

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND PERFORMANCE

APPRAISAL:

THE MODERATING INFLUENCE OF RACE

by

CARRIE L. NOBLE

(Under the direction of Lillian T. Eby)

ABSTRACT

Performance appraisal is a crucial element in employee development. The role of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) on performance evaluations was investigated using liking and perceived competence as mediators. In a 2x2x2 design, the relationship between race of the ratee (Black/White), task performance (high/low), and OCBs (high/low) was explored. Of specific interest was whether the race of the ratee moderated the relationship between extra-role behaviors and task performance on liking and perceptions of competence. The influences of psychological mechanisms related to stereotyping (specifically, liking and perceptions of competence) were examined as mediators of the OCB-outcome relationship. Results indicated that liking completely mediated the OCB-performance outcome relationship and partially mediated that task performance-performance outcome relationship. Perceived competence partially mediated both the OCB and task performance-performance outcome relationships. Race of the ratee was not related to any of the study variables. Results are discussed in terms of their theoretical and practical implications.

INDEX WORDS: Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, Race, Task Performance, Perceived Competence, Liking

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INTRODUCTION

The effective functioning of an organization is a multifaceted construct. One component of organizational effectiveness is the valid, accurate, and appropriate use of performance appraisals. Performance appraisals are vitally important to both employees and organizations and serve a variety of functions in human resource management. For example, performance appraisal ratings are used to make decisions regarding promotions, merit increases and decreases, training, and transfer opportunities (Cascio, 1998). As such, performance appraisals have widespread influence on the career patterns of individuals. Consequently, the format, process, effects, and task related and non-task related components of performance appraisals have been extensively studied by industrial/organizational psychologists (Bretz, Milkovich, & Read, 1992; Cascio, 1998; Landy, 1989).

Task performance has an obvious connection to performance appraisal ratings, promotion recommendations, and award allocations; task performance has a fundamental influence on overall performance evaluations. However, factors other than task performance influence performance appraisal ratings, promotion recommendations, and award allocations. For example, recent research suggests that discretionary behaviors or organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are salient to raters and influence the appraisal process (Allen & Rush, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Werner, 1994). In addition, raters' preconceived notions (i.e., stereotypes) about certain groups can also influence performance judgments (Cascio, 1998; DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983;

Landy, 1989). Since factors other than task performance appear to influence subjective ratings of employees, it is important for researchers to understand the social-cognitive mechanisms that influence the appraisal process.

One social-cognitive mechanism that has been recently linked to performance appraisal ratings is positive affect (Allen & Rush, 1998; Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Dobbins & Russell, 1986; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Liking has been demonstrated to influence the outcome of performance appraisals. Specifically, research has demonstrated that liking from a supervisor has a positive impact on performance appraisal ratings (Allen & Rush, 1998; Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Dobbins & Russell, 1986; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Another social-cognitive influence on performance appraisal ratings is stereotyping. While there are many types of stereotypical beliefs, of particular interest in the current study is the effect that the race of the ratee has on performance judgments. Categorization of individuals according to their racial group is a psychological heuristic that minimizes the cognitive effort required to understand social situations. However, categorization of individuals by their racial group is not devoid of qualitative assessment; racial stereotypes are associated with categorization by race and, as such, could influence subjective measures of job performance (Cascio, 1998; DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983; Landy, 1989). Thus, biased views regarding minority group members could negatively influence their performance appraisals from majority group members. Stereotyped beliefs could affect a rater's perception of the competence of a ratee or the liking felt for a ratee. The purpose of the current study is to investigate the psychological

processes (i.e., liking and perceptions of competence) by which OCBs influence rater outcomes and the role that race plays in understanding this relationship (see Figure 1).

Though OCBs have a unique influence on performance appraisals beyond task performance, the race of a rater could influence both the direction and magnitude of the influence of OCBs on performance appraisal ratings. Therefore, liking felt toward a rater due to the performance of OCBs might lead the rater to give an individual higher performance ratings and recommendations for promotions and awards. However, bias felt toward members of minority groups might complicate the relationship between task performance, OCBs, liking, and performance appraisals and outcomes. Consequently, the negative stereotypes associated with racial minority group members might counteract the positive impact of OCBs. The proposed study answers the call for research intended to explain how the racial attitudes of non-Blacks influence the experiences of Black individuals (Thomas, Phillips, & Brown, 1998) and extends the OCB literature by examining the possible moderating effect of race on the OCB-performance relationship.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organ (1988) initially defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as representing “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). OCBs were described as behaviors not required by an organization; they are not explicitly listed in a job description. Organ (1997) recently modified his original definition due to some debate and confusion in the literature regarding the ambiguity of the construct, its overlap with contextual performance, as well as to accommodate changing organizational structures and the

definition of jobs within organizations. Currently, OCB is synonymous with contextual performance and is defined as behavior that contributes to the “maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (Organ, 1997, p. 91). As such, OCBs continue to be behaviors that are not explicitly required by the organization; they are behaviors performed at the discretion of an employee without expectation of organizational rewards. In addition, OCBs are behaviors that encourage cooperation and association. OCBs also facilitate interpersonal relationships between employees and their peers and supervisors because they are often acts that demonstrate sensitivity to the needs of fellow employees and an awareness of the relationships that exist in the workplace (Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997).

A review of empirical research demonstrated that OCBs contribute to organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). A recent taxonomy of contextual performance can be used to delineate the five dimensions of OCB. As described by Borman and Motowidlo (1997), the dimensions include: “persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort as necessary to complete own task activities successfully,” “volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of own job,” “helping and cooperating with others,” “following organizational rules and procedures,” “endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives.” Some examples of OCBs in organizations include low absenteeism, punctuality, welcoming and orienting a new employee, accepting difficult or inconvenient assignments without complaint, and staying late at work to finish a project (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui, 1993; Werner, 1994). As such, OCBs influence the internal workings of an organization and promote organizational effectiveness.

Although OCBs are discretionary behaviors not required by the employer, raters have been shown to assess individuals' OCBs, in addition to overall task performance, when appraising job performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Werner, 1994). OCBs add significantly to the estimation of performance beyond the effect of actual task performance. Raters of individual performance appear to pay attention to OCBs and, subsequently, to use knowledge of OCBs in evaluating overall job performance. In fact, some studies indicate that objective measures of task performance and OCBs contribute approximately equally to the variance in performance evaluations (MacKenzie et al., 1991; MacKenzie et al., 1993). These studies have also demonstrated that OCBs contribute something significantly different to the evaluation of overall performance beyond task performance. However, the psychological processes linking OCBs to performance appraisal ratings have only recently gained attention. The scarcity of research in this area makes it difficult to understand how and why OCBs influence job performance outcomes. Recent research has shed some light on this issue by isolating several social-cognitive processes that mediate the OCB-performance relationship (Allen & Rush, 1998). However, additional research is needed on this topic.

Social-Cognitive Processes

Social-cognitive processes refer to the influence of schemata, stereotypes, and attributions on recall, memory, and judgment. These processes include the use of cognitive heuristics to facilitate the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information about an individual and are elements of information processing (DeNisi, Cafferty, & Meglino, 1984; Feldman, 1981). Such cognitive shortcuts influence how information is

acquired, categorized, and retrieved from memory. The social-cognitive processes involved in performance evaluation may be related to the influence of stereotypes and attributions about a ratee that may bias a rater's memory of a ratee's actions and, consequently, judgments of the ratee's performance.

Mechanisms of categorization simplify the processing of the excessive amounts of information received from the senses. Allport (1958) proposes five characteristics of categorization. Different experiences in life are formed into large classes to facilitate the processing of new information; new information is then categorized based on previous experiences. The process of categorization involves assimilating new information as rapidly as possible into an appropriate class. This assimilation of new information into a pre-existing class facilitates the ability to recognize or judge the new information according to the class with which it is associated. Allport (1958) indicates that categories are relatively rational. For example, racial categorizations often have a rational basis; Blacks people typically have darker skin than White people.

Categories frequently have an emotional component; all new information categorized into a preformed class is associated with the emotional component of that class. For example, if the concept "Black person" is accompanied by a negative emotional component, then categorization of an individual into the "Black person" class will cue the negativity associated with that class. Thus, due to this emotional aspect of categorization and assimilation, irrational categories are formed as easily as rational categories but are based on insignificant evidence. Such categorization is the foundation for the development of stereotypes; it is an essential and unavoidable aspect of life (Allport, 1958). The implications of automatic processing or categorizing of information

are that schemata or prototype consistent information about an individual is attended to whereas other less consistent information is not. Thus, individuals may be categorized based on group membership, and such categorization guides the comprehension and interpretation of their future behavior (Feldman, 1981).

While automatic processing serves various functional purposes, with respect to the current study, categorization heuristics have implications for the processing of information regarding both OCBs and race. Categorization can occur due to the awareness by a rater of certain salient stimuli about a ratee; these stimuli can include race, sex, or even discretionary behaviors performed on the job (Allen & Rush, 1998; Cox, 1993; DeNisi et al., 1984; Feldman, 1981). Devine (1989) demonstrated that, for both low and high prejudiced individuals, the automatic activation of racial stereotypes is persistent and unavoidable. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Hui (1993) describe the automatic process, as it relates to OCBs, as one in which a manager's belief that OCBs relate to overall performance may cause him/her to immediately presume high levels of performance when he/she observes high levels of OCBs.

In a recent article, Allen and Rush (1998) investigated the social-cognitive processes of raters in the context of OCBs and performance judgments. Using both a laboratory and a field setting they demonstrated that positive affect (e.g., liking) felt for a ratee accounts for some of the influence of OCBs on performance evaluations and award allocations. More specifically, OCBs appeared to cue positive affect for the ratee from the rater. Thus, liking had an influence on later evaluations of performance and award recommendations. Although not addressed in their study, Allen and Rush suggest there

may be variables that moderate the relationship between OCB and performance judgments. One such moderating variable could be the race of the rater.

Race

The positive relationship discovered by Allen and Rush (1998) between OCBs and performance evaluations and award allocations may not consistently apply to all individuals. Specifically, social-cognitive processes among White raters toward Black ratees may detract from the positive influence of OCBs on affect and, thereby, on positive affect's influence on subsequent performance judgments. This could occur because stereotypes are often negative and the negativity associated with the stereotype may influence the amount of positive affect felt toward a Black rater. This, in turn, would lessen the positive influence of OCBs on affect. Raters would be predisposed to feel less positive affect for Black ratees as a by-product of the negative nature of stereotypes.

Stereotyping is a "process by which individuals are viewed as members of groups and the information that we have stored in our minds about the group is ascribed to the individual" (Cox, 1993, p. 88). As previously stated, stereotypes are necessary to conserve the cognitive resources involved in information processing. However, they are not merely classifications of individuals that are devoid of any qualitative assessment. Stereotypes are associated with judgments about an individual that are frequently negative in nature (see Table 1) (Cox, 1993). Though stereotypes are not static, there is considerable consistency in the negative stereotypes regarding Blacks; namely, that Blacks are less intelligent and less able than Whites (Cox, 1993). Raters may not be aware of their stereotypes and may not realize how these stereotypes manifest themselves as obvious or subtle biases against individuals. These biases or prejudices can emerge in

a variety of settings, including performance evaluations in an organization. In fact, research has shown that, though the effects are not large, even when taking into consideration “true” performance differences, Black ratees consistently receive lower performance evaluations from White raters than do White ratees (Pulakos, White, Oppler, & Borman, 1989; Sackett & DuBois, 1991).

One explanation of the process whereby race influences performance appraisal ratings is through the biased influence of cognitive heuristics. Negative stereotypes of minority group members may cue negative associations that influence liking and perceived competence. Blacks may be less liked and perceived as less competent than Whites based on stereotypes of Blacks as uneducated, ambitionless, lazy, and undependable (Krueger, 1996; Peffley & Hurwitz, 1998; Wilson, 1996). Related to this notion, Judge and Ferris (1993) demonstrated that supervisors’ affect for subordinates was positively affected by demographic similarity (age and experience). It is reasonable to expect that racial demographic similarity may also have a corresponding effect on supervisor affect. Demographic dissimilarity as well as prejudice felt toward minority groups because of negative stereotypes may negatively affect raters’ liking for, and perceptions of the competence of, minority ratees. Further, it is possible that the motives behind minority ratees’ behavior are viewed pessimistically because of supervisor compliance with commonly held negative stereotypes. Thus, stereotypes about Black ratees may mitigate the positive influence of OCB on performance evaluations, such that Black ratees may not receive the positive benefits from OCBs on their overall performance appraisal ratings.

In the present study, the mediating mechanisms of positive affect and perceptions of competence are examined to determine their influence on the relationship between OCBs and performance judgments, recommendation for promotion, and award allocations for Black ratees. In the sections that follow, these variables are discussed in detail.

Positive Affect

The connection between stereotypes and affect or emotion can best be understood via the schema-triggered affect model that proposes that categories are frequently the basis for affective reactions (Fiske, 1982). This indicates that the reception of input involves comprehending the input, integrating it with existing schema, and then evaluating the input using the affect linked to the schema (Fiske, 1982). OCBs, which by definition facilitate the smooth functioning of an organization and lessen the workload of a supervisor, should be associated with positive affect on the part of the rater (Allen & Rush, 1998). As such, OCB's influence on positive affect from a rater should be linked to higher performance appraisals and positive outcomes for a ratee. Research has indicated that affective reactions influence the process of performance appraisal (Allen & Rush, 1998; Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). For instance, positive affect felt toward a subordinate has been shown to positively affect supervisor ratings of subordinate job performance (Allen & Rush, 1998; Judge & Ferris, 1993). Allen and Rush (1998) also demonstrated that positive affect mediates the relationship between OCB and both performance judgments and award allocation.

