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Contextual job features and occupational values as moderators of personality trait validities: a test and extension of the theory of purposeful work behavior

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CONTEXTUAL JOB FEATURES AND OCCUPATIONAL VALUES AS

MODERATORS OF PERSONALITY TRAIT VALIDITIES: A TEST AND

EXTENSION OF THE THEORY OF PURPOSEFUL WORK BEHAVIOR

by

Erik Gonzalez-Mulé

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy
degree in Business Administration in the
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The University of Iowa

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Thesis Supervisor: Professor Michael K. Mount

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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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PH.D. THESIS

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This is to certify that the Ph.D. thesis of

Erik Gonzalez-Mulé

has been approved by the Examining Committee for
the thesis requirement for the Doctor of Philosophy degree
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To my parents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

do the best that I can. I am also deeply appreciative for my fiancée, Adriana. Even when faced with moving across the country from Florida to Iowa, she never blinked an eye. Her encouragement has been invaluable. My PhD would not have been possible without her love and support. Finally, I am grateful to Adala, for always greeting me with a wagging tail.

ABSTRACT

The Five-Factor (FFM) and job characteristics models provide parsimonious frameworks to explain personal and situational influences on work behavior. However, the two are seldom studied in concert, despite theory and empirical evidence indicating that personality traits are more valid under some job conditions than others. The purpose of my dissertation is to address the lack of systematic knowledge regarding the joint influences of personality and job characteristics by testing and extending the major propositions of the theory of purposeful work behavior (TPWB; Barrick, Mount & Li, 2013). Because the TPWB focuses only on task and social characteristics of jobs, I propose a theoretical extension to the theory whereby I examine the way traits interact with contextual characteristics (e.g., physical demands, working conditions) of jobs to influence work outcomes. Further, I extend the TPWB by examining the occupational values from the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1975), which are broader and situated at a higher taxonomic level than jobs, moderate the FFM-criterion correlations. Using a meta-analytic design, I tested the extent to which job characteristics and occupational values moderate the relationships between the FFM and job performance, contextual performance, and job satisfaction. The overall results were mixed, with some findings indicating that personality trait validities are substantially higher under conditions of congruent job characteristics, and others indicating no such moderating effects, or moderating effects in contrast to what I proposed in my hypotheses. The mixed results may be due to gravitational processes that take place when individuals select jobs. I also examined the relative importance of the job characteristics and occupational values frameworks, and found that job characteristics were more important moderators of the FFM traits than occupational values across almost all trait-criterion combinations. I discuss significant implications and limitations, along with

directions for future research along the lines of furthering the study of the joint influences of

person and situation on work outcomes.

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

It is largely accepted that behavior is a function of individual characteristics (e.g., personality) and situational characteristics (e.g., job characteristics). However, little research in the management field specifically seeks to study the joint relationships the person and situation have on behavior. This study examines how congruence between various personality, job, and occupational characteristics lead to beneficial work outcomes, such as greater job performance, citizenship behavior, and job satisfaction. Specifically, I argue that personality will be more strongly related to work outcomes when corresponding job and occupational characteristics are present. The results of the study indicate that for some personality characteristics, a greater level of the hypothesized corresponding situational factors leads to personality being more strongly related to certain work outcomes. For example, individuals that enjoy thinking creatively and working independently perform better in occupations that provide them with autonomy. These findings have significant implications for organizations, as they underscore the importance of choosing employees whose personality provides a match for a given job, as opposed to a "one-size-fits-all" approach whereby personality traits are seen as universally desirable.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of organizational psychology is to predict and explain individuals' behavior at work. To this end, there is widespread agreement among scholars and practitioners alike that to explain why people behave the way they do, it is necessary to consider both personal and environmental influences on behavior. Among the personal factors that influence behavior at work are individual characteristics, such as dispositional or personality characteristics. In particular, the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality provides a comprehensive, unifying framework for the almost innumerable adjectives that can be used to describe an individual's personality traits. Research shows that the FFM traits are useful in explaining an array of work-relevant outcomes, such as motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002), job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002), job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991), and citizenship behaviors (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011).

Despite the evidence supporting the utility of personality in predicting work outcomes, critics of dispositional approaches to explaining workplace behavior point to the relatively low validities of personality, and have even suggested that typical self-report inventories of personality be abandoned in organizational settings (e.g., Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, & Schmitt, 2007). One explanation provided by trait theorists for the relatively low validities is that situational (environmental) characteristics, particularly characteristics of individuals' work context, may moderate the relationship between personality traits and work outcomes (e.g., Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013; Tett & Christiansen, 2007), such that considering the FFM in absence of context underspecifies the validity of the FFM traits.

Despite the emergence of such theories (e.g., person-job fit, situation strength theory, trait activation theory), there remains considerable disagreement among scholars as to *which* situational characteristics interact with *which* traits and *what* happens as a result of such an interaction (e.g., Barrick, et al., 2013). One theory that does make specific predictions about the relationships between traits and job characteristics is the theory of purposeful work behavior (TPWB; Barrick, et al., 2013). It provides a theoretical framework wherein linkages between FFM personality traits and job characteristics from the expanded job characteristics model are hypothesized. However, because the TPWB is relatively new, the propositions that are outlined in the theory have not been empirically tested. Therefore, given the important contribution of the TPWB to understanding person-situation interactions, and in view of the fact that there have been no empirical tests of the theory, the first purpose of my dissertation is to test the major provisions of the theory pertaining to interactions between personality traits and job characteristics. In addition, I will extend TPWB by testing the broad propositions of the theory using both an expanded motivational striving framework (safety striving) and an expanded taxonomy of situational characteristics that draws on contextual elements of job characteristics (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008).

The second major purpose of my dissertation is to extend the TPWB by investigating the situational effects of occupational values (in addition to job characteristics) on psychological and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, I draw on the theory of work adjustment (TWA; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969), which posits that occupations affect individuals because they provide different occupational reinforcer patterns (ORPs) that correspond to individual needs (achievement, independence, altruism, status, comfort, and safety). It is important to study the influence of the occupational context because of its significant effects on worker satisfaction and behavior

(Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). Occupational values differ from job characteristics in important ways that suggest they may provide useful information beyond that accounted for by job characteristics. First, because occupational values reside at a higher taxonomic level than job characteristics, they provide a broader context in which to examine the situational effects of jobs. Second, compared to the expanded job characteristics model, the six occupational values from TWA provide a more parsimonious framework for examining the situational influences associated with job characteristics. Further, I believe there may be greater fidelity between the FFM traits and the six occupational values than between the FFM and the expanded job characteristics model because occupational values provide a psychological taxonomy of work that aligns with the personality taxonomy provided by the FFM. I argue that when the occupation reinforces needs that correspond to individuals' personal strivings indicated by their personality traits, higher levels of satisfaction and performance will result.

Thus the overall question I address in this dissertation is: "How do traits interact with job characteristics and occupational values to influence attitudes, motivation, and productive work behavior?" To be clear, my purpose is not to test all the propositions in the TPWB, but rather to use the framework and propositions provided by the theory to examine whether personality validities are influenced by specific characteristics of the job.

In the sections that follow, I will briefly review person and situation approaches to understanding work behaviors, interactionist theories that discuss the interplay between person and situation, and discuss more specific purposes of this dissertation.

Personality Approaches to Understanding Work Behavior

The study of personality in the context of predicting work behavior has a checkered history. Nearly 50 years ago, Guion and Gottier (1965) as well as Mischel (1968) concluded that personality had limited validity in predicting work behavior. This led to a veritable moratorium on scholarly research on the relationship between personality and work outcomes. In fact, a statement from Guion and Gottier (1965, p. 160) asserting that "it is difficult…to advocate, with a clear conscience, the use of personality measures in most situations as a basis for making employment decisions about people" has entered the annals of classic psychology lore. This sentiment was echoed by a number of scholars in the years following (e.g., Ghiselli, 1973; Schmitt, Gooding, Noe, & Kirsch, 1984). Part of the impetus for these scholars' negative view of personality was the absence of a comprehensive taxonomy to describe personality, as well as the prevailing scientific view that behavior was mostly a function of the environment.

