	.01	.47	.00
Supervisor social support	22	.01	.34	.00

Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; *R*² = variance accounted for.

Table 7

Study 1 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Sample Percent Male

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Aggregate social support	30	.00	.15	.04
Skill variety	39	-.00	.03	.35
Peer social support	9	.01	.72	.01
Supervisor social support	12	.01	.37	.047

Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for.

Table 8

Study 1 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Occupational Skill

Outcome variable	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Aggregate social support	20	.01	.31	.02
Skill variety	21	.00	.02	.59
Peer social support	5	.01	.41	.78
Supervisor social support	2	.00	.41	.37

*Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; B = beta value; R² = variance accounted for; * = sample size not sufficient to run analysis.*

Table 9

Study 2 Meta-Analytic Results of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction

	<i>k</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_c</i>	95% CI	80% CRI	% var SE
Consideration	54	5626	.51	.68	.66-.69	.36-.99	.72
Initiating structure	58	6473	.15	.37	.35-.39	.00-.81	1.08

Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *n* = sample size; *r* = mean of uncorrected correlations; *r_c* = mean of study correlations corrected for reliability; CI = confidence interval; CRI = credibility interval; var = variance; SE = standard error.

Table 10

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Number of Studies for Specific Correlation for Study 2 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	2 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	3 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	4 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	5 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	6 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	7 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	8 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	9 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)
1. Year	1973.91	6.08	-								
2. Consideration and job sat. <i>r</i>	.51	.26	-.01 * (54)	-							
3. IS and job sat. <i>r</i>	.15	.33	.42* (58)	.14† (181)	-						
4. Consideration reliability	.85	.04	.02 (15)	.18 (19)	-.62 (9)	-					
5. IS reliability	.83	.05	.16 (19)	-.36 (5)	.11 (19)	.57 (8)	-				
6. Job sat. reliability	.89	.05	-.51* (16)	.47* (20)	.52* (20)	.02 (19)	-.11 (19)	-			
7. <i>N</i>	108.03	115.36	.35* (112)	-.30 (25)	-.37 (24)	-.00 (17)	-.04 (17)	.21 (49)	-		
8. <i>Sample % male</i>	42.05	38.85	.29* (75)	.19 (177)	.11 (15)	.15 (12)	-.19 (11)	.16 (34)	-.19 (42)	-	
9. Occupation skill level	2.27	.78	-.22 (79)	.09 (22)	.08* (20)	.05 (14)	.13 (13)	.19 (40)	.01 (55)	.19 (41)	-

Note. sat. = satisfaction; *r* = correlation; IS = initiating structure; *Rxx* = reliability; *N* = total sample size; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard deviation; *r* = uncorrected correlation; *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; * $p < .05$; † = taken from Judge et al. (2004).

Table 11

Study 2 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction on the Moderating Role of Year

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Consideration	54	.01	.00	.94
Initiating structure	58	.02	.17	.00

Note. Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for.

Table 12

Study 2 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Sample Percent Male

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Consideration	37	-.00	.03	.93
Initiating structure	38	.02	.31	.00

Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for.

Table 13

Study 2 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Job Satisfaction on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Occupational Skill

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Consideration	38	-.00	.01	.60
Initiating structure	41	.01	.18	.42

Note. Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for.

Table 14

Study 3 Meta-Analytic Results of Variables Correlated with Satisfaction with Leadership

	<i>k</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_c</i>	95% CI	80% CRI	% var SE
Individualized consideration	25	8004	.64	.73	.72-.74	.44-1.00	.52
Intellectual stimulation	24	7812	.61	.68	.66-.69	.40-.95	.62

Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *n* = sample size; *r_c* = mean of study correlations; CI = confidence interval; CRI = credibility interval; var = variance; SE = standard error.