The current research will extend the findings of Allen and Rush (1998) by attempting to demonstrate that the relationship between OCBs and positive affect may

not hold for Black ratees (see Figure 2). Categorization as a minority involves an association with a number of negative stereotypes and a recognition of demographic dissimilarity. Therefore, the potential negative affective response associated with minority group categorization could counter the positive affective response associated with levels of OCB.

H1: Liking will mediate the relationship between OCBs and overall performance evaluations, promotion recommendations, and award allocation.

H2: Liking will mediate the relationship between task performance and overall performance evaluations, promotion recommendations, and award allocation.

H3: Race of the ratee will moderate the relationship between OCBs and liking, such that the positive OCB-liking relationship will be weaker for Blacks than for Whites.

H4: Race of the ratee will moderate the relationship between task performance and liking, such that the positive task performance-liking relationship will be weaker for Blacks than for Whites.

Perceived Competence

Individuals who engage in OCBs are performing activities that extend beyond their job descriptions and because of this, they may be perceived as more competent than individuals who do not exhibit OCBs. The process by which this effect may occur is that of cueing a prototype of a “good employee” (Allen & Rush, 1998). Along these lines, DeNisi et al. (1984) state, “preconceived notions are a part of schemata established by the rater to provide a framework for interpreting incoming stimuli” (p. 368). The result of cueing a good employee prototype should be a positive assessment of competency. Thus, similar to liking, perceptions of competence may mediate the relationship between OCBs and overall performance assessments, recommendations for promotion, and award

allocation. However, as with liking, this relationship may be moderated by the race of the ratee.

Race may affect perceived competence, in part, because overt expression of prejudice is socially undesirable in society and the workplace. Consequently, more subtle forms of prejudice manifest in majority group members' stereotyping tendencies and their reactions to the behaviors of outgroup members (Cox, 1993; Duncan, 1976; Sagar & Schofield, 1980). Minority group members are associated with salient personality characteristics that develop from negative social stereotypes. These stereotyped-based personality characteristics have been shown to dominate the interpretation of behaviors that indicate a contradiction of the stereotype (Duncan, 1976). Applying these results to the current study would suggest that Black ratees may be stereotyped regarding their competency and ability and that the salience of race may supercede other relevant performance information. Therefore, due to negative stereotypes regarding the qualifications and competencies of Blacks, the positive OCB-perceived competence relationship is not expected to hold for Black ratees (see Figure 3). The absence of this positive relationship may result in a general tendency for White raters to evaluate Black individuals lower than similarly performing White individuals.

H5: Perceived competence will mediate the relationship between OCBs and overall performance evaluations, promotion recommendations, and award allocation.

H6: Perceived competence will mediate the relationship between task performance and overall performance evaluations, promotion recommendations, and award allocation.

H7: Race of the ratee will moderate the relationship between OCBs and perceived competence, such that the positive OCB-perceived competence relationship will be weaker for Blacks than for Whites.

H8: Race of the ratee will moderate the relationship between task performance and perceived competence, such that the positive task performance-perceived competence relationship will be weaker for Blacks than for Whites.

OCB, Task Performance, and Race

Systematically varying OCBs, task performance, and race of the ratee will allow for the examination of more complex relationships among these variables. Given the literature reviewed above, it is possible that there will be a multiplicative relationship between task performance, OCBs, and race. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H9: Level of task performance, exhibition of OCBs, and race of the ratee will differentially predict liking for a ratee, such that Whites who are high task performing and exhibit high OCB will be liked more than high task performing, high OCB Blacks.

H10: Level of task performance, exhibition of OCBs, and race of the ratee will differentially predict perceptions of competence of a ratee, such that high task performing, high OCB Whites will be perceived as more competent than high task performing, high OCB Blacks.

The general hypothesis of the current study is that OCB and task performance have an effect on rater information processing which, in turn, has an effect on performance evaluations (see Figure 1). In this way, high levels of OCBs are positively related to performance evaluations through several mediating variables. For example, liking for a ratee has been consistently shown to positively influence performance appraisal ratings (Allen & Rush, 1998; Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Dobbins & Russell, 1986; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and liking has been demonstrated to be a mediating mechanism that influences the relationship between OCBs and performance appraisals (Allen & Rush, 1998). However, since raters rely on categorization to store information about an individual, stereotypes and bias may be

expected to influence the relationship between OCBs and performance judgments for minority group members. Consequently, minority group member OCBs may not be salient enough to counter the automatic categorization by race that can have negative implications for performance appraisals. Further, stereotypes about Blacks and an awareness of demographic dissimilarity may have a negative influence on liking felt for a minority ratee, which then influences the OCB-liking-performance appraisal relationship. Negative stereotypes regarding the ambition, motivation, and cognitive capability of Blacks can be abstracted as a general disparagement of the ability of Blacks (Krueger, 1996; Peffley & Hurwitz, 1998; Wilson, 1996). As such, perceived competence may be a summary variable for a number of related negative stereotypes about Blacks. Therefore, stereotypes may have detrimental effects for Blacks on perceptions of competence, which may then affect the positive OCB-perceived competence-performance appraisal relationship.

Conceptual Model

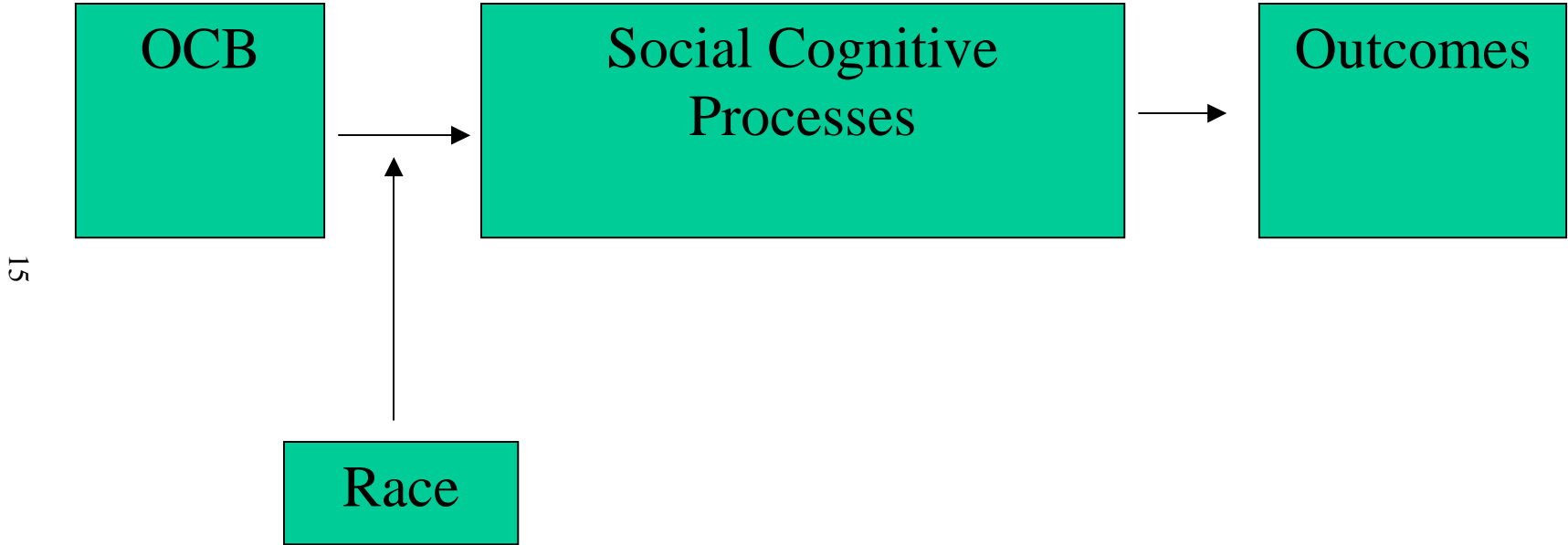


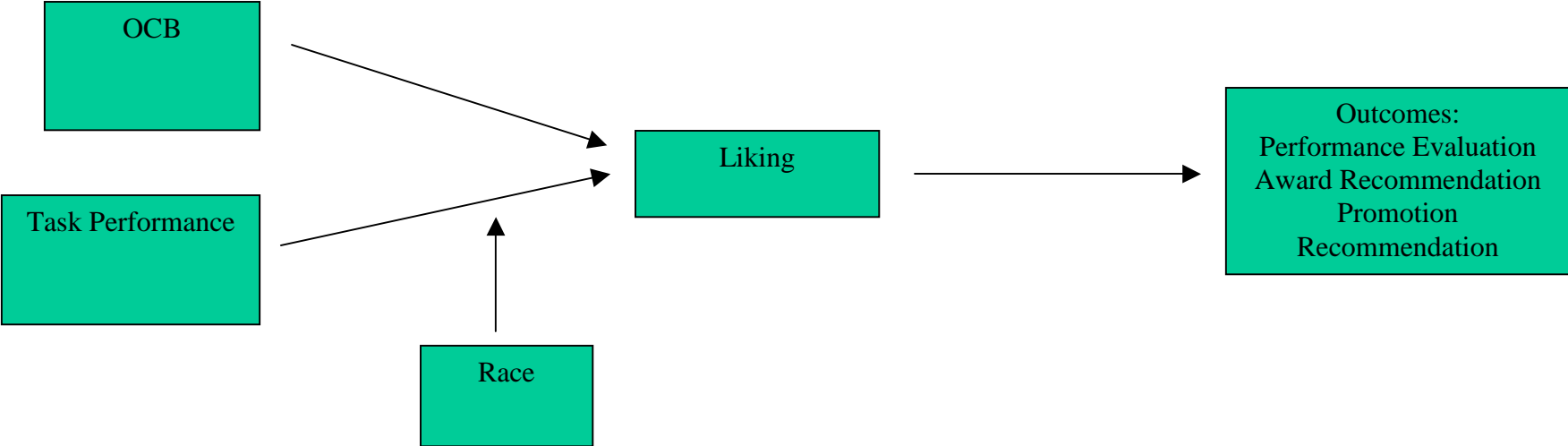
Table 1

Stereotypes of Various Racial and Ethnic Groups

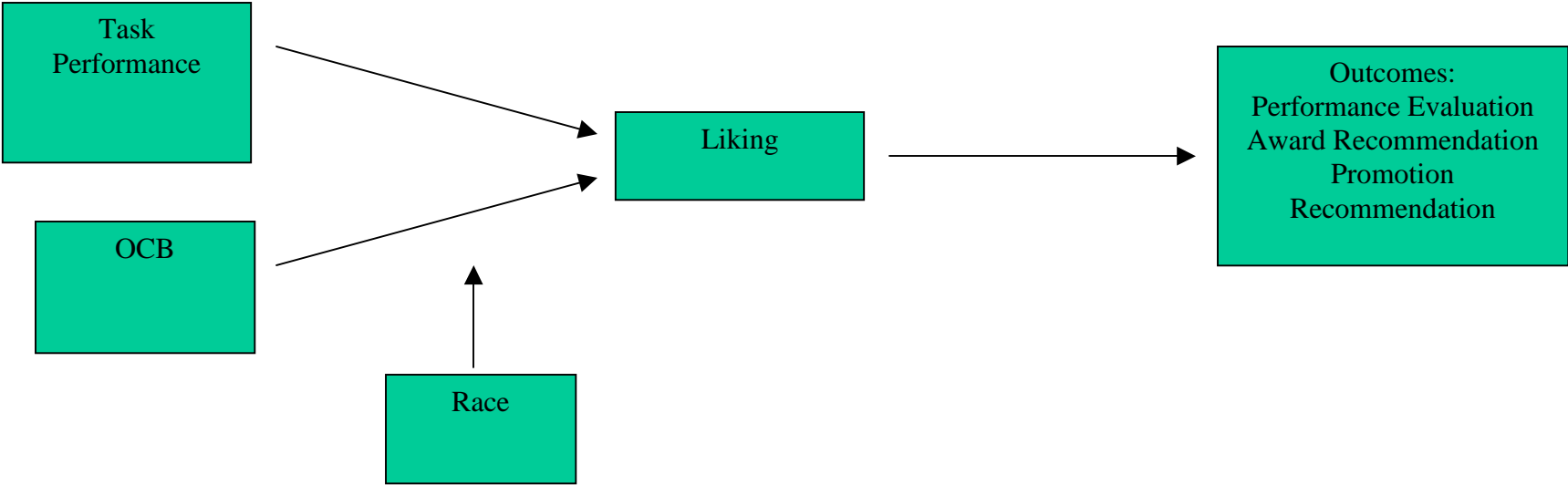
<u>Jews</u>	<u>Blacks</u>	<u>Japanese Men</u>	<u>French Men</u>	<u>White Men</u>
Rich	Athletes	Meticulous	Good lovers	Competitive
Miserly	Underqualified	Studious	Frank	Intelligent
Money-grubbing	Good dancers	Humble	Dry-humored	Insecure
Complainers	Uneducated	Workaholics	Romantic	Racist
Penny-pinchers	Untrustworthy	Racist	Harass women	Power-hungry
Self-centered	Poor	Polite	Egotistical	Manipulative
Stingy	Militant	Family-oriented	Suave	Insensitive
Cheap	Volatile	Highly intelligent	Sexy	Aggressive
Unified	Low IQs	Anti-American	Do not shower much	Ignorant
Family-oriented	Clannish	Single-minded	Superior attitude	Clannish
Status conscious	Hate Whites	Unemotional	Hate Americans	Arrogant
Racist	Lazy	Demanding	Arrogant	Not perceptive
Snobbish	Laid back	Sexist	Extremely eccentric	Domineering
Hates other religions	Defensive	Drinks a lot	Individualistic	Like to brag
Manipulative	No ambition	Productive	Unfaithful	Backstabbers
Separatists	Unmotivated	Power-hungry	Proud of country	Dishonest
Cliquish	Violent	Vindictive		Not literate
Nonrhythmic	On welfare	Defer to authority		Cold
Good at business	Love talking	Secretly envious of American life		Oppressive
Take care of own	Spendthrifts	Good at math and science		Opportunistic

Note. From Cultural Diversity in Organizations (p. 92), by T. Cox, Jr., 1993, San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers. Adapted.