First, a key limitation of personality research at the time was the disjointed nature of trait research in the absence of a comprehensive taxonomy. The development of the FFM (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1992) in the years following these pessimistic reviews provided scholars with a framework within which personality could be studied. The FFM groups trait adjectives into five broad traits: conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. The development of a unifying framework with which to describe and study personality directly resulted in a resurgence of interest among researchers in examining the effects of personality on work-related outcomes, particularly job performance. Second, the seminal meta-analysis conducted by Barrick and Mount (1991) was the first to integrate the results of dozens of studies and determine the overall strength of the relationship between the FFM traits and job performance. Several scholars followed suit with

similar meta-analytic investigations of the FFM-performance relationship (e.g., Hurtz and Donovan, 2000), most of which arrived at similar conclusions. The main findings from these studies were that the FFM traits of conscientiousness and emotional stability had modest but consistent predictive validity for performance across jobs, while other traits (i.e., agreeableness, extraversion) predict performance only in jobs requiring interpersonal interactions (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001). These results provided more accurate validity estimates than previous reviews that did not use a taxonomy of traits, but rather averaged across all traits, thereby masking the relationships between specific traits and outcome variables (e.g., Schmitt et al., 1984).

Coinciding with these developments, the rapidly changing nature of work in the 21st century caused scholars to theorize that job performance was composed of more than just task performance. This is because employees can contribute to (or harm) organizational functioning in more ways than just by effectively performing the technical core of their jobs. As such, following work by Motowidlo and colleagues (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1996) and more recently by Bennett and Robinson (2000) as well as Rotundo and Sackett (2002), the concept of a holistic, multi-dimensional job performance model became largely accepted by the field. These dimensions include task or overall job performance[1], organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), the latter two being collectively referred to as non-task performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) were the first to contend that personality is better suited to predicting a more holistic concept of job performance than just task performance. This is because in contrast to ability variables that

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[1] These terms are used interchangeably throughout the dissertation. Although it is more precise to differentiate between overall job and task performance, the use of meta-analytic methods to test the hypotheses requires task and overall job performance to be grouped because of a lack of studies exploring the correlation of the FFM with "task performance" specifically.

predict an individual's maximum performance (e.g., general mental ability, technical proficiency), personality is strongly associated with motivational strivings associated with volitional behavior, which includes non-task performance (i.e., OCB and CWB). As such, personality is believed to be more strongly related to "can-do" as opposed to "will-do" aspects of performance. These developments were important in stimulating research exploring the relationship of personality to multidimensional performance, with recent meta-analytic evidence showing that personality is a stronger predictor of non-task performance than task performance (e.g., Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Chiaburu et al., 2011).

Despite this progress in the study of the structure and validity of personality, it is far from a universally accepted maxim that personality (at least with respect to self-report measures) is a useful predictor of workplace outcomes. This is evident in the recent exchanges in *Personnel Psychology* between current (at that time) and former editors of major management journals and other influential scholars (Morgeson, et al., 2007; Ones, Dilchert, Viswesvaran, & Judge, 2007; Tett & Christiansen, 2007). At the core of these exchanges is the contention by Morgeson and colleagues that personality has low validity in predicting performance, while others (e.g., Ones, et al., 2007; Tett & Christiansen, 2007) argue that the validity of personality is practically meaningful and that, in certain situations, may actually be larger than previously thought. The latter point hints at the role of environmental (in this case, job or occupational) characteristics in allowing the expression of traits in motivated behavior.

Next, I turn to a broad discussion of job characteristics approach to understanding work behavior, including a brief discussion of the expanded job characteristics model and the theory of work adjustment (TWA) that is central to the purposes of the dissertation.

Job Characteristics Approaches to Understanding Work Behavior

The scientific study of the effects of the work environment on behavior dates back to Taylor's scientific management and the Hawthorne studies. Put simply, these two approaches had in common the belief that changes to the work environment could make individuals more productive. These findings led to contemporary approaches to studying the work environment, all of which can trace their roots to the job characteristics model (JCM) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). At its core, the JCM posits that job characteristics, such as autonomy, task variety, feedback, task identity, and task significance combine in a multiplicative way to influence critical psychological states (i.e., experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, knowledge of results) and performance. Further, Hackman and Oldham posited that an individual difference variable, growth-need-strength, would moderate the relationships between the job characteristics and the critical psychological states. A subsequent meta-analysis by Fried and Ferris (1987) found support for major parts of the model. Namely, all five job characteristics were positively related to satisfaction, motivation, and performance, as well as the critical psychological states; however, they found that, of the three critical states, results were most consistent with regards to experienced meaningfulness, and they found no support for the moderating effect of growth-need-strength.

However, despite the strong empirical support for the model, Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics approach focuses only on characteristics of the task. As such, the model suffers from a lack of consideration for a large component of individuals' work environment: namely, the social and contextual characteristics of the job. This is a particularly important deficiency in the study of the 21st century work environment that has moved away from a manufacturing economy to one that is knowledge-based. Such changes have resulted in work becoming

increasingly complex and organized around team-based structures, making social and contextual characteristics important to consider in the design of jobs (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008). In this vein, recent research contends that the task –based elements of job design should be supplemented by the integration of social and contextual characteristics into an expanded JCM (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Exemplar characteristics relating to the social environment of work include interdependence and social support, while contextual characteristics include physical demands and work conditions. Table 1 shows the expanded JCM work characteristics we consider in this study and their definitions; I will explain the JCM in more detail in the literature review.

Next, I review some person-situation theories and discuss how one in particular (i.e., TPWB) integrates the aforementioned personality and job characteristics approaches to the individual and environment, respectively.

Person-Situation Theories of Work Outcomes

Given that it is widely accepted in psychology that behavior is the function of both the individual (e.g., personality) and the environment (e.g., work context; Lewin, 1943), it is not surprising that scholars have proposed a variety of theories in which interactions between characteristics of both the individual and the environment are central to predicting work behavior. For example, one of the most ubiquitous theories to general psychology social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), which at its core posits that individuals learn by observing their environment. However, Bandura also makes the case for reciprocal determinism, which stipulates that the individual's own cognitive processes (e.g., self-efficacy) are influenced by and, in turn, affect the social context in which learning is taking place. Among the theories in

organizational psychology that attempt to explain the interactions between personality and the work context in influencing work outcomes, are situation strength (Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010), person-job fit (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996), and trait activation (Tett & Burnett, 2003).

The emergence of person-situation theories has had dual effects. On the positive side, these theories have provided guidance to practitioners and scholars as to when personality might relate more strongly to work outcomes. On the negative side, many of these theories lack specific predictions, either by not stipulating precisely which traits interact with what work characteristics (e.g., situation strength), or by ignoring the potential mediating mechanisms that link traits and job characteristics to work behavior (e.g., trait activation). As such, despite the various theories that discuss personality-work context interactions, none provide a unifying framework under which to consider the way personal and environmental characteristics interact, and the mediating mechanisms (e.g., attitudes, motivation) that explain their relationship with behaviors. In response, Barrick and colleagues (2013) developed a person-situation interactionist theory, which they coined the theory of purposeful work behavior (TPWB), to address some of these shortcomings in previous theories.

As shown in Figure 1, a major tenet of the TPWB is that individuals' behaviors are goal-directed, or purposeful, and the accomplishment of these goals is a function of both the person and situation. The theory specifies that there are linkages between these higher-order goals and corresponding personality traits (see Figure 2; explained in more detail later). For example, communion striving is associated with agreeableness and emotional stability, and achievement striving is associated with conscientiousness and emotional stability. As shown in Table 2, one useful contribution of the theory, which differentiates it from other theories, is that it specifies linkages between specific job characteristics and individuals' motivational strivings and

personality traits. A fundamental premise of the theory is that when the individual's personality traits (or implicit higher-order goal strivings) are congruent with the task or social characteristics of the job (e.g., power and influence), individuals experience a sense of meaningfulness, which in turn leads to positive psychological and behavioral outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, job performance).

As this discussion shows, the breadth (e.g., encompassing task and social characteristics, incorporation of motivational theories) and accompanying specificity (i.e., outlining exactly which traits will interact with which characteristics) of the TPWB provides a useful theoretical framework to investigate person x job interactions. Accordingly, in this dissertation, I draw on the major propositions of TPWB in an attempt to further our understanding of the way characteristics of people and their jobs interact to influence work motivation and performance.