Table 15

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Number of Studies for Specific Correlation for Study 3 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	2 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	3 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	4 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	5 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	6 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	7 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	8 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)	9 <i>r</i> (<i>k</i>)
1. Year	1996.03	8.18	-								
2. Individualized consideration and sat. <i>r</i>	.64	.19	.09 (27)	-							
3. Intellectual stimulation and sat. <i>r</i>	.61	.17	.03 (26)	.68† (22)	-						
4. Individualized consideration <i>Rxx</i>	.86	.06	-.26 (19)	-.25* (15)	.20 (18)	-					
5. Intellectual stimulation <i>Rxx</i>	.84	.07	-.38 (19)	.02 (18)	-.08 (19)	.55* (18)	-				
6. Sat. <i>Rxx</i>	.87	.59	-.11 (54)	.25 (7)	-.77* (9)	.42 (7)	-.39 (9)	-			
7. <i>N</i>	321.49	381.82	-.07 (69)	.08 (54)	.26 (58)	.12 (15)	.16 (19)	.29 (16)	-		
8. Gender % male	29.83	36.69	-.33* (47)	-.18 (37)	.05 (38)	.59 (11)	.18 (13)	.19 (7)	.09 (75)	-	
9. Occupational skill	2.67	.57	-.30* (60)	.03 (38)	-.41* (41)	.97* (12)	.81* (15)	.13 (9)	.06 (79)	-.30* (46)	

Note. sat. = Satisfaction with leadership; *r* = correlation; *Rxx* = reliability; *N* = total sample size; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard deviation; *r* = uncorrected correlation; *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; * $p < .05$; † = taken from Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996).

Table 16

Study 3 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Satisfaction with Leadership on the Moderating Role of Year

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Individualized consideration	25	.00	.01	.66
Intellectual stimulation	24	.00	.00	.88

Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for.

Table 17

Study 3 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Satisfaction with Leadership on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Sample Percent Male

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
Individualized consideration	17	.01	.10	.33
Intellectual stimulation	15	.00	.03	.64

Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; B = beta value; R² = variance accounted for.

Table 18

Study 3 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Satisfaction with Leadership on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Occupational Skill

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>p</i>
Individualized consideration	19	.01	.23	.047
Intellectual stimulation	19	.00	.14	.15

Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; *R*² = variance accounted for.

Table 19

Study 4 Meta-Analytic Results of Variables Correlated with Task Performance

	<i>k</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r_c</i>	95% CI	80% CRI	% var SE
OCB aggregate	49	8249	.57	.67	.66-.69	.54-.81	.60
OCB overall	10	1677	.58	.66	.63-.69	.54-.77	1.39
OCBI	19	3074	.56	.65	.63-.67	.57-.74	1.04
OCBO	20	3498	.47	.70	.68-.71	.53-.86	.87

Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *n* = sample size; *r* = mean of uncorrected correlations; *r_c* = mean of study correlations corrected for reliability; CI = confidence interval; CRI = credibility interval; var = variance; SE = standard error.

Table 20

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Number of Studies for Specific Correlation for Study 4 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
			<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>r</i>
			(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)	(<i>k</i>)
1. Year	2005.04	5.10	-										
2. OCB <i>r</i>	.57	.12	-.06 (49)	-									
3. OCBI <i>r</i>	.56	.08	-.04 (19)	.76* (17)	-								
4. OCBO <i>r</i>	.57	.15	.06 (20)	.78* (17)	.56† (37)	-							
5. OCB <i>Rxx</i>	.84	.07	.06 (20)	.03 (48)	.22 (19)	-.08 (20)	-						
6. OCBI <i>Rxx</i>	.87	.04	.06 (48)	.22 (19)	.22 (19)	-.04 (8)	-.54 (7)	-					
7. OCBO <i>Rxx</i>	.79	.06	-.03 (19)	-.08 (20)	.14 (13)	-.08 (20)	.62* (13)	-.51 (8)	-				
8. Task performance <i>Rxx</i>	.87	.06	.19 (20)	.15 (48)	.10 (19)	.24 (20)	.13 (48)	.29 (19)	-.19 (20)	-			
9. <i>N</i>	168.35	84.3 9	.26 (49)	-.09 (49)	-.06 (19)	-.09 (20)	-.09 (48)	-.28 (19)	.12 (20)	.04 (48)	-		
10. Sample % male	49.19	20.8 2	-.28 (46)	.04 (46)	-.07 (19)	.11 (20)	.23 (46)	.21 (19)	.23 (20)	.02 (46)	-.24 (46)	-	
11. Occupational skill	2.30	.47	.51* (20)	-.14 (20)	-.23 (8)	-.12 (11)	-.15 (20)	.03 (8)	-.16 (11)	.27 (20)	.60* (20)	-.53* (20)	-

Note. OCB = Organizational citizenship behavior; *r* = correlation; OCBI = organizational citizenship behavior interpersonal, OCBO = organizational citizenship behavior organization, *Rxx* = reliability; *N* = total sample size; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard deviation; *r* = uncorrected correlation; *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; † = taken from Podsakoff et al. (2009); * $p < .05$.