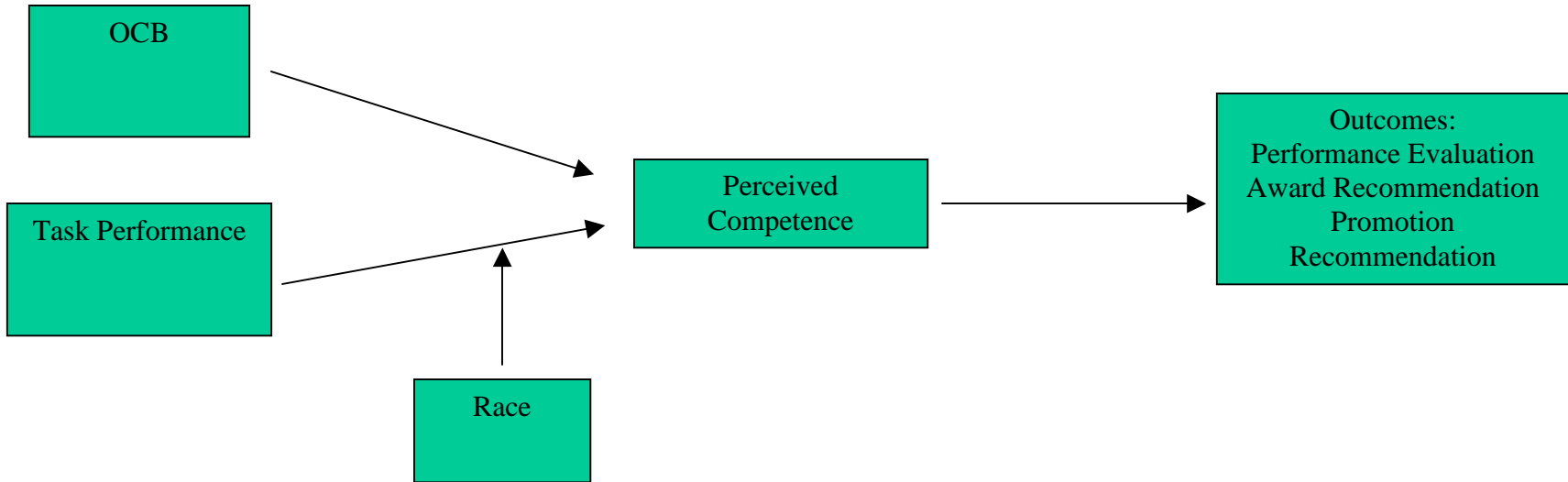
Liking Model



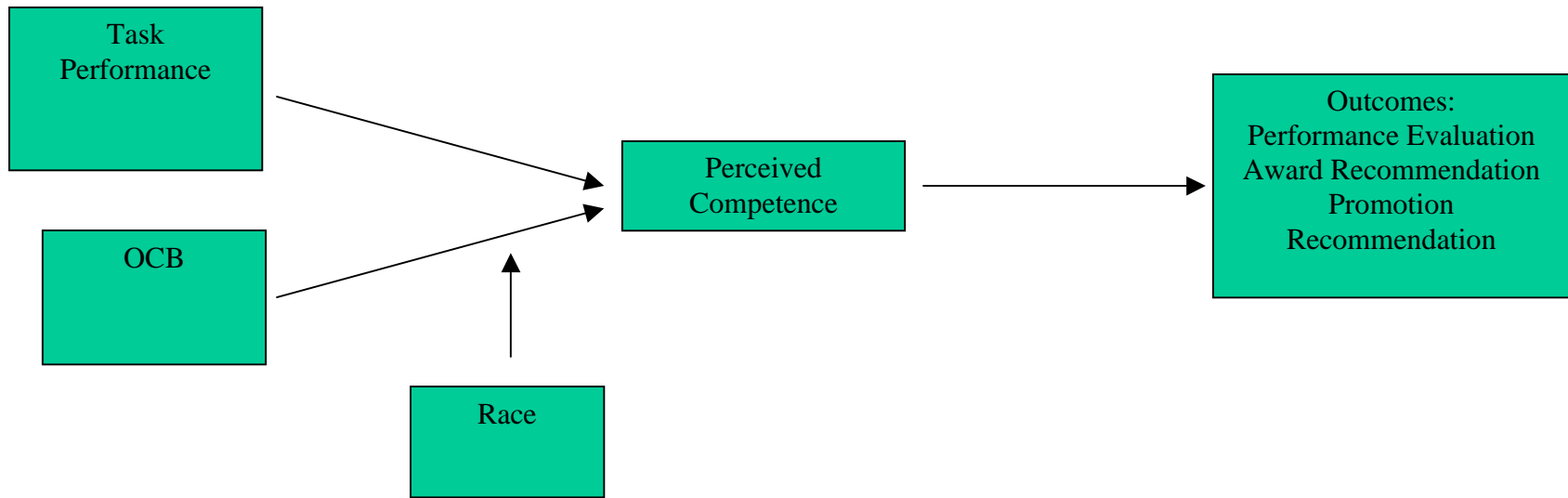
17



Perceived Competence Model



18



METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study were undergraduates at a large southeastern university. Participants were asked to enroll for one experimental session and all participants received partial course credit for their involvement. The study was open to people of all racial and ethnic backgrounds in order to deter any awareness of the purpose of the study. Participant knowledge of the sensitive nature of the research topic could influence his/her responses to measures; this could lead to invalid conclusions. A power analysis was conducted based on three independent variables, alpha of .05, power of .80, and an effect size of .12; results of the analysis indicated that a total sample size of $N=560$ with 70 participants per experimental condition would be sufficient (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The .12 effect size was chosen because race effects are small in magnitude. As such, data from 560 participants was collected with 28 men and 42 women per experimental condition.

Design and Procedure

The design was a 2 (high OCB; low OCB) x 2 (high task performance; low task performance) x 2 (Black ratee; White ratee) between subjects experimental design whereby participants were randomly assigned to one of eight experimental conditions: high OCB/high task performance/White ratee, high OCB/high task performance/Black ratee, low OCB/high task performance/White ratee, low OCB/high task performance/Black ratee, low OCB/low task performance/White ratee, low OCB/low task performance/Black ratee, high OCB/low task performance/White ratee, high OCB/low

task performance/Black ratee. To control for any confounds that might result from individual differences associated with any one instructor, two Black and two White male actors were utilized. Male actors were selected because to avoid possible confounding of experimental results due to the influence of caregiver stereotypes of women. The investigation was advertised as research intended to investigate teaching performance among graduate student instructors.

A memo on psychology departmental letterhead described the experimental session to participants as a component to a Graduate Evaluation Committee investigation into the declining performance of psychology graduate student assistants (see Appendix A). At the start of each experimental session, the investigator distributed copies of the memo, read the memo aloud to participants, and answered any questions regarding the study. In addition, the investigator informed participants that graduate student teachers were given no prior notification of the exact days upon which they would be videotaped throughout a semester in order to ensure an accurate reflection of the instructor's true teaching ability. This information was included to increase the realism of the experimental situation, especially in the low OCB/low task performance condition. The participant was asked to assist the psychology department's Graduate Evaluation Committee in assessing the performance of graduate student teachers, in developing training guidelines, and providing feedback to current graduate student teachers interested in pursuing careers in academia. In addition, participants received a bar graph representing the declining performance of psychology graduate student teachers as compared to graduate student teachers in other departments (see Appendix A). The experimental session involved participants viewing a short videotaped performance of a

graduate student teacher lecturing to students in a classroom. After viewing the videotape, participants completed measures assessing instructor competence and likability. They also provided an overall performance evaluation, recommendation for promotion to a full time faculty position, and award endorsements for the instructor they viewed. Upon completion of the measures, participants were debriefed.

Materials

Most measures used in the experimental session were on a five point Likert-type scale with (1) indicating, “strongly disagree” and (5) indicating, “strongly agree.” The social-cognitive process variable, liking, was evaluated using a six-item scale modified from the Allen and Rush (1998) study (see Appendix B). Sample items include: “I think I would get along well with this GTA” and “I like this GTA.” The Cronbach alpha reliability estimate for the liking scale in the Allen and Rush (1998) study was .89 and in the current study was .92. The other social-cognitive process under investigation, perceived competence, was evaluated using a seven-item scale created for the current study (see Appendix B). Sample items include: “This instructor appears competent” and “This person is a capable teacher.” Cronbach alpha reliability estimate for the perceived competence scale was .94.

The dependent variables in the current study were assessed using scales modified from the Allen and Rush (1998) study (see Appendix C). Participants were asked to evaluate a graduate student teacher’s overall performance on a five-item scale. The Cronbach alpha for the overall evaluation scale in the Allen and Rush (1998) study was .92 and the current study was .93. Sample items include: “This GTA is a vital part of the University of Georgia” and “This GTA makes an important contribution to the University

of Georgia.” A three-item scale was used to assess participant recommendations for instructor promotion. Sample items include: “I would recommend this instructor receive a full time faculty position at UGA” and “I would recommend this instructor receive a full time faculty position at a research university that is comparable to UGA.” Cronbach alpha for the promotion recommendation scale in the current study was .94. An additional two-item scale was used to assess award recommendation. Sample items include: “I would recommend this instructor for the Charles Darby Excellence in Teaching Award” and “I would recommend this instructor for the Herbert Zimmer Award (Teaching Assistant Fellowship).” The Cronbach alpha reliability for the award recommendation scale in the current study was .91.

Two additional items were included as a global check of the manipulation of task performance and OCBs (see Appendix C). The task performance manipulation check item was evaluated on a scale with 1) indicating “Highly ineffective” and 5) “Highly effective.” The OCB manipulation was evaluated using an item of similar format with example behaviors provided. The response options for the OCB manipulation check item range from 1) “There were no examples of extra-role behavior” to 3) “There were definitely several examples of extra-role behavior.” While participants were included in later analyses regardless of their responses to the manipulation check items, the items allowed for the assessment of the awareness among participants of the OCB and task performance manipulation. Finally, a number of items were included on the survey that related to possible behaviors that could occur in a classroom setting. Sample items include: “The instructor did not actively try to engage the students in discussion” and

“The instructor used the blackboard to help illustrate a point.” These items were included to further disguise the intention of the study.

An additional measure used in the study was a background information form. The background information form collected demographic information about each participant; some questions included the race, gender, and age of the participant. In addition, the background information form contained items to assess participant evaluations of the actor’s age and physical attractiveness to determine if those variables need be controlled during data analysis.

Development of Stimulus Materials

Sixteen videotapes were created for the study, two for each experimental manipulation, one set of stimulus conditions for each of the two Black and two White instructors. The videotape scripts were adapted from a previous study conducted by Allen and Rush (1998). OCBs were reassessed at the current university to determine the specific behaviors students’ perceive as extending beyond the job requirements of an instructor. A pilot study was conducted whereby undergraduate students ($N=44$) were asked to list all behaviors performed by teachers that exceeded the job description of a University instructor. The generated behaviors were clustered into categories and these OCBs, along with task performance behaviors, were presented to a second sample of undergraduate psychology students ($N=45$) to determine how to adequately manipulate levels of OCBs across experimental conditions. Items with the highest mean ratings on “exceed job description” were selected for inclusion in the scripts developed for this study. This included the instructor providing his/her home telephone number to students and conducting test review sessions outside of scheduled class hours.

Task performance was manipulated similar to the Allen and Rush (1998) study. High task performing instructors encouraged student participation, used illustrative examples, and answered student questions effectively. Low task performing instructors became confused by the lecture material, could not effectively deal with student questions, and appeared to read the lecture from notes.

Using Allen and Rush's (1998) scripts revised for the current study, 16 new videotapes were created (low versus high task performance; low versus high OCB; Black versus White instructor, replicated across two Black and two White instructors). A format similar to the one used in the Allen and Rush (1998) study was used to construct the videotapes. Two weeks before filming the videotapes each instructor received a training manual (see Appendix D). The training manual was intended to familiarize each instructor with the aim and design of the project. The manual included: a manual purpose statement, training schedule, an overview of the thesis topic, lists of characteristic behaviors of low and high task performers in the teaching field, lists of characteristic high and low OCBs, an overview of the lecture topic, and the scripts for the lecture. Instructors were instructed not to memorize the scripts. Rather they were asked to familiarize themselves with the thesis purpose and lecture topic as well as to review the scripts. This was important so the instructors' performances would seem spontaneous and unrehearsed. Each instructor performed in four separate videotapes to match the experimental manipulations of the study: high OCB/low OCB; high task performance/low task performance. The instructors were advanced doctoral students who have prior teaching, acting, and/or public speaking experience. In an attempt to control for potential confounding influences, all instructors wore clothing that was as

closely matched as possible and were trained to perform similar mannerisms and display a similar disposition. One additional actor played a student in the class and voices of other students were heard in the background to simulate a classroom setting as accurately as possible.

A pilot study was conducted to assess level of OCBs and level of task performance once the videotapes were created. This pilot study was intended to demonstrate that high and low OCB levels are differentiated and high and low task performance is varied. In order to deter any effect that the race of the actor might have upon the evaluation of OCB and task performance level, undergraduate psychology students listened to but did not view the videotapes before making their ratings. Participants ($N=40$) were asked to listen to two videotapes randomly selected from the available sixteen videotapes. After listening to the first tape, the participants rated the tape using the manipulation check items described above and indicated their assessment of the instructor's race, age, and gender. The same process was repeated for the second videotape. The pilot data collection process was repeated until 5 people viewed each videotape.