However, most of the theories that seek to explain how traits and situational factors interact have focused on characteristics of jobs and have ignored the broader context in which jobs occur. In contrast, occupation-focused theories of work motivation provide a useful lens through which to examine the effects of the work environment on individual attitudes, motivation and behavior. Specifically, compared to the JCM, the occupational values model from the theory of work adjustment provides a higher-level framework and a broader context in which to examine the moderating effects of the work environment on personality traits' relationship with individual attitudes, motivation, and behavior (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969). A broader, higher-level framework provides a more holistic view of how occupations influence individuals by examining how individual needs are reinforced by the occupation (Morgeson et al., 2010). As these effects have largely been ignored in most person-situation theories of work motivation (including the TPWB), I investigate their effects in this

dissertation. In short, I propose extending the TPWB by postulating that characteristics of occupations moderate personality trait validities.

The Theory of Work Adjustment

Occupations exert cross-level, top-down effects on jobs (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991; Morgeson, Dierdorff, & Hmurovic, 2010) and have been shown to have strong effects on individual outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Morgeson & Dierdorff, 2011; Trice, 1993). Given that occupations are broader and situated at a higher taxonomic level than jobs, they can be thought of as subsuming job characteristics. For example, consider the occupation of law enforcement officer. This occupation has different jobs subsumed under it, such as detective or patrolman, both of which will have different job characteristics (e.g., detective is a more complex job than patrolman), but which share common occupational characteristics (e.g., independence). One theory that is especially relevant to the study of occupations is the theory of work adjustment (TWA; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). TWA provides an explanation for how occupations influence individual attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral outcomes and provides a parsimonious framework for understanding the critical factors underlying occupations (termed "occupational values"). According to TWA, occupations affect individuals because they espouse different occupational reinforcer patterns (ORPs) that correspond to individual needs (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). These ORPs are operationalized as six occupational values: achievement, independence, altruism, status, comfort, and safety. It should be noted that these values are empirically and conceptually distinct from other types of values, such as personal values. Occupational values can be thought of as occupational characteristics that reflect the extent to which an occupation provides reinforcement to the individuals occupying them along those six

dimensions. As described by Dierdorff and Morgeson (2013; p. 688), occupational values are "an important mechanism through which workers "get" what the occupation has to "give"".

An important aspect of TWA is that, despite being an occupation-focused theory, it recognizes the importance of the individual who is in the occupation. For example, TWA posits that congruence between what an individual desires from the occupation (e.g., opportunity to demonstrate competence) and the extent to which the occupation fulfills those desires leads to various beneficial outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction; Morgeson, et al., 2010). This approach contrasts with that taken by the expanded JCM, which posits that enriched jobs are universally motivating and satisfying (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Although the TWA acknowledges the important role of individuals, the theory and extant research have not addressed the question that naturally follows from the premise of TWA: what individuals benefit most from which occupational characteristics? I believe this is an important question in both a practical and theoretical sense. Practically, the answer to this question provides organizations with the ability to select individuals that are more likely to succeed in a given occupational setting. Theoretically, as previously reviewed, a variety of theories posit person-situation interactions but many suffer from deficiencies in terms of the specificity of their predictions. Because occupational values represent psychological needs or desires that are fulfilled by the occupation, they share a conceptual link with corresponding FFM traits. Therefore, theories of work performance could benefit by including the situational influences associated with ORPs.

Next, I specifically outline the purpose and contributions of the dissertation.

Purpose and Contribution of the Dissertation

The overall goal of my dissertation is to gain a better understanding of the interactive relationships between characteristics of people and characteristics of their jobs in predicting work motivation and performance. The first major purpose is to test the major propositions of the Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior (TPWB; Barrick et al., 2013), which specifies the way that traits interact with job characteristics to influence beneficial work outcomes. In addition, because the TPWB focuses only on task and social characteristics of jobs, I propose a theoretical extension to the theory whereby I examine the way traits interact with contextual characteristics (e.g., physical demands, working conditions) of jobs to influence work outcomes. Namely, the TPWB represents an integration of two taxonomies, the FFM and the JCM, that are representative of the person and environment, respectively. It includes several task (e.g., task significance, autonomy, task variety, task identity, feedback from the job) and social characteristics (e.g., social support, interdependence, interaction outside organization, power and influence) from the expanded JCM as situational moderators. However, in doing so it ignores several other important work characteristics from the expanded JCM framework (Humphrey et al., 2007), including all of the contextual characteristics (e.g., physical demands, working conditions). This expanded taxonomy is advantageous because the addition of contextual factors provides greater consideration of the entire work environment than the characteristics that are included in the TPWB.

The second major purpose is to extend the scope of the TPWB by focusing on the occupational characteristics within which jobs are embedded. Like most other person-situation interactionist theories, the TPWB focuses on the moderating effects of the characteristics of the jobs on personality trait validities; it does not include broader and potentially important

contextual characteristics of jobs operationalized by occupational values. This is noteworthy because job characteristics are embedded in occupations, which raises the possibilities that the motivational effects of occupational values may be more important than the effects of job characteristics. Therefore, I propose extending the theory to include characteristics of the situation at a higher level than job characteristics in order to provide a more complete picture of the work environment that moderates personality trait validities. In a later section, I will develop the argument that the organizational values model from the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013) provides a parsimonious taxonomy of higher-order occupational characteristics that can be used to examine how occupations reinforce individual needs, operationalized by personality traits. An additional purpose of this part of my dissertation is that I will test the relative importance of the JCM and occupational values taxonomies on the relationship of FFM traits to motivation and work outcomes. To do this, will conduct dominance analyses that simultaneously includes both sets of situational moderators

Overall, I will use the basic framework provided by the TPWB and my own extensions to the theory in an effort to comprehensively examine the basic question that underlies this dissertation: "How do traits interact with job and occupational characteristics to influence attitudes and productive behavior"? In order to answer this overall question, I will conduct a meta-analysis. As shown in Figure 3, I will meta-analytically estimate the correlations between the FFM traits and the work outcomes specified in the TPWB (task and contextual performance, job satisfaction). For each FFM correlation, I will code the job characteristics (limiting studies only to those with homogeneous occupations; explained further in the Method section) specified in the TPWB that correspond to each FFM trait, and I will also code the six occupational values for each job upon which the FFM correlation is based according to occupational ratings provided

by O*NET (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). Then, I will regress the validity coefficients for each of the FFM traits associated with each outcome on the job characteristics and occupational values. In these analyses, a significant coefficient associated with the job characteristic or occupational value indicates a moderating effect on the FFM validity (Judge & Zapata, 2014). In the literature review, I propose specific hypotheses in line with the TPWB and my own extension to the theory as to which traits will interact with which job characteristics and occupational values to predict the outcomes.

In addressing these research questions, I believe my dissertation will contribute to the literature on person-situation determinants of work outcomes and behavior in several ways. The findings of my study will also contribute to the ongoing debate regarding the utility of personality (Morgeson et al., 2007; Ones et al., 2007) by adopting a theory-driven approach to demonstrate what conditions moderate the validity of personality traits in predicting various criteria (e.g., attitudes, motivation, and behavior). In addition, my study provides a unique contribution to the broader literature on situational effects on trait validities by comparing the relative importance of two established models of situational influences (i.e., the JCM and TWA models) in moderating the effects of personality. By integrating the disparate literatures of the FFM and work design, I hope to provide scholars and practitioners with an empirically tested and parsimonious, theory-driven framework to aid in the selection of employees and design of work. Therefore, a major contribution of this dissertation is to help organizations better accomplish their business objectives while simultaneously creating a match between their employees' dispositions and work context that will keep them satisfied and motivated.

Table 1. Definitions of Job Characteristics From the Expanded JCM Included in the Dissertation

Job Characteristic	Definition
Social support	The extent to which the job provides individuals with the opportunity to both receive and provide help to others
Interdependence	The extent to which one's performance in the job is contingent on others' performance, and vice-versa.
Interaction outside the organization	The extent to which the job requires the employee to communicate with external stakeholders
Power and Influence	The degree to which the job allows one to lead and influence others, as well as acquire a position of dominance relative to others.
Task significance	The extent to which the job impacts the lives or work of others.
Feedback from others	The extent to which others in the organization provide information as to the performance of the focal individual.
Autonomy	The freedom individuals have to determine when and how they will perform work
Task variety	The degree to which the job has various different tasks that incumbents are required to perform.
Task identity	The extent to which the job involves a single, identifiable whole piece of work that incumbents can see through from start to finish
Feedback from the job or another	The extent to which the job itself or other individual provides an individual with information as to the extent of their performance
Physical demands	The physical strength, endurance, and activity necessary on the job
Work conditions	The extent to which the work environment is hazardous, dangerous, or physically uncomfortable
Ergonomics	The extent to which work involves comfortable movements and appropriate posture.