Table 21

Study 4 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Task Performance on the Moderating Role of Year

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
OCB aggregate	49	-.00	.00	.70
OCB overall	10	-.01	.30	.10
OCBI	19	-.00	.00	.88
OCBO	20	.00	.00	.81

Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; B = beta value; R² = variance accounted for.

Table 22

Study 4 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Task Performance on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Sample Percent Male

	<i>k</i>	Year <i>B</i>	R^2	<i>p</i>
OCB aggregate	46	-.00	.00	.78
OCB overall	7	-.01	.47	.14
OCBI	19	-.00	.01	.78
OCBO	20	.00	.02	.72

Note. Note. k = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for.

Table 23

Study 4 WLS Regression Tests of Variables Correlated with Task Performance on the Moderating Role of Year Controlling for Occupational Skill

Outcome variable	<i>k</i>	Year	R^2	<i>p</i>
OCB aggregate	20	.00	.02	.99
OCB overall	1	*	*	*
OCBI	8	.00	.05	.92
OCBO	11	.00	.01	.96

Note. Note. Note. *k* = number of studies for specific correlation; *B* = beta value; R^2 = variance accounted for; * = sample size not sufficient to run analysis.

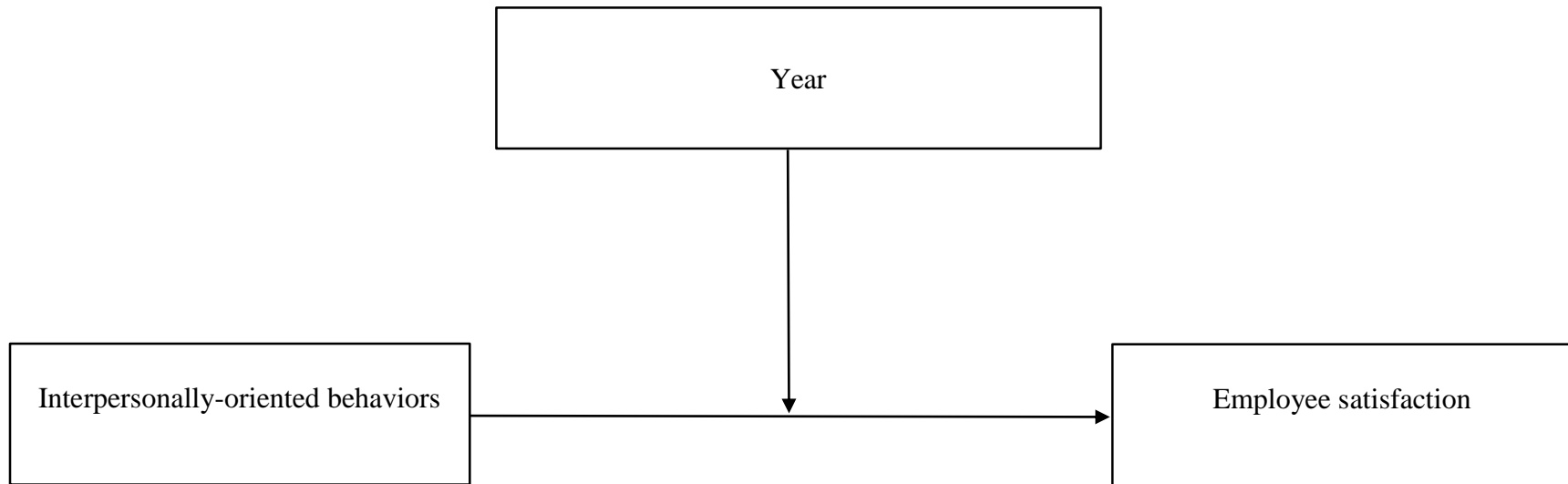


Figure 1. Conceptual model showing the impact of year on the relationship between interpersonally-oriented behaviors and employee satisfaction.