Collapsing across race for initial pilot data analysis of all sixteen videotapes resulted in confirmation that high task performance and low task performance manipulations resulted in evaluations of effective performance that significantly differed in the desired direction ($t(78) = 10.96, p < .001, \bar{X}_{\text{(High Task Performance)}} = 4.0, \bar{X}_{\text{(Low Task Performance)}} = 1.6$). In addition, a comparison of OCB levels across races indicated that participants were able to differentiate between the presence and absence of OCBs on the videotapes ($t(78) = 22.403, p < .001, \bar{X}_{\text{(High OCB)}} = 2.9, \bar{X}_{\text{(Low OCB)}} = 1.2$). To determine

if high and low task performance and high and low CB evaluations differed significantly across race when participants were unable to determine the race of the actor, additional analyses were conducted. No significant differences were detected between the White low OCB and Black low OCB conditions ($t(38) = .887$, n.s.) and no differences were found between White high OCB and Black high OCB conditions ($t(38) = .476$, n.s.). In addition, no significant differences were found between Black and White high task performance ($t(38) = 1.10$, n.s.) or between White and Black low task performance conditions ($t(38) = -1.99$, n.s.).

Pilot participants were also asked to indicate their perception of the race of the actor whose voice they heard on the videotape using a scale where 1 indicated White, 2 indicated Black, 3 indicated Hispanic, 4 indicated Asian, and 5 indicated Other. Analysis of participant ability to detect the race of the actor from the voice alone indicated that race was identifiable from the audio performance ($t(78) = 23.96$, $p < .001$, $\bar{X}_{(Black)} = 1.8$, $\bar{X}_{(White)} = 1.23$). Participant ability to accurately assess actor race based on voice alone raises the possibility that the significant differences that were discovered between the White and Black performances of low task performance resulted from cueing negative stereotypes about the performance of Blacks. The ability to test for the equality of videotaped performances without the influence of race was not feasible with the experiment materials in the current study as race was identifiable if the videotapes were heard by participants as well as if they were viewed. In addition, the perception of significant differences collapsing across race satisfied the initial question regarding the effective depiction of the OCB and task performance on the videotape. As such, it was determined reasonable to continue and test study hypotheses.

RESULTS

Five hundred and sixty undergraduates participated in the current investigation. The sample was sixty percent female and 90% White, 4% Black, 1% Hispanic, 4% Asian, and 1% Other. Of the 560 participants, the mean age was 19.33 and 75% were either freshmen or sophomores. Sixty-one percent did not currently work while 33% had supervisory experience.

In order to determine if the manipulation of task performance and OCBs was successful, tests of the manipulation check items included on the survey were conducted. These items asked participants to indicate if the actor demonstrated OCBs and to rate the actor's performance of expected behaviors of a GTA. T-tests were conducted on the manipulation check items included on the survey. Results for the task performance indicated that the manipulation was apparent to participants ($t(557) = 27.08, p < .001$) when collapsing across OCB and race conditions. In addition, collapsing across actor race, when OCB is high the manipulation of task performance was reliably differentiated by participants ($t(277) = 17.46, p < .001, \bar{X}_{\text{(High Task Performance)}} = 3.63, \bar{X}_{\text{(Low Task Performance)}} = 1.64$). Differentiation was also perceived when collapsing across race in the low OCB condition ($t(278) = 23.61, p < .001, \bar{X}_{\text{(High Task Performance)}} = 3.16, \bar{X}_{\text{(Low Task Performance)}} = 1.19$). Furthermore, results of the manipulation check for the OCB manipulation also indicated that participants perceived differences in OCB ($t(557) = 40.16, p < .001$) when collapsing across task performance and race conditions. Examining manipulation check within task performance condition revealed similar results. First, within the high task

performance condition, while controlling for race, participants distinguished high and low OCBs ($t(277) = 32.228, p < .001, \bar{X}_{(\text{High OCB})} = 2.74, \bar{X}_{(\text{Low OCB})} = 1.13$). Second, in the low task performance condition, while race was controlled, participants distinguished high and low OCBs ($t(278) = 25.76, p < .001, \bar{X}_{(\text{High OCB})} = 2.54, \bar{X}_{(\text{Low OCB})} = 1.08$). Finally, to determine if participant perception of the attractiveness of the actors differed significantly by race, a t-test of the mean differences on the attractiveness check item was conducted. Results indicated that the actors were perceived as significantly different in attractiveness ($t(554) = -7.71, p < .001, \bar{X}_{(\text{Black Actors})} = 1.41, \bar{X}_{(\text{White Actors})} = 1.74$). As such, the effect of actor attractiveness was controlled in subsequent analyses.

Correlations among the study variables are shown in Table 2. Due to significant correlations between the outcome variables of performance evaluation, reward allocation, and award allocation (see Table 2), it was apparent that participants did not differentiate the three dependent variables sufficiently. As such, the separate treatment of the three dependent variables was not warranted and a composite dependent variable was formed that represents overall performance outcomes. The item values on each scale were summed and then the mean of the summed value was used to produce the composite performance outcomes variable. The Cronbach alpha reliability for the job performance outcomes scale was .97.

The mediation hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression techniques. The criteria established by James and Brett (1984) was used to determine if mediation effects occur. These criteria are: 1) the independent variable has a direct and significant effect on the mediator variable, 2) the mediator variable has a direct and significant relationship to the dependent variable, and 3) when the mediator variable is held constant,

there is no relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable.

The first criterion was satisfied; zero-order correlations revealed significant relationships between OCB and liking, task performance and liking, OCB and perceived competence, and task performance and perceived competence (see Table 2). In addition, significant relationships existed between both mediator variables, liking and perceived competence, and the composite dependent variable which satisfied the second criterion.

Criterion 3 was tested to determine if liking mediates the OCB-outcome relationship (H1) by conducting one set of regression analyses. As actor attractiveness was significantly correlated with the composite performance outcomes variable it was used as a control variable in all regression equations with the composite performance outcomes variables as the dependent variable. To test H1, the composite performance outcomes variable was regressed onto the control variables of task performance level and actor physical attractiveness. Next, the composite dependent variable was regressed onto OCB. Finally, the composite outcome variable was regressed onto OCB and liking. Mediation was inferred if a previously significant relationship between OCB and the composite outcomes variable in the first equation became non-significant with the addition of the mediator variable (liking) in the second equation. A similar procedure was used to satisfy criterion 3 in the task performance-outcome relationship (H2) using OCB level and actor physical attractiveness as control variables.

The results regarding Hypotheses 1 and 2 are depicted in Table 3. Hypothesis 1 and 2 proposed that the relationship between the composite outcomes variable and OCB and task performance would be mediated by liking. As demonstrated in Table 3, the addition of liking into the regression equation resulted in a significant increase in

variance accounted for in the composite outcomes variable ($\Delta R^2 = .25, p < .0001$). In addition, the beta weight associated with OCB became non-significant ($\beta = -.021$) when liking was introduced into the regression equation, providing support for Hypothesis 1. In the second regression analysis examining H2, the beta weight associated with task performance attenuated ($\beta = .656$ at Step 2 and $\beta = .328$ at Step 3). This indicates that liking partially mediates the relationship between task performance and the composite performance outcomes variable. Thus H2 was partially supported.

To test whether perceived competence mediates the OCB-outcome relationship (H5) and the task performance-outcome relationship (H6), two additional sets of regression analyses were conducted for the composite performance outcomes variable. The procedure will be identical to those previously described.

The results regarding H5 and H6 are depicted in Table 4. As revealed in Table 4, the addition of perceived competence into the regression equation resulted in a significant increase in variance accounted for in the composite outcomes dependent variable ($\Delta R^2 = .25, p < .0001$). However, the beta weight associated with OCB attenuated when perceived competence was introduced into the regression equation ($\beta = .362$ at Step 2 and $\beta = .156$ at Step 3). As such, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported. Furthermore, the beta weight associated with task performance remained marginally significant with the addition of the mediator perceived competence, which also indicates partial mediation ($\beta = .656$ at Step 2 and $\beta = -.074$ at Step 3). Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported. Means by experimental condition are provided in Table 5.

The moderation hypotheses (i.e., H3, H4, H7, and H8) were also tested using hierarchical regression techniques. The criteria established by James and Brett (1984)

was used to determine if moderation effects occur. Moderation effects were determined if the inclusion of an interaction term between the moderator and the independent variable resulted in a significant increment in variance accounted for in the dependent variable above and beyond the variance accounted for by the main effect of the independent variable.

For example, to examine whether race moderates the OCB-liking relationship (H3), two regression equations were conducted. In the first step, liking was regressed onto OCB and race. Next, liking was regressed onto OCB, race, and the product term (OCB X race). A significant change in R^2 with the addition of the product term and a significant beta-weight associated with the product term indicated an interaction between OCB and race. Similar procedures were followed for the other race as moderator hypotheses; task performance-liking (H4), OCB-perceived competence (H7), and the task performance-perceived competence (H8).

Hypothesis 4 and 5 posited that race of the actor would moderate the relationship between OCB-liking and OCB-perceived competence, respectively. Significant effects were not found for the interaction term no matter if the dependent variable was liking ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.) or perceived competence ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.). In addition, no main effects were found for race in either regression analysis. Next, Hypothesis 7 and 8 proposed that race of the actor would moderate the relationship between task performance-liking and task performance-perceived competence, respectively. No significant effects were found for the interaction term using either liking ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.) or perceived competence ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.) as the dependent variable. Also, no main effects for race were found for liking or perceived competence.

To explore whether a three-way interaction exists between race, task performance, and OCBs on the outcome variable, three steps were taken. First, the outcome variable was regressed simultaneously on all three independent variables. Next, the outcome variable was regressed on each two-way product term (i.e., task performance X OCBs, task performance X race, OCBs X race). Finally, the outcome variable was regressed on the three-way product term (i.e., task performance X OCB X race). A multiplicative relationship will be determined by a significant increase change in R^2 and a significant beta-weight associated with the product term in the third equation (i.e., task performance X OCB X race).

Hypothesis 9 proposed that level of task performance, demonstration of OCBs, and race of the ratee would differentially predict liking for a ratee. No support was found for Hypothesis 9. The addition of the three-way product term did not result in a significantly increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.) nor was there a significant beta weight associated with the product term. Using the same variables as Hypothesis 9, Hypothesis 10 proposed differential prediction of perceived competence for a ratee. However, as with Hypothesis 9, the addition of the three-way product term did not significantly affect R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, n.s.) and a significant beta weight was not associated with the product term. Hypothesis 10 was, therefore, not supported. Means on all variables, by experimental condition, are shown in Table 6.

While testing H9 and H10 a significant interaction resulted between task performance and OCB for both perceived competence and liking. Additional regression analyses were performed that focused on the possible moderating effects of OCB on the relationship between task performance and liking and perceived competence. Results of

the regression analysis with liking as the dependent variable indicated that OCB moderates the task performance-liking relationship. The addition of the two-way product term, OCB X task performance, resulted in a significant increment in variance accounted for in the dependent variable, liking, above and beyond that accounted for by the main effects for OCB and task performance ($\Delta R^2 = .009$, $p < .001$). The beta weight associated with the two-way product term OCB X task performance was also significant ($\beta = .171$, $p < .001$). To better understand the nature of this interaction, the means upon each dependent variable were plotted and graphically depicted (see Figure 4). As can be seen in Figure 4, under low conditions of task performance, exhibiting high levels of OCBs resulted in higher liking ratings than did low levels of OCBs. Furthermore, under high conditions of task performance, individuals who displayed high levels of OCBs were liked more than individuals who displayed low levels of OCBs and more than low task performers, regardless of their level of OCB.

For the dependent variable, perceived competence, an additional regression analysis was also conducted. Results of this analysis indicated that the beta weight associate with the OCB X task performance interaction term was significant ($\beta = .08$, $p = .05$). Furthermore, the addition of the product term, OCB X task performance, incremented a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable that went beyond that which was accounted for by the main effects ($\Delta R^2 = .002$, $p = .05$). To further understand the relationship among these variables, the means upon each dependent variable were plotted and graphically depicted (see Figure 5). As can be seen in Figure 4, under low conditions of task performance, individuals who exhibited high levels of OCBs were perceived as more competent than those who exhibited low levels of OCBs.

Furthermore, under high conditions of task performance, individuals who performed OCBs were perceived as more competent than individuals who either displayed low levels of OCBs or individuals who were low task performers, regardless of their level of OCB.

Table 2

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Physical Attractiveness	1.0											
Age	-.210**	1.0										
Session Racial Composition	.059	-.030	1.0									
Race of Actor	.307**	-.419	-.050	1.0								
OCB	.156**	-.036	.168**	.004	1.0							
Task Performance	.084*	.080*	.047	.004	.000	1.0						
Liking	.245**	-.028	.082*	.042	.547**	.461**	1.0					
Perceived Competence	.134**	.076*	.086*	.007	.230**	.802**	.746**	1.0				
Award Allocation	.132**	.020	.029	.031	.372**	.634**	.772**	.823**	1.0			
Performance	.156**	.038	.045	.000	.373**	.603**	.840**	.850**	.847**	1.0		
Promotion	.129**	.082*	.040	-.014	.314**	.674**	.811**	.880**	.872**	.896**	1.0	
Composite DV	.148**	.051	.042	.002	.367**	.659**	.851**	.890**	.922**	.974**	.964**	1.0

Note. Session Racial Composition indicates the presence or absence of minorities in the experimental session. Presence of Whites only was coded a 1 while presence of any minority group member was coded a 0. White actors were coded as 2 while Black actors were coded as 1.