Table 2. Motivational Strivings, Associated Job Characteristics, and FFM Traits

Striving	Job Characteristic	FFM Trait
Communion	Social support	Agreeableness
	Interdependence	Emotional stability
	Interaction outside the organization	
Status	Power and Influence	Extraversion
	Task significance	
	Feedback from others	
Autonomy	Autonomy	Openness
	Task variety	
Achievement	Task identity	Conscientiousness
	Feedback from the job or another	Emotional Stability
Safety	Physical demands	Emotional Stability
	Work conditions	
	Ergonomics	

Figure 1. The Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior (from Barrick, Mount and Li, 2013)
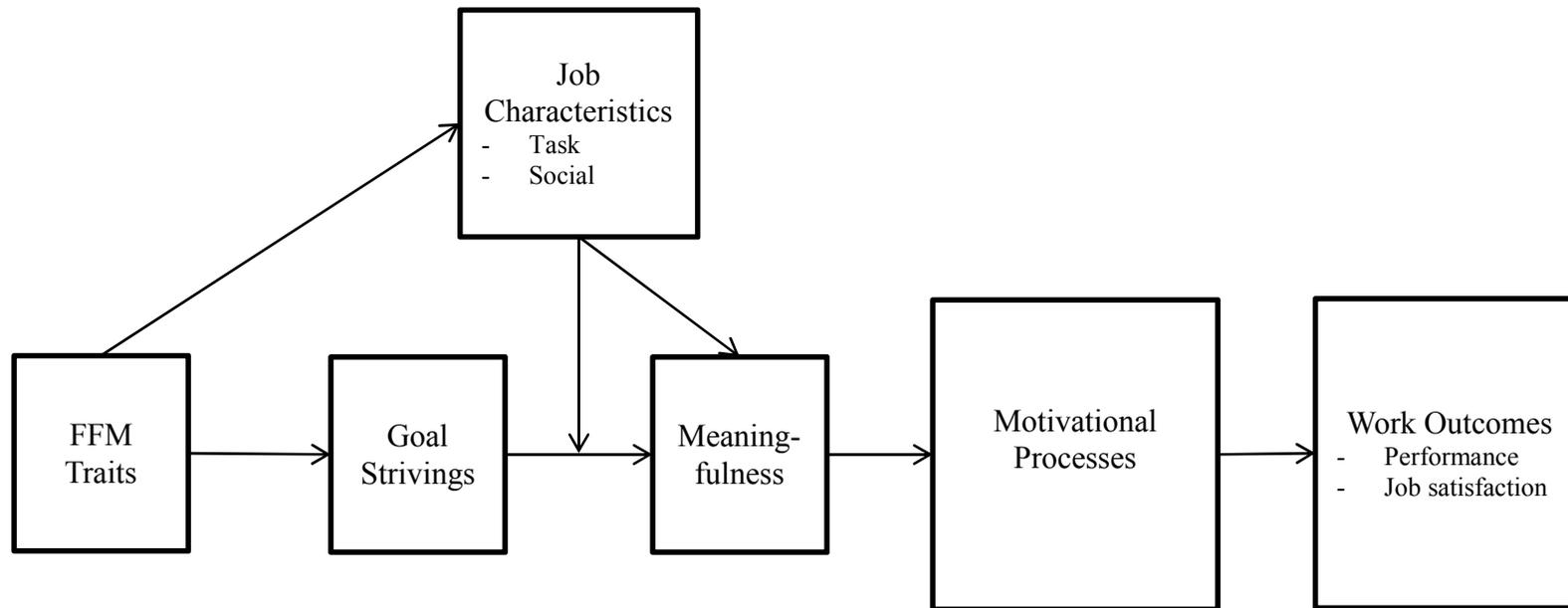
Figure 2. Higher-Order Motivational Strivings and Associated FFM Traits
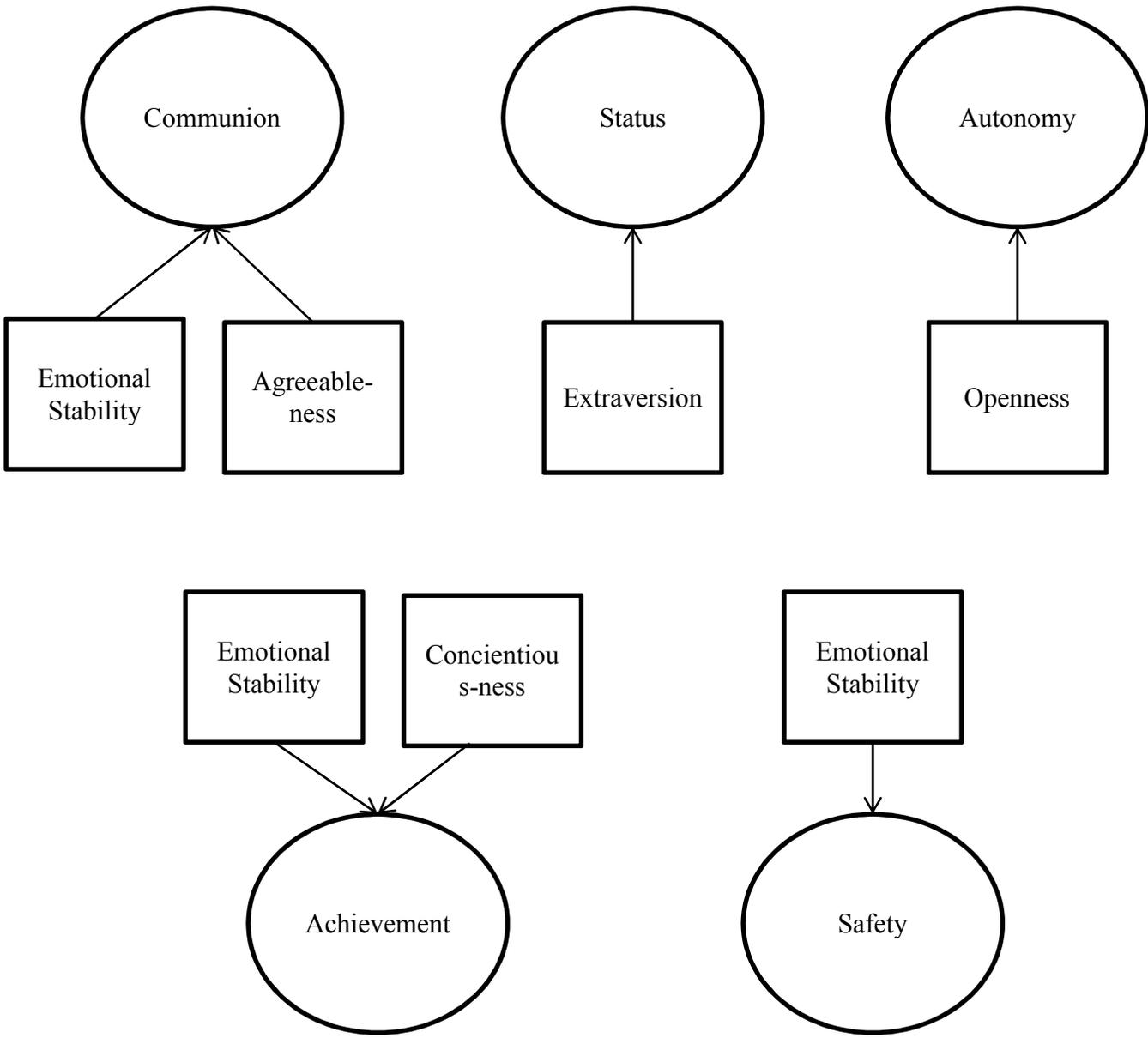
Figure 3. Meta-analytic Study Research Model
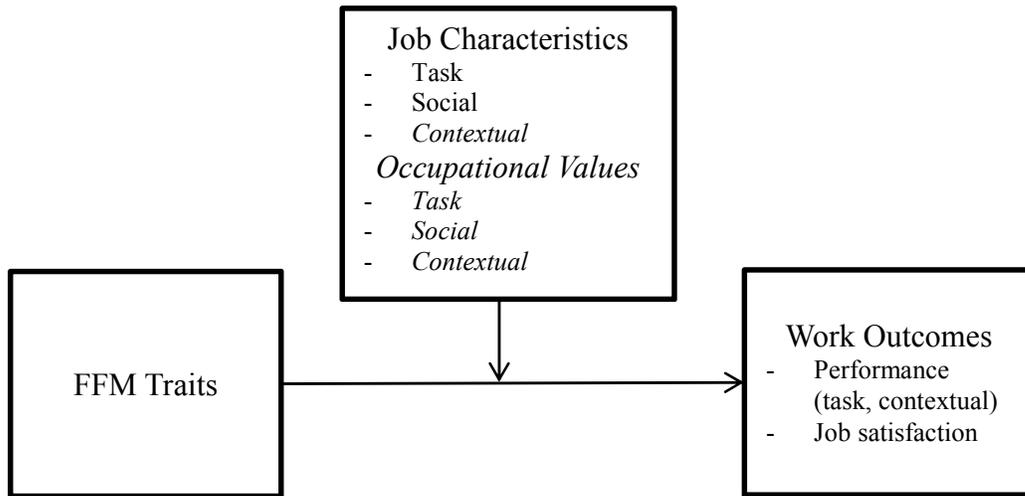
Note. FFM = Five-Factor Model. Italicized constructs indicate the unique extensions of this study to the theory of purposeful work behavior.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

I begin the literature review by discussing major theoretical and empirical work relevant to the

Five-Factor Model of personality, the job characteristics taxonomy of work situations, and

person-situation interactionist theories. Then, I formulate a theoretical model and state my

hypotheses that draw from the propositions in the TPWB, while extending the theory to

incorporate a situational taxonomy based on occupational values. Figure 2 provides an overview

of the theoretical model that is the basis for this dissertation.

I would like to note that when I discuss meta-analytic research, ρ refers to the correlation

corrected for sampling error and predictor and criterion unreliability, and I refer to credibility

intervals (CrI) and confidence intervals (CI) around ρ reported by the authors of the meta-

analyses to refer to the distribution of parameter values in the population and the likely amount

of error in the estimate of ρ, respectively (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). When both estimates are

provided, I report only the CI here to provide an estimate of the precision of the estimate.

However, in the absence of the CI, I report the CrI.

Personality and the Five-Factor Model

Following several pessimistic reviews some 30 to 40 years ago, some called for a

moratorium on the use of personality in high-stakes settings, such as personnel selection

(Ghiselli, 1973; Guion & Gottier, 1965; Schmitt et al., 1984). However, as I alluded to in

Chapter 1, in recent decades research on personality has exploded in popularity for several

reasons. First, the creation of a comprehensive taxonomy for personality in the form of the Five-

Factor Model (i.e., the FFM; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1992) gave

researchers a common language with which to describe personality. Second, meta-analytic research showed that personality traits actually show meaningful, generalizable relationships with job performance, in particular conscientiousness and emotional stability, that persist no matter the job in question (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 1997). Third, an expansion of the criterion space following theoretical work and real-world changes to the work environment that now includes behaviors beyond pure task performance (i.e., counterproductive behavior, citizenship) showed the importance of personality in the modern workplace (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Berry et al., 2007; Chiaburu et al., 2011).

In this dissertation, I adopt the definition of personality proposed by Funder (2001; p. 2): "an individual's characteristic patterns of thought, emotion, and behavior, together with the psychological mechanisms – hidden or not – behind those patterns". Further, Allport (1951) referred to personality as reflecting an individual's needs or drives, "satisfaction of which leads to pleasure and lack of fulfillment to displeasure" (Tett & Burnett, 2003, 504). In other words, personality relates to individuals' tendencies to be motivated to engage in certain thought or behavioral processes, and situations can help to satisfy this motivation. Of course, this definition is so broad such that it could encompass any number of dispositional characteristics. As such, decades ago psychologists were faced with personality research that was "sprawling in conceptual disarray, with no overarching theoretical paradigm and the subject matter was operationalized in terms of a large number of poorly validated scales with different names" (Hogan & Roberts, 2001, p. 7). Other reviews echoed a similar sentiment. For example, Kanfer (1990, p. 155) remarked that a major problem with personality research was the "lack of a unified theoretical perspective for understanding how and which personality constructs influence the motivational system". These observations are unsurprising, as before the introduction of the

FFM there was a plethora of personality taxonomies, studied largely in isolation from one another. For example, Allport (1936) noted that over 4,000 words in the English language could be used to describe personality traits, while other scholars proposed 16- (16PF; Cattell, 1946) and three-factor (Eysenck, 1967) theories of personality, the latter based on psychological disorders. Further, studies frequently confounded trait-criterion correlations by taking a 'shotgun' approach whereby all personality scales were combined and correlated with the criteria of interest, masking the true underlying relationships (Barrick et al., 2001). The lack of theoretical specificity and disjointed frameworks were largely unified through the advent of the FFM.

The five traits that compose the FFM (conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, extraversion, and openness) have been identified in multiple studies, in English and in other languages, to explain 70% or more of the variance in individuals' responses to thousands of individual trait adjectives (Goldberg, 1992). These five traits show overlap with some of the traits in previous taxonomies (i.e., extraversion appears in the FFM and in the three-factor model; the 16PF splits extraversion into dimensions of "social boldness", "dominance", and "liveliness"). Thus, the FFM taxonomy achieves a rare balance of being comprehensive yet parsimonious, while showing remarkable robustness across cultural milieus. Moving now to defining the individual FFM traits (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hogan, 1996; McCrae, 1996; Watson & Clark, 1997), conscientiousness represents a tendency towards being dutiful, responsible, and achievement-oriented. Emotionally stable individuals are well-adjusted and even-keeled, and rarely depressed or anxious. Agreeableness is a tendency towards being trusting, warm, and communion-seeking in interpersonal settings. Extraversion is a tendency

towards being gregarious, dominant, and active. Individuals high on openness are creative, unconventional, and artistic.

<u>The FFM and Higher-Order Strivings</u>

Beyond the lower-level FFM traits, scholars have theorized that individual traits influence individuals' higher-order goal strivings that predict motivated behavior (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002). These higher-order goals may be implicit, or unknown to the individual, yet their behavior is directed towards achieving them. As shown in Figure 2, Barrick, et al. (2013) proposed four higher-order implicit goals (their accompanying personality traits are in parentheses): communion striving (emotional stability, agreeableness), status striving (extraversion), autonomy striving (openness), and achievement striving (conscientiousness, emotional stability). Communion striving broadly reflects individuals' desire to get along with others (Bakan, 1966; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). Given that agreeableness represents a tendency towards friendliness and seeking harmony in interpersonal situations, it has a clear link to striving for communion. Similarly, emotionally stable individuals are calm and relaxed, making them easy to get along with in social situations (Bell, 2007), which links this trait towards communion striving. Status striving refers to motivation to acquire power and influence (Bakan, 1966; Hogan, 1983). Extraversion has a particularly strong link with striving for status, as extraverts are outgoing, dominant, and surgent (Goldberg, 1992). Autonomy striving reflects a desire to have control over the work environment (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals high on openness are imaginative, curious, and open to new ideas, which means that they strive to be in autonomous situations whereby they are unconstrained by their environment and can act as they please (Mount, Barrick, Scullen, & Rounds, 2005). Finally, achievement striving refers to individuals' desire to demonstrate mastery and a sense of accomplishment (Allport, 1955;

McClelland, 1951). Conscientious individuals have a desire to demonstrate mastery and competence in their pursuit of goals; as such, there is a clear link between conscientiousness and striving for achievement. Emotionally stable individuals are motivated to achieve, particularly in difficult situations, because they do not experience the same stress and depression that neurotic individuals experience in achievement situations (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Mount et al., 2005).