*p < .05 ** p < .01

Table 3

Results of Regression Analyses for Hypotheses 1 and 2

Independent Variable	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Composite Dependent Variable		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Hypothesis 1			
Control Variables			
Task Performance	.651***	.656***	.328***
Actor Attractiveness	.093**	.036	-.056**
OCB		.362***	-.021
Liking			.725***
R ² at each step	.44	.57	.82
Δ R ²		.13***	.25***
F ^a			619.25***
Hypothesis 2			
Control Variables			
OCB	.353***	.362***	-.021
Actor Attractiveness	.093**	.036**	-.056**
Task Performance		.656***	.328***
Liking			.725***
R ² at each step	.14	.57	.82
Δ R ²		.43***	.25***
F			619.25***

Note. OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior N = 560

^a All F values were significant at $p < .0001$

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$ *** $p < .0001$

Table 4

Results of Regression Analyses for Hypotheses 5 and 6

Independent Variable	Standardized Regression Weights		
	Composite Dependent Variable		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Hypothesis 5			
Control Variables			
Task Performance	.651***	.656***	-.074*
Actor Attractiveness	.093*	.036	.004
OCB		.362***	.156***
Perceived Competence			.912***
R ² at each step	.44	.57	.82
Δ R ²		.13***	.25***
F ^a			639.03***
Hypothesis 6			
Control Variables			
OCB	.353***	.362***	.156***
Actor Attractiveness	.093*	.036	.007
Task Performance		.656***	-.074*
Perceived Competence			.912***
R ² at each step	.14	.57	.82
Δ R ²		.43**	.25***
F			639.03**

Note. OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior N = 560

^a All F values were significant at $p < .0001$

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$ *** $p < .0001$

Table 5

Means for Measured Variables by Experimental Condition

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Low Task</u>		<u>High Task</u>	
	<u>Performance</u>		<u>Performance</u>	
	<u>Low</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	<u>High</u>
Liking	1.68	2.51	2.36	3.53
Perceived Competence	1.50	1.90	3.09	3.65
Performance Outcomes Composite	1.33	1.74	2.27	3.22

Table 6

Means of Study Variable with Race

			Liking	Perceived Competence	Performance Outcomes Composite
Low TP	Low OCB	White Actor	1.65	1.50	1.37
Low TP	Low OCB	Black Actor	1.72	1.49	1.30
High TP	High OCB	White Actor	3.55	3.67	3.26
High TP	High OCB	Black Actor	3.52	3.62	3.17
High TP	Low OCB	White Actor	2.28	3.13	2.26
High TP	Low OCB	Black Actor	2.43	3.05	2.28
Low TP	High OCB	White Actor	2.47	1.81	1.68
Low TP	High OCB	Black Actor	2.56	1.98	1.79

Note. OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior TP = Task Performance

Figure 4

Interaction of OCB and Task Performance on the Dependent Variable, Liking

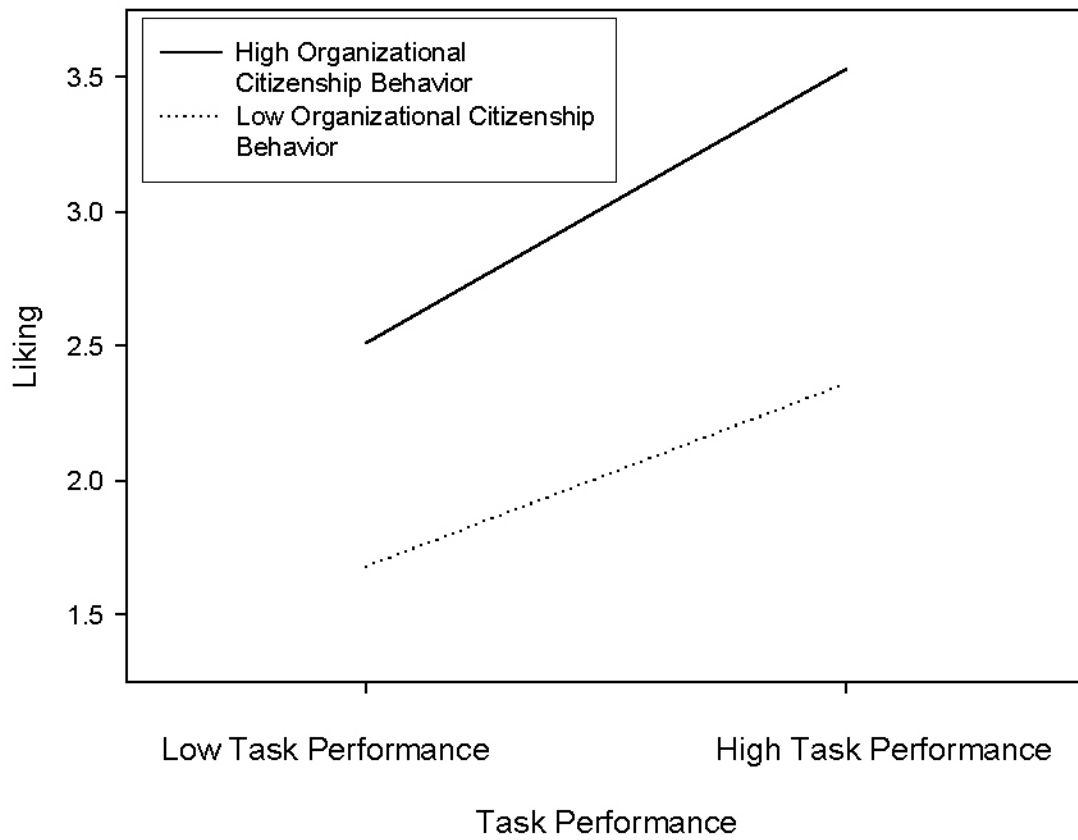
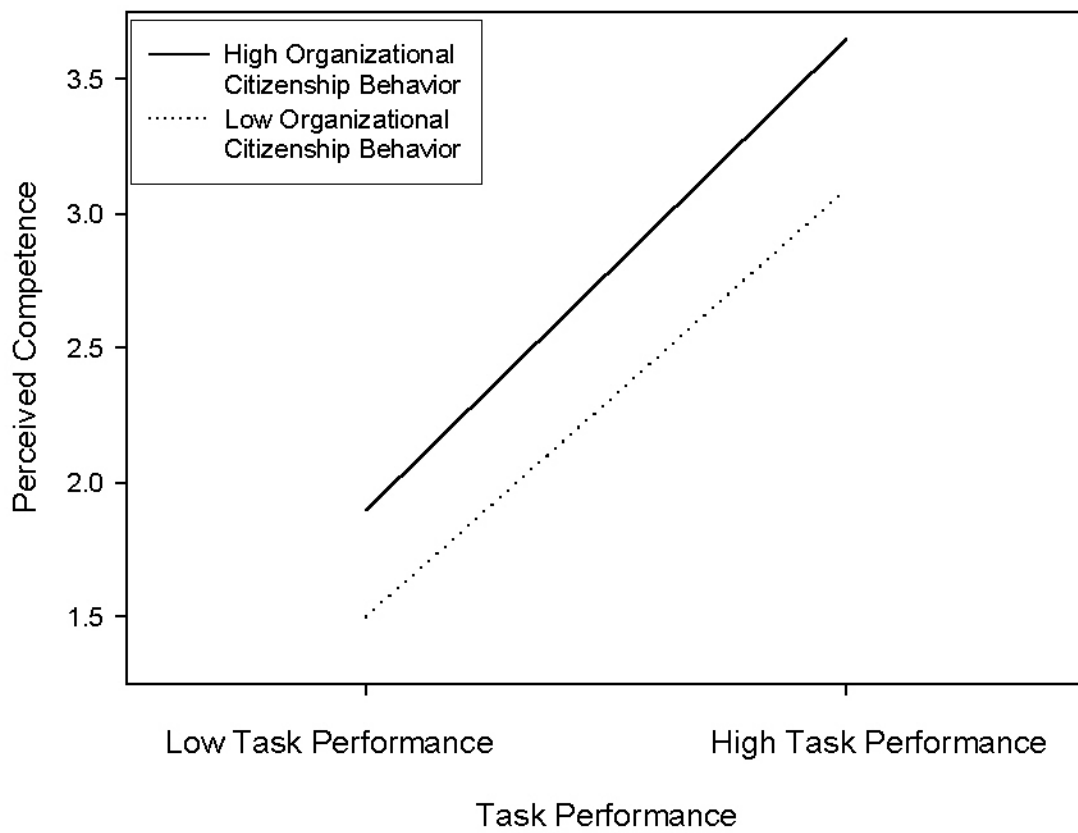


Figure 5

Interaction of OCB and Task Performance on the
Dependent Variable, Perceived Competence



DISCUSSION

The results of the current study demonstrate that OCB and task performance contribute independently to overall performance outcomes. Furthermore, evidence for the importance of two social-cognitive processes, liking and perceived competence, in transferring the effect of both OCBs and task performance to performance outcomes was provided by the study results.

The results of this study replicate Allen and Rush's (1998) finding that liking mediates the relationship between OCB and performance outcomes. OCBs help maintain a positive social environment in an organization because of their interpersonal and motivational consequences (Motowildo & Van Scotter, 1994). As such, they contribute to social relationships between coworkers. The relational component of OCB, the demonstration of sensitivity to the experiences of others that accompanies the performance of OCBs, and the recognition that OCBs lessen the workload of others in the organization, appear to cue positive emotional responses from raters. This positive emotional response may result from the cueing of a prototype of a considerate or kind person that accompanies the performance of OCBs. In any case, the mediation of the OCB-performance outcome relationship by liking offers support for the schema-triggered affect model, which posits that affective reactions emerge from cognitive categorization (Fiske, 1982). As liking felt for another person is an affective response that frequently requires social interaction to develop, and OCBs are social behaviors that are accommodating, the relationship between these variables and the performance outcome variables is easily appreciated.

However, the partial mediation by perceived competence of the OCB-performance outcome relationship is not as easily understood. While the discovery of perceived competence as a mediator of the OCB-performance outcome relationship is notable, it is also problematic if job competency is defined as deriving only from performance of task-related behaviors. If competency is characterized as task-related, then perceived competence should not be a relevant factor in the OCB-performance outcome relationship because OCBs are distinct from task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). However, given the role of OCBs or contextual performance in performance outcomes (Kiker & Motowidlo, 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000), the most obvious conclusion is that job performance is multidimensional and that both task performance and OCBs are perceived as critical components of job behavior. Therefore, OCBs or contextual performance behaviors such as “volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of the job” or, in the case of the current study, agreeing to conduct a review session outside of scheduled class time, are valuable to a rater because of their interpersonal consequences. Ratees who engage in OCBs may be seen as competent because their OCBs are vital to the support of the social and organizational context in which tasks are performed. Understanding that job behavior is not one-dimensional and that OCBs may be as important to employee effectiveness on the job as task performance explains why perceptions of competency are important mediators of the effect of OCBs on performance outcomes.

Furthermore, given research that indicates that the distinction between OCBs and task performance is not clearly defined among employees (Morrison, 1994), it is possible

that participants in the current study did not define job competency as solely task related. In addition, all the items used to assess perceived competency (see Appendix B) did not specify task performance and, therefore, did not limit the assessment of competency to task-related activities. As such, the OCBs seen in the video might have cued a “good employee” prototype that was associated with attributions of ratee competence as well as liking.

Another possible reason for the partial mediation by perceived competence is the high correlation between liking and perceived competence (i.e., .75). Perceived competence shares 56% common variance with liking, but does not capture the full effect of liking. Furthermore, while complete mediation was found in the OCB-performance outcome relationship, liking does not account for all the variance in that relationship. Thus, perhaps perceived competence adds to the explanation of the relationship between OCB and performance outcomes beyond that explained by liking. In any event, the partial mediation of the OCB-performance outcome relationship by perceived competence indicates that, to some extent, raters evaluate ratees who perform OCBs as more competent than those who do not and that evaluation leads to more positive performance outcomes.

In contrast to OCB, the task performance-performance outcome relationship was partially mediated by both liking and perceived competence. Previous research on the influence of liking on performance evaluations has focused primarily on potential rating errors that result from the development of liking for a ratee (Cardy & Dobbins, 1986; Tsui & Barry, 1986). However, the development of liking for ratees in these studies has been considered to be largely separate from their task performance. Research by Varma,

DeNisi, & Peters (1996) demonstrated that, in fact, task performance might be a cause of liking for a ratee. In the current study, the exposure the raters had to ratees was limited and, as such, all reactions to the ratees were dependent on the behaviors they exhibited in the video. Therefore, task performance appears to cue an affect-related schema, and raters in the current study appeared to like high task performing ratees simply because they were high task performers.

In most circumstances, task performance assessments would be evaluated using objective criteria. While the elimination of affective bias is a goal of using such criteria for evaluation, raters' liking for a ratee might still be affected by their awareness of the ratee's accomplishments. In fact, Varma et al. (1996) suggest that techniques such as rater diary keeping may make ratee task performance more salient to raters. As such, liking for a ratee would be influenced by his/her level of task performance. In the current study, the inclusion of a number of task-specific items (e.g., "The instructor effectively answered all questions from the class," "The instructor gave a brief review of the topic discussed in previous lectures," and "The instructor gave the class handouts regarding the lectures") may have focused the attention of raters on the task behaviors exhibited by ratees. The result of this focus may have been increased liking for high task performers. As such, task performance appears to have a critical role in the development of positive affect for a ratee. Thus, liking should not be collectively interpreted as bias, as some liking appears to be a function of the level of a ratee's performance. However, while task performance cues liking for a ratee, liking is not its sole mechanism of influence on performance outcomes.

An additional transfer mechanism of the influence of task performance to performance outcomes is perceived competence. Though all of the effect of task performance was not fully mediated by perceived competence, variability in task performance was used by raters to infer ratee competency, which in turn affected performance assessments. The ability to accomplish task objectives and fulfill task expectations should be important to a ratee's performance evaluation (Cascio, 1998). Task performance variability appears to cue an employee prototype that is associated with competency attributions. Partial mediation by perceived competence indicates that task performance has an effect on job outcomes although there are additional mediator variables that contribute to the effect. Other possible mediators could be perceptions of reliability or perceived enthusiasm for the task and organization. Future research should attempt to determine additional mechanisms that pass the influence of task performance to performance outcomes.