Barrick et al. (2013) derived these four higher-order goals from their observation from various needs theories that argue that people seek purpose and meaningfulness in their lives, and thus they pursue goals at work that are commensurate with this aim. For example, scholars have proposed that personality traits can be subsumed within "getting along" versus "getting ahead" motives (Hogan, 1996), with the dominant motive being predicted by relevant personality traits. For example, an individual high on extraversion will be motivated to "get ahead", while an individual high on agreeableness will be motivated to "get along". When an individual that is motivated towards a certain motivated goal striving can accomplish the goal, his or her needs are satisfied. Along these lines, McClelland (1971) argued for the presence of three implicit work-related needs (i.e., achievement, affiliation, and power), with Barrick and colleagues (2001) proposing a similar model of motivational strivings (i.e., achievement, communion, and status) whereby the strivings explain the effect of personality on work behavior. Self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) argues in favor of needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. The latter two needs are analogous to some of the needs in other theories (i.e., relatedness relates to communion and affiliation; competence relates to achievement striving). Thus, although the motives associated with personality are not unique to the TPWB model, it represents a parsimonious integration of extant needs and motives theories, along with a conceptual framework of which FFM traits relate to each of these needs and motives.

In addition to the strivings in the TPWB, I propose a fifth striving (shown in Figure 2) that helps to fully capture the range of individual goals associated with the FFM traits. This striving is derived from hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1943) and more recent psychological safety theories (Edmondson, 1999; Schein & Bennis, 1965) that propose that individuals have a need for safety. The hierarchy of needs theory is based on an evolutionary perspective such that individuals sought safety from adversaries and predators in order to ensure their survival. In a contemporary environment, however, the need better reflects individuals' desire for stability and security in different aspects of their lives. Further, theories of psychological safety argue that individuals have a need to protect themselves from external threats to their well-being (Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Such threats can take the form of disrespect, fear of negative reprisal for exhibiting voice behaviors, and fear of employment termination (Detert & Edmondson, 2011; Detert, Treviño, & Sweitzer, 2008).

As such, individuals with this higher-order goal will prefer situations that are stable (i.e., high job security) and comfortable (i.e., good working conditions; I explain this notion further later on). I propose that the FFM trait associated with this higher-order goal is low emotional stability. Emotionally unstable, or neurotic, individuals are commonly depressed, stressed, and anxious than emotionally stable individuals. Neurotic individuals seek stability and safety in their lives in order to help cope with their worrisome and moody nature, even as their demeanor results in their frequent dissatisfaction and turnover at work (Zimmerman, 2008). Further, neurotic individuals are more reactive to their environment and are more likely to experience dissatisfaction as a result of their jobs (Brockner, 1988; Hui & Lee, 2000; Judge, et al., 2002). This is echoed by Gray's (1991) reinforcement sensitivity theory of personality. Put simply, the theory proposes that individuals have a predisposition towards being more sensitive to

punishment than others. This implies that certain individuals are more responsive to situations that are potentially harmful, or to negative outcomes of their actions (e.g., conflict with a coworker). Thus, individuals with greater punishment sensitivity behave in ways to prevent negative outcomes instead of attaining positive outcomes (van der Linden, Beckers, & Taris, 2007). Following this logic, research shows that greater punishment sensitivity is linked with neuroticism (i.e., low emotional stability) from the FFM (Corr, 2002; Elliott & Thrash, 2002), such that more neurotic individuals are more sensitive to punishment, and therefore avoid threatening situations or those which could cause negative outcomes. In contrast, emotionally stable individuals are calm and even-keeled, and they are able to cope with stress in life better than neurotic individuals, so they do not have the same intrinsic striving to achieve safety goals.

I stated earlier that my intention in this dissertation was not to directly test all propositions in the TPWB. In this regard, I do not directly test the effects of the higher-order motivational strivings on motivation and behavior. Instead, I use the higher-order strivings model from the TPWB (plus the proposed safety striving) as an organizing framework to inform my hypotheses as to which traits will interact with which job characteristics. This is based on the idea in the theory that the strivings are implicit motives and may even playing a subconscious role in individuals' trait enactment[2]. Thus, I focus on the effects of the FFM on various work outcomes in this study, and use the strivings and associated with FFM traits as an organizing framework for developing my hypotheses.

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[2] Mount (2014) suggested in personal communication that the motivational strivings can be viewed from a theoretical perspective as unmeasured latent constructs, or theoretical pathways by which traits are believed to be enacted.

FFM Trait Validity Evidence: Job Performance Criteria

Moving beyond the conceptual underpinnings of the FFM traits, there is a great deal of meta-analytic evidence in support of the validity of the FFM across a variety of criteria. First, with respect to behavioral criteria, Barrick and Mount (1991) conducted the first meta-analysis on the relationship between the FFM and job performance criteria. They found that conscientiousness predicted overall job performance ratings across occupations [$\rho = .26$; 90% CrI: (.11, .41)] while other traits showed variable relationships across occupations, yet predicted well within some occupations. For example, extraversion [$\rho = .18$; 90% CrI: (.01, .35)] predicts performance for managers. This lent some credence to the situational specificity hypothesis proposed by Ghiselli (1966), in that some traits predict performance only in certain settings. For example, it follows that because managers must be socially apt and assertive, extraversion would predict job performance for this occupational group. However, the evidence shows that being dutiful, dependable, and goal-driven is associated with performance in all jobs. Several other meta-analyses on the FFM-performance relationship have followed in the past 20 years (i.e., Hough, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 1997; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991) with Barrick and colleagues (2001, p. 23) calling for a "moratorium on meta-analytic research" on bivariate FFM-job performance relationships, as their second-order meta-analysis showed the robustness of most of the findings from previous meta-analytic research. Namely, their results indicated that conscientiousness [$\rho = .31$; 90% CrI: (.11, .40)] and emotional stability [$\rho = .13$; 90% CrI: (.03, .20)] had generalizable relationships with supervisor ratings of performance, while other traits had moderate correlations with performance for certain occupations (e.g., extraversion $\rho = .21$ for managerial performance).

More recently, the variety of behavioral criteria investigated in relation to the FFM has grown to include other dimensions of performance beyond typical task or overall job performance (Sackett & Lievens, 2008). This development followed the contention by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) that most of the variability in task performance is associated with "can-do" factors, such as cognitive ability, whereas other dimensions of performance that are more volitional in nature are more closely aligned with motivation that can be attributed to dispositional sources. Thus, "will-do" factors like personality may predict non-task dimensions of performance better than cognitive ability, while cognitive ability may predict task-based dimensions of performance better than personality. Non-task performance includes behaviors such as counterproductive work behaviors (CWB), defined as intentional behaviors that violate organizational norms and are contrary to the interests of the organization and its members (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Gruys & Sackett, 2003) and contextual performance (or citizenship behaviors), defined as "individual behaviors that [are] discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promote the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006, p. 8). The tripartite model has received recent scholarly attention, mainly because of a shift towards an economy predicated more strongly on teamwork and service occupations (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). In these occupations, non-task performance dimensions may be indicators of overall job performance that are equally important to success in the jobs as is typical task performance, defined as behaviors that contribute to the technical core of the job in producing a good or providing a service (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Note that key aspects of the definitions of non-task performance dimensions are "intentionality" and "discretion", which should have high fidelity to personality. However,

despite the clear theoretical link between personality traits and discretionary work behaviors, subsequent meta-analytic evidence has been mixed in this regard. For example, a meta-analysis by Berry et al. (2007) on self-report FFM-CWB relationships found that conscientiousness (ρ = -.31)[3], agreeableness (ρ = -.35), and emotional stability (ρ = -.23) all had substantial relationships with CWB, especially relative to the FFM-task performance effect sizes (neither openness nor extraversion had correlations with CWB of any practical or statistical significance). However, these estimates might be inflated due to the inclusion of self-report measures of CWB, which led Berry, Carpenter, and Barratt (2012) to meta-analyze the FFM-CWB relationship using only other-report CWB measures (i.e., from peers or supervisors). Not surprisingly, they found significantly smaller correlations for all three of the aforementioned traits[4], and found similar results with respect to openness and extraversion. Collectively, these results show that individuals that are responsible, trustworthy, and emotionally stable engage in less CWB, although the sizes of the effects are closer in line with the FFM-job performance correlations than theory by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) would predict.

In the area of citizenship behaviors, Chiaburu and colleagues (2011) recently conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between the FFM and citizenship behavior. Their results showed relatively uniform, modest relationships between all the FFM traits and citizenship. In particular, conscientiousness [ρ = .18, 95% CI: (.15, .21)], agreeableness [ρ = .14, 95% CI: (.11, .18)], emotional stability [ρ = .12, 95% CI: (.08, .17)], extraversion [ρ = .09, 95% CI: (.04, .14)], and openness [ρ = .14, 95% CI: (.11, .18)] all had modest correlations with citizenship whose 95% CIs did not include zero. Thus, their results suggest that all traits have modest relationships

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[3] Neither the 95% CIs around the corrected correlations nor the credibility values for these estimates are presented in Berry et al. (2007).