The results of these mediator analyses are important because they indicate that OCBs and task performance engender similar psychological processes, which then have similar effects on performance outcomes. For example, higher levels of OCBs and task performance increased perceptions of competence and liking. The implications of these results are that OCBs and task performance may be perceived as equally critical to successful performance outcomes and that while OCBs are discretionary behaviors they may not truly be considered extra role. OCBs are cueing similar psychological processes as task performance and are having similar effects on performance outcomes.

The importance of both OCBs and task performance is best illustrated by their significant interaction on liking and perceived competence. An examination of the nature

of the interaction reveals the compensatory function of OCBs. Ratees who were low task performers who performed OCBs were liked more than low task performers who were low in OCBs (see Figure 4). In fact, high task performing ratees who were low on OCB were liked less than low task performing ratees who were high on OCB. It appears that low task performers can counteract the negative influence of poor performance by engaging in OCBs at least in terms of the mediator, liking. The relationship between these OCB, task performance, and liking can be explained through the importance of liking to the transmission of the effect of OCB. Since liking is a complete mediator of the OCB-performance outcome relationship, much of the impact on liking is carried through OCBs. As such, the greater weight given to the presence of OCBs over the level of task performance on the liking variable is to be expected. This indicates that, in terms of the variable liking, OCBs may mask poor task performance, which could jeopardize the accuracy of performance appraisal ratings.

Furthermore, low task performing ratees who engaged in OCBs were perceived as more competent than low task performing ratees who did not engage in OCBs (see Figure 5). Although high task performers were perceived as more competent than low task performers regardless of level of OCB, the compensatory function of OCBs in the low task performance condition is worthy of further investigation. Low task performers who perform OCBs should not be perceived as more competent at their jobs since OCBs are not prescribed by the organization nor are they related to an individual's ability to perform job tasks.

Clearly, raters like and perceive as more competent individuals who are high task performers and high on OCBs. This is not problematic as high task performance and

high OCBs are both beneficial to an organization. However, once OCBs are able to compensate for poor task performance, the influence they have on performance evaluations becomes more challenging. Perhaps researchers and practitioners are limited by the definition of OCBs or contextual performance as discretionary behaviors performed without expectation of formal recognition. Since OCBs are consistently evaluated when making performance assessments, it may be unreasonable and naïve to imply that they are perceived as discretionary by employees or by organizations. In fact, some research has indicated that employees are not certain as to the demarcation between OCBs and task performance (Morrison, 1994). Other research has indicated that contextual performance and task performance are influential in the distribution of organizational rewards over time (Van Scotter et al., 2000). Uncertainty regarding the differentiation between OCBs and task performance, possible awareness of the influence of contextual performance on long term performance outcomes, and the ambiguity accompanying the changing nature of jobs (Organ, 1997), may indicate a need to revise the definition of OCBs or contextual performance so that it reflects a growing understanding that evaluation of contextual performance is not only unavoidable but also necessary.

Furthermore, if OCBs are central to organizational effectiveness and employee outcomes, then it appears necessary to expand the conventional definition of job performance to include contextual performance. Subsequently, the criteria used to evaluate job performance would include an assessment of OCBs. Since OCBs are already influential in performance assessments, it would appear that controlling the influence of contextual performance can only be accomplished by incorporating it into

performance appraisal systems. In this way, recognition and reward for job performance as reflected by both task performance and contextual performance could be achieved. For example, if the compensatory function of OCBs is regarded as a bias in performance appraisal, then one way to control this effect is to create a performance appraisal system that evaluates both task performance and contextual performance but weights task performance more heavily than contextual performance.

None of the hypothesized moderating effects of race were supported in the present study. There are several possible explanations for these findings. One cause for the lack of race results may have been the effect size chosen for the study. It may be that the .12 effect size chosen to determine sample size was simply not small enough to detect race differences. Race effects found in the literature are typically smaller than .12 (Ford, Kraiger, & Schechtman, 1986; Kraiger & Ford, 1985). However, while a smaller effect size than .12 was more likely to reveal any race effects, the necessary sample size was prohibitive. As such, the smallest feasible effect size was chosen.

Another potential explanation is that the hypotheses are in fact incorrect. It may be that Blacks and Whites are not differentially liked or perceived as differentially competent in the context of OCB and task performance relationships with performance outcomes. Additional research would be necessary to verify these results as there is a significant amount of literature supporting the hypothesized moderator effects.

Yet another possible explanation for the nonsignificant race results was the scenario used in the study. Participants were told that the purpose of the study was to investigate the poor performance of graduate student teachers. This appeared to cue participants to have low expectations of performance as illustrated by the low means

across all conditions (see Table 6). More specifically, the high OCB and task performance conditions did not result in means much above 3.0 (i.e., neutral) on a five-point scale. As a result, the study's context may have cued a prototype of a poor performer and all subsequent perceptions of actor performance were shaped by this negative prototype. In addition, it is possible that negative prototype may have been resistant to other cues presented in the videotapes. As such, the negative prototype may have been dominant in the face of competing information from additional cognitive categories such as race.

Furthermore, the teaching scenario of the experiment may have influenced the results in a way not originally anticipated. Since the lecture subject matter was psychology or a "soft science," it is possible that expectations of the actors' performance were affected in a manner that masked the influence of race. Expectations of the White actors' performance may have been lowered because of assumptions of instructor competency since the lecture subject matter was psychology. In contrast, lowered expectations of competency cued by the "soft" subject matter of the lecture, when combined with the Black race of the actor, may have confirmed the negative Black stereotype. As such, the low means for Blacks in each experimental condition may be an accurate reflection of the influence of the stereotype while the low means for Whites may be a reflection of the influence of lowered expectations of competency when high levels are typically anticipated.

In addition, it is possible that race was too salient to participants in the current study and, as a result, participants were motivated to control their prejudicial responses. Participants might have been providing what they perceived to be the most socially

desirable and socially acceptable responses. This motivation might have been exacerbated by the nature of the dependent variables used in the study. It is possible that the items chosen (e.g., award recommendations, performance assessment, and reward allocations) were more likely to elicit traditionally prejudicial responses. Responses of this type are more easily suppressed by individuals motivated by social desirability to control their prejudice. Perhaps items that had more personal relevance to the participants would have elicited prejudicial responses that are more difficult to disguise or manipulate. For example, items relating to the likelihood of enrolling in the GTA's class or seeking tutoring from the GTA might bring forth the more subtle, modern forms of prejudice.

Another possible explanation for the lack of race-related effects is the population studied. Perhaps using undergraduate students in a southeastern university to examine race effects resulted in the lack of findings because these participants may have been especially sensitive to race related issues. The presentation of Black GTAs on the videotapes, especially in the context of performance evaluations, may have alerted the participants to the purpose of the study and motivated them to control their prejudiced responses.

Limitations

In addition to the experimental scenario, another weakness to this investigation is the use of undergraduates as raters of GTA performance. In many ways the undergraduate-GTA relationship does not align with the typical supervisor-employee relationship observed in organizations and therefore limits generalizability of the results. Participants may not have felt that their ratings would have an impact on the graduate

students or that their ratings would be used constructively. As a result they may not have viewed the videotapes seriously or they may not have contemplated their responses on the survey. However to limit apathy from participants, the importance of their individual responses was emphasized. Furthermore, their status as consumers of graduate student teaching was also stressed to participants to reinforce their position as symbolic employers of GTAs.

Another limitation in the current study is the short exposure the participants had to the ratee. The short exposure to the performance of the GTA is problematic in two ways. First, it does not allow the rater to accurately assess the performance of the ratee. It is possible that without adequate information the raters tended to lower their ratings or use the “neutral” response option liberally. Second, short exposure to ratees limits the generalizability to actual performance appraisal situations in organizations. While supervisors do not always have the luxury of spending large amounts of time with all their employees, the amount of information garnered to inform performance assessments typically extends beyond that which can be gleaned from a 15 minute videotape.

One final limitation to the current study is the use of men as actors in the videotapes. It was deemed necessary in the current study to limit the actor sex to males to isolate the effect of race without the additional confounding effect of gender. Additional research examining whether perceptions of OCBs are influenced by the gender of the ratee is a possible future avenue for research.

Future Research

Future research into contextual performance and task performance would benefit from an exploration of the viability of incorporating the two types of behaviors into a

formal appraisal system. It is possible that acknowledging the role that OCBs have in performance outcomes by incorporating them into an appraisal system would help regulate the influence of contextual performance. In addition, employee confusion regarding performance criteria might be reduced.

Future research into race effects on the OCB and task performance relationships with liking and perceived competence would greatly benefit from an experimental scenario that is not value laden or one that does not influence participants perceptions prior to the experimental manipulations. It is possible that future research in this area that maintains the teaching scenario used in the present study might benefit from changing the subject matter of the lecture and eliminating the poor past performance rationale given to participants.

Furthermore, research would benefit from examinations of relationships that more closely map onto the supervisor-employee relationship while still maintaining the element of control that is so critical to laboratory experiments. Perhaps experimental scenarios in which students occupy both the supervisor and the employee roles could be designed. In addition, lengthening the amount of time the raters are exposed to ratees would add increased validity to future studies.

Future research in this area using other populations might circumvent the problems associated with using undergraduates that exist in a climate uniquely sensitive to racial issues. Research examining race effects in laboratory settings at universities should incorporate an awareness of the sensitivity of the participant population to race-related research. This awareness should be used to guide decisions made about disguising the purpose of the study. It may not be possible to examine all race-related

effects in a university setting, and other populations should be explored. However, if race research is conducted in the university setting an assessment of the motivation of participants to control their prejudicial responses should be attempted.

Though the “race as moderator” hypotheses were not supported, future research should continue to explore the possible effect of this variable. Differential evaluation of Blacks and Whites is a well-documented, though small, effect (Ford, Kraiger, & Schechtman, 1986; Kraiger & Ford, 1985) and the possible race differences in the influence of OCBs and task performance on the process variables that influence performance evaluations is an important contribution to I/O psychology and workplace diversity literature. Perhaps the environment of the laboratory is no longer the most appropriate place to study race effects because race is too salient to participants to be unobtrusive. It is possible that the available research population at universities is too sensitive to race-related issues to be of value when attempting to understand the experiences of minorities in the world of work. The lack of control that appears when conducting field research may be the price paid by researchers interested in understanding how race impacts the experiences of Whites and Blacks in organizations.

Implications

The results of this study add to the evidence that raters reliably differentiate OCB and task performance and that each offers something unique to the prediction of performance outcomes. The discovery that perceived competence and liking both partially mediate the relationship between task performance and performance outcomes indicates a need for further research that examines the social-cognitive processes that underlie the task performance-performance outcomes relationship. An awareness of the

mechanism through which the influence of task performance is transferred to performance evaluations would be a useful tool for academicians and organizations alike. The information would guide and shape future research questions regarding task performance and the improvement of performance appraisals accuracy. In contrast, organizations could use this knowledge when creating a performance appraisal system specific to their needs. Facilitating accurate and reliable assessments of task performance might mean designing certain evaluation conditions that allows raters different opportunities to interact with rates.

The results indicating that the OCB-performance outcome relationship is fully mediated by liking and partially mediated by perceived competence prompt a different set of concerns for organizations and academicians. The accuracy of performance appraisals is called into question when they are influenced by behaviors that are not required by an organization. Assessments of performance should be limited to behaviors that organizations can reasonably expect all employees to perform. The time and effort required to perform some types of OCBs may preclude their occurrence among certain populations of employees and, as a result, lower their performance evaluations. For example, being willing to stay late at work to complete a project is an OCB that many employees, such as single parents or employees who care for elderly parents, may not have the latitude to perform.

The influence of OCBs on performance evaluations through perceived competence is especially challenging because perceived competence is typically conceived as relating to ability to perform job tasks and OCBs exist outside the realm of assigned job duties. However, the influence of OCBs on perceived competence may be

better understood with an expanded definition of job behaviors and a reassessment of the types of behaviors that are critical to employee and organizational success. Unless raters are trained to use variability in carrying out actual job tasks as the source for ratings of performance and to recognize OCBs as discretionary behaviors that should not bear on performance assessments, then it may be necessary for organizations to reassess their performance appraisal systems so as to make them equitable for all employees. If OCBs are going to be used in performance assessments then it is necessary that they no longer be considered discretionary, but rather, be accurately measured and included as a component of performance appraisal.

Though OCBs and task performance are consistently differentiated and contribute uniquely to assessments of performance, it is notable that they are mediated by identical variables. This provides additional evidence of the perceptual similarity of these two types of behaviors in the minds of raters. This perceptual similarity may obscure the line between what is considered OCB and what is considered within role. Other research in this area has concluded that the boundary between task performance and OCBs is often obscure to employees (Morrison, 1994). Furthermore, the effect of task performance upon liking and the effect of OCB on perceived competence indicates that, even if raters are distinguishing between in-role and extra-role behaviors, the behaviors are influencing processes in ways that can have unexpected effects upon performance outcomes.