[4] The correlations, corrected for measurement error in the predictor and criterion using alpha reliability, are as follows: conscientiousness = -.18 (95% CI: -.27, -.10); agreeableness ρ = -.22 (95% CI: -.34, -.09); emotional stability ρ = -.05 (95% CI: -.11, -.01).

with contributing to the organization and helping others beyond the formal requirements of the job.

Interestingly and in contrast to predictions offered by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), these meta-analytic FFM-non-task performance correlations are similar in magnitude to those reported by Barrick and colleagues (1991; 2001) for measures of overall job and task performance. In addition, Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount, and Oh (2014) used meta-analysis to investigate the relative importance of cognitive ability and the FFM traits in predicting CWB, OCB, task performance, and an equally weighted composite of the three dimensions. Their findings showed that the FFM was a much stronger predictor of CWB than cognitive ability, while cognitive ability is a much stronger predictor of task performance and the overall job performance composite than the FFM. The FFM and cognitive ability were about equally important predictors of OCB.

The major difference that can be gleaned from expanding the criterion space beyond just task or overall job performance is that traits other than conscientiousness and emotional stability are related to non-task performance behaviors (e.g., agreeableness has a relatively strong relationship with CWB) than to overall job performance. This lends credence to the idea that predictors and criteria should be matched in terms of their theoretical underpinnings to achieve higher validity (Hogan & Holland, 2003). For example, although agreeableness may not predict performance in all jobs, it may predict specific dimensions of performance (i.e., helping behaviors) in specific jobs (i.e., team-based service work). In sum, as the evidence reviewed here shows, the validities for the FFM are modest in magnitude in predicting all three dimensions of performance. This is especially the case in predicting overall job performance and task performance relative to the validity of another widely used individual difference predictor of job

performance, cognitive ability (Schmidt, Shaffer, & Oh, 2008). Of course, this is not to suggest that the FFM is not important, as even small validities can translate into a huge bottom-line economic impact for organizations (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). However, this observation has led scholars to postulate that the FFM may affect behaviors in more indirect form: namely, through its effect on more proximal predictors of performance, such as motivation and attitudes.

FFM Trait Validity Evidence: Motivational and Attitudinal Criteria

Although there is no one specific theory of how personality affects work behavior, scholars typically couch studies on personality-performance relationships within a framework where personality is a distal predictor that affects behaviors through its effect on motivational states that are more proximal to work behavior (Barrick, et al., 2001, 2013; Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993; Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Hough & Oswald, 2008). Motivation is defined as the direction, intensity, and persistence of effort (Kanfer, Chen, & Pritchard, 2008), and different states capture a different dimension of motivation (e.g., goal setting captures motivation that is goal-directed). It is this contention that forms the basis for theories seeking to better understand the "black box" underlying FFM-behavior linkages (i.e., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Personality and motivation are inextricably linked; in fact, the very definition of personality reflects individual volition and motivation to behave in different ways. For example, the TPWB (Barrick, et al., 2013) contends that distal personality traits give rise to more proximal motivational states (i.e., self-efficacy, goal-setting, expectancy), while the traits themselves can be thought of as broadly represented by higher-order motivational strivings (i.e., achievement striving is manifested in conscientiousness and emotional stability). Conscientiousness in particular has been theorized to be linked to motivation associated with work performance. This is because conscientiousness represents the degree to which individuals are goal-directed and

motivated to achieve, among other things (Barrick & Mount, 1991, Barrick, et al., 2002). In support of this contention, Barrick et al. (1993) found that conscientiousness influenced job performance because it predicted goal-setting behaviors in a sample of salespeople, while Barrick and colleagues (2002) found that the higher-order goal of achievement striving mediated the effects of conscientiousness on performance. In terms of the specific FFM-motivation linkage, Judge and Ilies (2002) meta-analyzed the relationships of the FFM traits with performance motivation variables from three commonly investigated motivation theories (i.e., goal setting, expectancy, and self-efficacy; I will explain these further later on). Perhaps unsurprisingly, their most robust results were with respect to emotional stability and conscientiousness, with average corrected correlations across the three motivational criteria of .31 and .24, respectively. The other traits had more variable and weaker relationships with performance motivation. This supports the notion that conscientiousness and emotional stability are related to achievement striving and is also probably why, as reviewed earlier, these traits have the largest and most robust relationships with job performance.

Building on goal-setting, self-efficacy, and expectancy motivation theories, scholars have more recently focused attention on work engagement as an indicator of motivation. Engagement is a motivational state that represents the investment of one's physical, cognitive, and emotional resources, or energy, in work performance (Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010). Early theoretical work on engagement alluded to the role of individual differences, as Kahn (1990) speculated that individuals would have varying degrees of resources to invest at work, and the degree of these resources would be determined at least in part by personality. Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) similarly conjectured that "personality traits concerned with human agency…are likely to lead to engagement" (p. 100). Thus, they meta-analyzed the relationship between

consciousness [$\rho = .42$, 95% CI: (.37, .47)] and extraversion [$\rho = .43$, 90% CI: (.35, .52)] and found both to have strong relationships with engagement, and that engagement mediates their effects on both in-role and extra-role performance.

Besides motivation, some scholars have argued that attitudinal constructs like job satisfaction also help explain the link between the FFM and some behaviors, especially non-task performance (Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, & Johnson, 2009; Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). Job satisfaction is defined as "an evaluative state that expresses contentment with and positive feelings about one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 343). Early dispositional approaches to the study of job satisfaction focused on the role of positive and negative affectivity (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1987) which are rough analogues to extraversion and emotional stability in the FFM taxonomy. However, more recent studies have expanded the dispositional antecedents of job satisfaction to include the other FFM traits, as other traits besides extraversion and emotional stability have meaningful relationships with job satisfaction. In a meta-analysis of the FFM-job satisfaction relationships, Judge and colleagues (2002) found that conscientiousness [$\rho = .26$, 90% CI: (.21, .31)], emotional stability [$\rho = .29$, 90% CI: (.26, .33)], extraversion [$\rho = .25$, 90% CI: (.22, .29)], and agreeableness [$\rho = .17$, 90% CI: (.12, .22)] all had meaningful relationships with job satisfaction. The strong relationships between emotional stability and extraversion with job satisfaction are not surprising, as DeNeve and Cooper (1998) described these traits as indicators of a "happy personality", which corresponds with being happy at work. The conscientiousness-satisfaction link is interesting, as the most plausible theoretical explanation is one where more conscientious individuals receive more rewards at work, both in the form of informal recognition and feelings of accomplishment and formal pay and promotion rewards because of their higher performance (Organ & Lingl, 1995). Agreeableness likely

relates to job satisfaction to the extent that agreeable individuals are able to achieve communion and have satisfying interpersonal relationships with others at work (Judge et al., 2002; McCrae & Costa, 1991). To this end, Judge and colleagues (2002) commented that the agreeableness-job satisfaction correlations actually showed substantial variability in the population, which may indicate the presence of situational moderators.

In sum, the research just reviewed shows that motivational constructs and attitudinal constructs (i.e., job satisfaction) have strong dispositional antecedents. In particular, motivation to perform has a robust relationship with traits associated with achievement striving (i.e., conscientiousness and emotional stability), while work engagement is strongly related to conscientiousness and extraversion. Similarly, job satisfaction is related to traits representing a "happy" disposition (i.e., emotional stability and extraversion), as well as conscientiousness and agreeableness. These results provide support for the contention that personality is a distal predictor that affects performance through its effects on more proximal motivational states and attitudes. Up to this point, I have only discussed the role of personality in predicting work behavior and the key mediators of this relationship. Thus, I now move to a consideration of the characteristics of work as predictors of behavior, as well as motivation and attitudes.