In conclusion, results of this study indicate the need to further study and understand the role of OCBs in performance evaluations. Specifically, the compensatory role that OCBs have when task performance is low is worthy of further examination. The possibility that OCBs can offset the effect of task performance establishes a

challenging situation that should be considered by organizations and academicians alike. The accuracy of performance appraisals rests on the accurate and reliable assessment of performance. Understanding the process by which OCBs influence performance outcomes is an important step toward achieving the goal of unbiased and precise performance assessments.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Date: January 10, 2000

To: Undergraduate students involved in psychology research pool

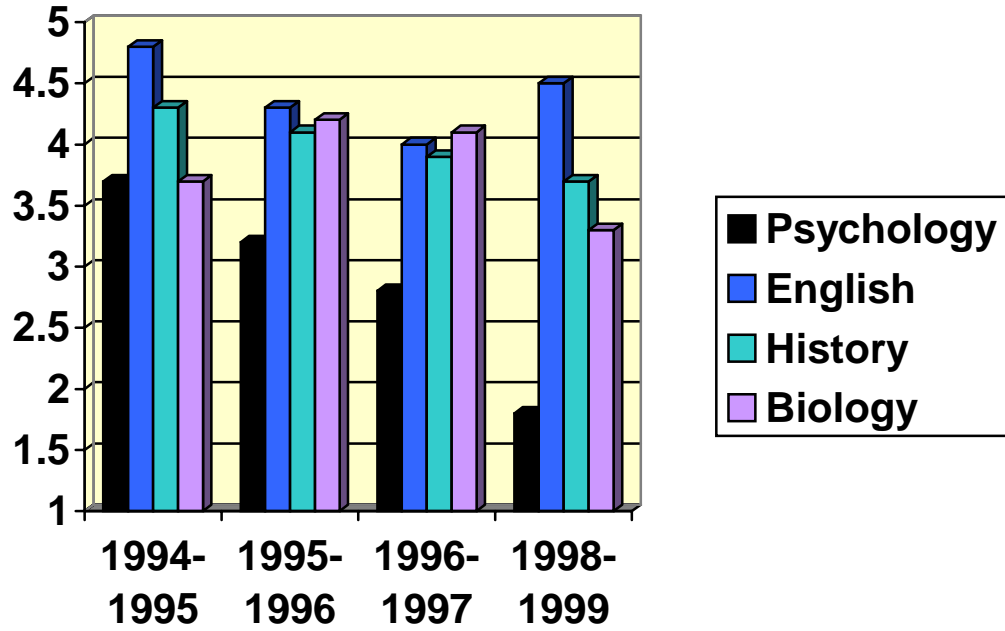
From: Graduate Evaluation Committee

Subject: Undergraduate review of graduate student teachers

One controversial component to the educational process at the University of Georgia is the use of graduate students (GTAs) as instructors of undergraduate courses. In addition to the regular end of semester evaluations compiled by each department, the University of Georgia Office of Academic Affairs conducts periodic extensive reviews of graduate student instructors in specific departments. The results of these mandated reviews can have a significant impact on the amount of funding available for graduate students within a department. Steadily declining performance evaluations in recent years led the psychology department in the Fall of 1999 to establish a committee to investigate the teaching practices of its graduate student assistants. In order to anticipate the graduate assistant reviews mandated by the University of Georgia and to correct any discrepancy in the quality of the education received by undergraduates in the psychology department as compared to other departments at the university, the committee is conducting its own examination of graduate student teachers. Graduate student teachers were videotaped over a number of days last semester as one component to the investigation. These graduate students were aware that they were going to be filmed during the semester but not the exact days on which the taping would take place. The appearance of the video camera in the classroom on the day of the filming was the only notification received by the GTAs. Multiple class sessions were taped in order to get a more accurate picture of the GTA's actual teaching behaviors (instead of their "best" behavior). As part of this investigation, undergraduate students are being asked to review multiple videotaped performances of GTAs' teaching activities. The advantage of utilizing the psychology research pool is that it contains a large heterogeneous cross section of students at the university and is not limited to psychology majors only. As an undergraduate and the primary consumer of graduate student teacher services, your input is crucial to the effectiveness of this review. The confidentiality of your responses will be strictly

maintained. This assurance of confidentiality guarantees that your responses will not be available to any graduate student or faculty and is crucial to our receiving honest and unbiased responses from you. It is our hope that your responses can help the psychology department assess the performance of its graduate student teachers, establish guidelines for future training of GTAs, and provide valuable feedback to current GTAs interested in pursuing careers in academia. Thank you in advance for your participation in this very important project.

Comparison of Departmental Graduate Student Evaluations



Appendix B

Liking Items

- ___ I like this GTA.
- ___ I think I would get along well with this GTA.
- ___ I think this GTA would probably make a good friend.
- ___ Attending a class taught by this GTA would be a pleasure.
- ___ If I were a student in a class taught by this GTA, I would become fond of him/her.
- ___ I would chose to become better acquainted with this GTA.

Competency Items

- ___ This instructor appears competent.
- ___ The instructor seems knowledgeable.
- ___ The instructor appears qualified to teach the course.
- ___ This instructor seems to be of higher ability than most instructors of my experience.
- ___ This person is a capable teacher.
- ___ This instructor could really benefit from additional teaching experience.
- ___ This instructor seems competent compared to other instructors I've had.
- ___ This instructor seems to be of higher ability than most instructors I have had experience with.

Appendix C

Reward Recommendation Items

- ___ I would recommend this instructor for the Herbert Zimmer Award (Teaching Assistant Fellowship).
- ___ I would recommend this instructor for the Charles Darby Excellence in Teaching Award.

Promotion Recommendation Items

- ___ I would recommend this instructor receive a full time faculty position at UGA.
- ___ I would recommend this instructor receive a full time faculty position at a comparable research university.
- ___ I would recommend this instructor pursue a career in academia.

Performance Evaluation Items

- ___ This GTA is a vital part of the University of Georgia.
- ___ This GTA is extremely valuable to the University of Georgia.
- ___ This GTA is indispensable to the University of Georgia.
- ___ This GTA makes an important contribution to the University of Georgia.
- ___ This GTA would be extremely costly for the University of Georgia to replace.

Manipulation Check Items

How would you rate this instructor's performance with regard to performing the in-role or expected behaviors of an instructor? (*In-role behaviors* are those that are expected and mandated by the organizations, e.g., instructor uses examples during lecture, gives reviews of previous lecture material, answers questions from the class thoroughly).

How would you rate this instructor's performance of teaching behaviors that could be considered extra-role or that went above and beyond the call of duty for an instructor? (*Extra-role behaviors* are those that are not prescribed or mandated by the university, e.g., instructor provides home telephone number, conducts review sessions outside of scheduled class time, and is willing to discuss student personal problems or concerns).

Thesis Video Training Manual

Compiled by Carrie L. Noble

Training Schedule

Answer any initial questions

Define organizational citizenship behavior

Review purpose of thesis

Watch video used in Allen and Rush (1998) study

Review lecture content

Discuss appropriate mannerisms

Practice each section

Break (lunch)

Videotaping

Segment by segment

Purpose of Manual

The purpose of this training manual is to familiarize you with my thesis topic and prepare you to act as teachers in a short video. I want you to understand what I am researching because I believe it will enhance your ability to contribute to the videos and this project. To accomplish this objective, I have included a brief overview of my thesis topic. This overview indicates my research questions and hopefully begins to clarify your role in answering these questions.

I have also included a summary of the "lecture" topic for you to have for background information. It is important that you are knowledgeable about the lecture topic. It will greatly reduce the time it takes us to prepare for taping if you have practiced explaining the lecture content prior to training. Your understanding of the lecture content will facilitate your ability to vary your task performance as well as your organizational citizenship behaviors (to be described in more detail later).

In addition, I have included lists of characteristic behaviors that typify high/low organizational citizenship and high/low task performance. Further, you will find copies of the scripts that you are to follow during taping. I do not expect (nor do I want) you to memorize the material in these scripts. However, it is important that performance is consistent (high/low) across actors so there needs to be some standardization in terms of how the material is presented. Above all, I want these videotaped performances to seem authentic. So, please familiarize yourself with the topic area and the scripts prior to attending training.

The scripts will also indicate to you how we will separate out high versus low organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and high versus low task performance. As

you will see, OCBs are manipulated before the body of the lecture and task performance is varied within the lecture. I intend to choose one individual in our group to serve as the model for the high/low task performance as well as high/low OCBs. The remaining actors will attempt to mimic the mannerisms and lecture style of the model. This will help standardize the experimental conditions and (hopefully) reduce differences among actors (e.g., intonation, pace, nonverbal behaviors, etc.). It is vital that each person performs as similarly as possible to the model in each condition. We will tape each of the four experimental conditions (high task performance/high OCB, high task performance/low OCB, low task performance/high OCB, low task performance/low OCB) separately because the videos will be edited.

As you can tell, your assistance with this project is critical. The videotapes represent the stimulus conditions to be used in the study and, as such, your role as an actor is paramount to the successful completion of this research project. Thank you so much for agreeing to participate in this important research study. Without your assistance, this study would not be possible.

Thesis Topic - Overview

Job performance is a vastly researched area of industrial psychology. One component of job performance is organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational citizenship behaviors are actions performed by an employee that extend above and beyond normal job requirements. These behaviors are advantageous for organizations. While they may not have a dramatic impact on organizational functioning when taken one at a time, they have a cumulative effect of facilitating the smooth functioning of the organization. Examples of organizational citizenship behaviors are altruistic behaviors toward other employees, staying beyond regular hours to finish a project, and behaving in a courteous manner to fellow employees.

Employees are not explicitly compensated for performing organizational citizenship behaviors because they are not required by the job. However, employees who perform organizational citizenship behaviors are given higher performance evaluations from supervisors. Two processes through which organizational citizenship behaviors affect performance evaluations is through a manager's perceptions of employee commitment to an organization and through a manager's liking for an employee. Frequent organizational citizenship behaviors lead to greater liking and perceived commitment on the part of management. Greater liking and perceptions of commitment, in turn, lead to higher performance evaluations.

There are many influences on liking and perceptions of commitment beyond actual job performance or organizational citizenship behaviors. Race is an individual difference variable that has been shown to influence the perceptions of job performance. Specifically, negative stereotypes often associated with minority groups can bias

employer assessment of job performance (e.g., high performing African American employees perceived as lower performers than high performing whites). Stereotyping can also affect the career progression of minority group members by biasing perceptions of motive, competence, and even liking.

I am interested in learning how employee race operates in conjunction with organizational citizenship behaviors to influence performance appraisals and reward recommendations via liking and perceptions of employee competence. I am also interested in understanding how organizational citizenship behaviors interact with task performance. For example, can organizational citizenship behaviors compensate for low task performance and result in high performance appraisals? If so, is the effect of organizational citizenship behavior different for black and white employees?

Lecture Topic - Overview

Hackman and Oldham (1976) proposed the Job Characteristics Model to explain how a job's task design can influence employee attitudes and behaviors. The model is a motivational model that describes how to alter the work context such that motivation is enhanced leading to job satisfaction, etc. The premise is that jobs that “enrich” have a different effect on employees than jobs that are not “enriched.” How enriched a job is depends on the job dimensions described below.

In the first part of the Job Characteristics Model, five core job dimensions can delineate any job:

Skill variety. The number of different activities, skills, and talents the job requires.

Task identity. The degree to which a job requires completion of a whole, identifiable piece of work- that is, doing a job from beginning to end, with visible results.

Task significance. The job's impact on the lives or work of other people, whether within or outside the organization.

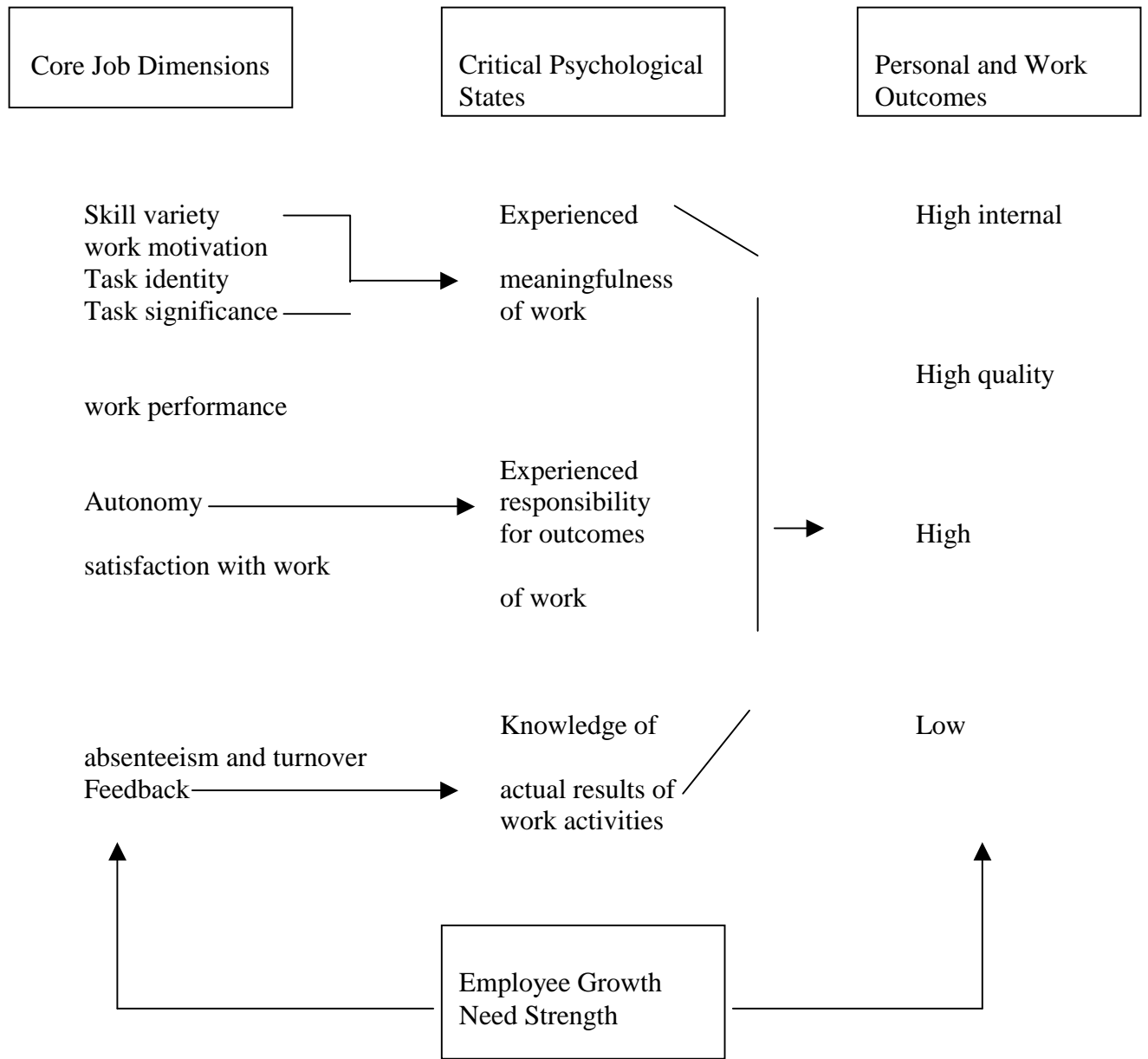
Autonomy. The degree of freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining procedures that the job provides.

Task feedback. The degree to which carrying out the activities required results in direct and clear information about the effectiveness of performance.

The unique combination of these five core job dimensions for a particular job provides a measure of that job's level of enrichment; this is referred to as the motivating potential of the job.

The second part of the model deals with the effect of these core job dimensions on the individual. The core job dimensions are believed to have an impact on three critical psychological states. These three psychological states are experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results. The experienced meaningfulness of work is high when the job involves skill variety, task identity, and significance. The experienced responsibility for work outcomes is influenced mainly by the amount of autonomy associated with the job. Knowledge of results of work activities results from feedback from the job or others (e.g. supervisors, co-workers). The model proposes that high levels of the critical psychological states will lead to positive individual and organizational outcomes. Some of these outcomes are high internal motivation, high quality work performance, high work satisfaction, and low absence and turnover.

The last component of the Job Characteristics Model is an individual difference variable called growth need strength (GNS). GNS is associated with an individual's desire to become self-actualized and fulfill higher order needs (i.e., need for personal growth and development). This model reflects a belief that people who have a high GNS or people with a high need for individual development and personal growth would respond more positively to jobs that are high on the five core job dimensions (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, task feedback). Thus, people with high GNS should respond most strongly to the core job dimensions and their associated critical psychological states. As such, the effect of the Job Characteristics Model is moderated by GNS. According to the model, only employees who want to satisfy higher order needs will respond favorably to a job with high motivating potential.



Hackman & Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model

Characteristic High Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The following is a list of some characteristic high OCBs in the teaching profession.

High organizational citizenship behaviors

- Flexibility in own schedule to meet student needs
- Provides home phone number to students
- Study sessions led by professor outside regular class time
- Available outside regular office hours
- Knows student names
- Willing to discuss personal problems with a student

High Organizational Citizenship Behaviors - student and professor

Hey, I'm back.

Oh, hi Joanne. It is really good to see you. How are you feeling?

Much better thanks. I wanted to make an appointment with you to go over the material I missed while I was in the hospital and to talk about a personal problem. Are you available after class?

Sure, just stop by after class and we'll go over the notes, see if you have any other questions, and talk about whatever else you need to talk about.

Thanks and I appreciate all your help.

Sure, and it is really good to see you back.

Thanks.

I have a few announcements before starting today's lecture. First of all, I want to remind everyone that the midterm is one week from today. Yes, Sam, do you have a question?

Yeah...Would it be possible for us to have an extra review session before the midterm?

You mean in addition to class? Well, let me see a show of hands of people who want an extra study session. Ok. I think I can arrange that. How about we meet at 4:30 in this room on Thursday? Great. Are there any other questions? Yes, Scott?

Yeah...Are you going to be on campus next week before the exam to answer questions?

Yes, I will be on campus some next week on days I don't teach and can answer individual questions. But, remember, if you have any problems with the material as you study, either email me or call me at home. My email address and phone number are on the front of your syllabus. Just make sure, if you do call, that you call before 10 o'clock. After that, I might be sleeping!

Characteristic Low Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The following is a list of some characteristic low OCBs in the teaching profession.

Low organizational citizenship behaviors

- Does not know student names
- Only meets during scheduled office hours
- Inflexible schedule
- No extra study sessions
- Does only what is necessary – never goes beyond job description

Low Organizational Citizenship Behaviors - student and professor

Hey, I'm back.

Oh...Good.

I wanted to make an appointment with you to go over the material I missed while I was in the hospital and to talk about a personal problem. Are you available after class?

Um...well, I normally don't go over missed lectures. Could you come by during my normally scheduled office hours?

Well, I could but your next hours aren't until tomorrow and I really wanted to talk to you today.

Well, if you can come by during normally scheduled hours, why don't you just do that. I'd prefer that...so I'll just see you tomorrow.

Ok. See you tomorrow.

Ok. Before we get started with today's lecture, I wanted to remind everyone that the midterm is one week from today. Yes, did you have a question?

Yeah...Would it be possible for us to have an extra review session before the midterm?

You mean in addition to class? Well...I prefer to meet during our scheduled class time. Let's see if we can cover everything in class. I don't think we will need any extra class time. Ok, any other questions? Yes.

Yeah...Are you going to be around next week before the exam to answer questions?

No. I do have office hours during the week if you need to set up an appointment, but I do not usually come in to campus on days I don't teach. If you need to make an appointment, see me after class.

Characteristic Behaviors of High Task Performers

The following is a list of some mannerisms and behaviors of teachers perceived as high task performers.

Characteristics of high task performance

- Engages class in discussion
- Enthusiastic about subject matter
- Knowledgeable about subject matter
- Uses examples to clarify confusing issues
- Comprehensive answers to student questions
- Excellent use of visual aids (e.g., handouts, overheads)

High Task Performance - student and professor

Are there any other questions? Ok. Let me pass out the handouts for today's lecture. Now as you'll remember from last time, we were talking about reasons why job design and quality of worklife are so important. Specifically, we covered three historical stages. We talked about scientific management, we also talked about job rotation and job enlargement, and we had just started talking about contemporary approaches. That's actually where we are today. Today we'll be discussing Hackman & Oldham's job characteristics model. But, before we get into that, I'd like to ask all of you to think about different jobs you've had in the past. Now I know all of you have had some really good jobs and all of you have had some really bad jobs. What I want you to do is focus on the worst job you've ever had. Think about what make that job so bad. Now do I have any volunteers who would like to share that job with me? Yes, Bruce.

I was an orderly in a hospital for a couple of years working on an orthopedic floor.

And what was it about that job that was so bad?

Just dealing with patients who were really cranky. Most of them were old and had just had surgery and the nurses were always on your back. So it was a pretty tough job.

Did you feel you had any autonomy on that job? For instance, could you influence how the work was done? When it was done?

No, everyday we came in and there was a list of things for us to do so we were pretty much told what to do.

What about feedback? Did you feel like you got enough feedback on your job?

Yea...when you are dealing with patients, who are hurting or angry, you can pretty much count on immediate feedback.

Ok. That's what we call feedback from the task itself and that's part of the job characteristics model. Can everyone see that?

Yea.

Ok. This model is built on the premise that the outcomes of any job are functions of both the job and the individual. The model itself recognizes the importance of both treating people differently and placing people in jobs that fit their unique knowledge, skills, and abilities. Ok. Motivation and performance are assumed to be enhanced if jobs can satisfy needs and organizational goals. The focus of this model is on employees with higher order growth needs. Now higher order growth needs is a construct we will be discussing more later. Let me go ahead and put up the model itself...which I know you have all been waiting for. Ok...can everyone see that?

Ok...great. As you can see, this is a fairly complex model. We have core job characteristics which lead to critical psychological states which then lead to work outcomes. We are going to begin with the beginning portion of the model which is the core job characteristics. The first variable here is skill variety. Skill variety is defined as using a variety of skills and abilities to accomplish your work. Now we heard a great example earlier from Bruce about his job as an orderly. As an orderly, you need a skill such as physical strength to move patients. You also need cognitive ability or a skill to empathize with these individuals and understand what they mean and need. So, that's an example of skill variety. Ok? Next, we have task identity. Task identity is focusing on an entire piece of work instead of one little piece of it. How many of you have had a job where you have been asked to do something and you really don't know why you are doing it? Several of you have. Ok...so you have this job where you are doing this piece of work, you never see the end result, and it makes no sense at all. That would be a situation with low task identity. Yes, Scott.

Yea...I'm not really clear on task identity. Could you give another example and clarify it please?

Ok, think about an individual in a manufacturing environment. Specifically, individuals who are building cars. Think of the individual who is putting the knob on the radio. Knob on radio, all day long, knob on radio. Now contrast that with the person who is part of a larger work team who creates a car from nothing. Over here, you have nothing; over here, you have a car. That's seeing a whole piece of work. Does that clarify it a bit?

Yes.

Good. Next, we have task significance. Task significance is defined as a job where you see that your job is affecting the lives of others. Ok...it could be affecting those within the organization or outside the organization. A good example here would be the job of teacher. A lot of people go into this profession because they want to have an impact on the lives of others. So, that could be an example of task significance. Ok. Next, we have autonomy. Autonomy is defined as the ability to exercise freedom, independence, and discretion in your job. An example of autonomy would be such things as scheduling you own work. We asked Bruce about his job as an orderly and he said no he didn't have a lot of autonomy. In his job, he'd come in and there would be a list of things to do. That would be a job with low autonomy. Finally, we have feedback from the job. Feedback is defined as extent to which employees receive direct and clear information about their performance. We asked Bruce about feedback and he told us, "Yeah I get a lot of feedback. Nurses are always on my back. Patients tell me when I'm hurting them or doing something wrong." So, those are all examples of feedback. The first one, from nurses, that's feedback from others. Whereas the feedback from patients that's feedback from the task. Now these core job characteristics feed into or create the feelings of critical psychological states. These psychological states are the internal states; these

are within each of you. They are impacted by the degree to which you have these core job characteristics. For instance, skill variety, task identity, and task significance all feed into and create experienced meaningfulness. Experienced meaningfulness then is the extent to which your job is intrinsically meaningful and worthwhile. Autonomy on the job feeds into experience and responsibility for outcomes of the work. Experienced responsibility then is the extent to which an individual feels personally responsible or accountable for their work. Finally, you have feedback from the job. This feeds into knowledge and results of work activities. That's pretty straightforward, feedback leads to knowledge of results on the job. So all of these critical psychological states lead to work outcomes such as high internal work motivation. Do you find the work intrinsically motivating? High growth satisfaction, high general satisfaction. Are you satisfied overall with your job? And, of course, high work effectiveness. Ok. We should also mention there are some other moderators in this model. These are individual moderators that can impact relationships in this model. They are individual's knowledge of skills, growth need strength-desire to grow and develop on the job- and finally, context satisfaction or satisfaction with pay or supervisor. Ok.

Characteristic Behaviors of Low Task Performers

The following is a list of some mannerisms and behaviors of teachers perceived as low task performers.

Characteristics of low task performance

- Reads notes
- Does not look at class
- Confused by topic
- Poor use of visual aids
- Cannot answer questions from students
- Cannot clarify confusing issues

Low Task Performance - student and professor

Are there any other questions? Ok then, lets get started. Ok. Today we'll be talking about the job characteristics model and that was developed by Hackman and Bedman. Actually, I mean Hackman and Oldham and this model is really pretty interesting.

Um, we can't read the overhead. (out of focus and crooked)

Oh. (adjusts overhead and reads from notes) Ok, this model assumes that the outcomes of any job are a function of both the job and the individual. This model also recognizes the importance of treating people differently and also of placing people in jobs that fit their unique KSAOs. From this model, we could say that motivation and performance can be enhanced by a job that satisfies both individual needs and organizational goals. This model focuses job design effects on employees who have higher ordered growth needs. Now it is important that we discuss three critical psychological states that are included in this model. The first one is experienced meaningfulness. Experienced meaningfulness is defined as the extent to which a person feels personally responsible and accountable for a meaningful portion of work. The second one is experienced responsibility. The critical psychological state is defined as the extent to which a person feels personally responsible and accountable for a meaningful portion of work.

Wait. Um...I have the same definition for both.

For...ok. For experience meaningfulness and responsibility. Ok...experienced meaningfulness is the extent to which the job is intrinsically meaningful and perceived as worthwhile. Is that not what I gave you? Ok...Ok...This model is really confusing. That would probably explain some of your confusion with the definitions. So let me uh...so, we have experienced meaningfulness; now I need to give you experienced responsibility. That is the extent to which a person feels

personally responsible and accountable for a meaningful portion of work. Ok. The third core job dimension...I'm sorry...the third critical psychological state is knowledge of results. That is defined as the extent to which a person is aware of performance outcomes. Ok. Now these psychological states lead to outcomes, ok. But to get to the psychological states we need to rely on the knowledge we have about the core dimensions, ok, or the core job characteristics which...actually, I guess I should have gone over that first so let me backtrack and explain those to you. There are five of those and those five will lead into these three critical psychological states. So it's important to understand the beginning part of it. So those four...those five core job characteristics are skill variety, task identity, task significance...Yes?

Yea...could you give us an example of task identity?

Uh...task identity? Well, I can give you a definition. A definition is focusing on an entire piece of work.

Could you explain that a little bit more though?

Ok...umm

Like give us an example of where that would be.

Ok...sure. Your book has some examples along with definitions and we're going to go over the definitions. And you asked for task identity?

Yea...it just wasn't clear after reading the book.

It wasn't? Oh...It wasn't clear? Ok. Well, I think if you go back to the book there are some examples in there. So, go back to the book. Let's go on now and define skill variety. Skill variety is the using a variety of skills and abilities to accomplish

the work. Ok. Task identity is focussing on an entire piece of work. Task significance is the effect of the job on the lives of others. Ok. And these can be both within and outside the organization. Autonomy is the fourth one and it is the ability to exercise freedom, independence, and discretion. Feedback is the extent to which employees receive correct and clear information about performance. OK. So all five of these impact the critical psychological states. Ok. Now you may ask, who does this model apply to? I'm here to tell you that not all individuals do respond favorably to jobs with high motivating potential. There are three attributes that determine how individuals will respond to the jobs with high motivating potential. These three attributes are things such as knowledge and skill, growth strength growth, I mean...growth need strength...growth need strength is two, and finally, three is context satisfaction. Ok.