The Job Characteristics Model

As I discussed in Chapter 1, scientists' attempt to design work to increase productivity can be traced to the scientific management principles espoused by Taylor (1911). Drawing on the early writings of Smith (1776), scientific management principles centered around the idea of designing jobs to be more efficient by simplifying work into a series of repetitive actions and, when possible, tailoring the job to the abilities of the worker. However, the negative

consequence of such an approach was rampant dissatisfaction fueled by increased worker-management antagonism (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Thus, scholars realized that treating individuals as being akin to machines with a singular goal on efficiency was unsustainable. To this end, contemporary job design theory improves on scientific management principles by *enriching* work as opposed to boiling it down to a set of simple and discrete tasks, with the end consequence being increased satisfaction, motivation, and ultimately, productivity (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Herzberg, 1966; Humphrey et al., 2007; Scott, 1966; Turner & Lawrence, 1965). Such an approach represents two advancements over scientific management principles. First, it is more sustainable, in that by engendering worker satisfaction the worker is more likely to remain on the job and even produce more than is expected over the long term. Second, the changing nature of work has made jobs more complex, and the piece-meal manufacturing processes which scientific management sought to make more efficient are no longer a central part of the modern economy.

The central framework for contemporary theories of work design is the job characteristics model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; 1976). The JCM was a response to the dominant theoretical models of the time: motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Herzberg, 1966) and the "requisite task attributes" framework (Turner & Lawrence, 1965). Motivation-hygiene theory proposes that aspects of work can be divided into either motivators or hygiene factors. Motivators are intrinsic characteristics of work, such as recognition, achievement, and mastery, which motivate and satisfy individuals. On the other hand, hygiene factors are extrinsic characteristics of work, such as pay plans, working conditions, and company policies that contribute to dissatisfaction. The theory proposes that work should be designed to include motivators as opposed to hygiene factors. However, empirical research on the theory

found little support for the two-factor distinction (e.g., King, 1970). Further, the theory lacks specificity as to the operationalization of motivators into tangible aspects of jobs, and it ignores the possibility of individual differences in receptivity to enriching factors of jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Nonetheless, it provided the impetus for future theorizing by promoting the idea that jobs could be designed to increase motivation and satisfaction (Grant, Fried, & Juillerat, 2011).

Building on motivation-hygiene theory, Turner and Lawrence (1965) proposed that six objectively measured intrinsic characteristics of work (variety, autonomy, required interaction, optional interaction, required knowledge and skill, and responsibility) could contribute to employee satisfaction. They found that the six characteristics predicted employee satisfaction and absenteeism, but found that the results only applied to employees in a factory in a rural setting, and did not replicate to an urban setting. Hackman and Lawler (1971) built on work by Turner and Lawrence (1965) to propose that four job characteristics (autonomy, variety, task identity, and feedback) make work more satisfying and motivating for workers, and that individuals with higher growth-need-strength and higher needs for accomplishment would derive greater satisfaction and motivation from these characteristics. The empirical results of their study were as expected, with the four job characteristics contributing positively to employee satisfaction, motivation, and performance, and these linkages were moderated by the individual needs variables. This work formed the impetus for the JCM (Oldham & Hackman, 2005).

The JCM expands on the previously reviewed work by proposing that job characteristics are best represented by five core dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). These characteristics are conceptualized as task characteristics that contribute to how motivating the job is. In contrast to the social and

contextual characteristics I discuss later, task characteristics "are primarily concerned with how the work itself is accomplished and the range and nature of tasks associated with a particular job" (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006, p. 1323). In terms of the specific characteristics in the JCM, skill variety is defined as the degree to which the job requires the use of different skills and talents to carry out a variety of different activities. Task identity is the extent to which the job involves working on and completing an identifiable piece of work from start to finish. Task significance is the degree to which the job has an impact on the well-being of other people. Autonomy is defined as the degree to which the job provides freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling work and determining the procedures necessary to complete work. Feedback is the extent to which the individual obtains information as to the effectiveness of their performance, either from the work itself or other stakeholders (i.e., the supervisor).

According to the JCM, these five job characteristics impact the critical psychological states of experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the actual results of work, which they argue will then impact personal and work outcomes (i.e., performance, satisfaction, motivation). Hackman and Oldham (1976) proposed that skill variety, task identity, and task significance will, in an additive fashion, be related to experienced meaningfulness, autonomy will be related to experienced responsibility, and feedback will be related to knowledge of results. Hackman and Oldham (1976) argued that the scores on the different job characteristics that are associated with the different psychological states could be multiplicatively combined to determine the "motivating potential score" of the job[5]. Besides the characteristics of the job, Hackman and Oldham (1976) also proposed that a key individual difference variable, growth need strength, would moderate the effects of job

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[5] The formula is as follows: $\left[\dfrac{\text{Skill Variety} + \text{Task Identity} + \text{Task Significance}}{3}\right]$ x Autonomy x Feedback

design on the critical psychological states, and of the critical psychological states on performance. Moderation at the first stage of the model (i.e., job design → critical states) was based on the idea that different individuals will react differently to job enrichment and complexity, such that individuals high in growth needs would benefit the most from enriched jobs, while moderation at the second stage of the model (i.e., critical states → personal and work outcomes) proposes that the critical states are more likely to manifest in increased satisfaction, motivation, and performance for individuals with greater growth needs.

Empirical support for the predictions offered by the model has been mixed. For example, meta-analytic evidence offered by Fried and Ferris (1987) as well as Humphrey and colleagues (2007) shows that the five job characteristics are strongly related to job satisfaction and work motivation, with average corrected correlations of .41 and .39[6], and that experienced meaningfulness is a key mediator of job characteristics' effects on work outcomes. However, the effects of the characteristics on more distal work outcomes is less strong, as the five characteristics had an average corrected correlation of .19 with subjective ratings of performance and only .03 with objective performance. Further, Humphrey et al. (2007, p. 1346) concluded that "the primary mediator of the motivational characteristics-work outcome relationships is experienced meaning", with little support found for the mediating effects of either experienced responsibility or knowledge of results. Further, studies on the moderating effects of growth-need-strength have found inconsistent results (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Tiegs, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992).

Despite the mixed support for some of the model's predictions, the JCM remains the most influential and widely studied theory of job design, perhaps because of the robustness of its core premise (Grant et al., 2011). In particular, the five job characteristics provide researchers

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[6] These estimates are from Humphrey et al. (2007) as it is the more recent meta-analysis.

and practitioners with a useful taxonomy of job design features that can be manipulated to enrich work and engender increased satisfaction. However, more contemporary job design theorists have lamented the focus in the JCM on task characteristics and accompanying absence of two key features of the work environment: social and contextual characteristics (Humphrey, et al., 2007; Morgeson & Campion, 2003; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008). The absence of social and contextual characteristics from the JCM is surprising, as seminal work by Lawrence and Turner (1965) proposed interaction with others as a motivating force in jobs, and motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1966) discusses the importance of contextual characteristics (i.e., working conditions) as important hygiene factors. The response to this absence has been to expand the JCM to include these characteristics of work, in addition to other task characteristics relevant to the design of 21st century jobs.

Expanding the JCM: Social and Contextual Characteristics

Recent job design researchers have noted the importance of social characteristics (Humphrey, et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Parker & Wall, 2001) despite a moratorium on their study for many years (Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller, 1976). In fact, recent studies have used measures of job enrichment or complexity operationalized by the interaction required in the job with *people*, in addition to data and things, alluding to the importance of the social context at work (Ganzach, 1998; Judge, Klinger, & Simon, 2010). Part of the reason for this change is the increasing use of teams, as opposed to individuals, to complete work in organizations (Ilgen, 1999). Teams are characterized by having some degree of interdependence and social interaction, and research has shown that social relationships between coworkers contribute positively to well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Myers, 1999) and help insulate workers from stress caused by negative events (Karasek, Triantis, & Chaudhury, 1982).

In their theoretical extension of the JCM, Morgeson and Humphrey (2006; see also Morgeson & Campion, 2003) focused on four social characteristics of jobs, which can be broadly thought of as reflecting the broader social environment within which work is performed. Social support is the degree to which the job provides friendship opportunities and opportunities for advice and assistance from others. Interdependence is the degree to which the job is connected to others, such that the job depends on the work of others, and that others depend on the job to complete their work (Kiggundu, 1981). Interaction outside the organization reflects the extent to which the job requires interacting with external stakeholders, such as customers, suppliers, or the public. Feedback from others is a dimension of the "feedback" design feature from the original JCM (Hackman & Lawler, 1971), and reflects the degree to which others in the organization (e.g., coworkers, supervisor) provide information to the worker about their performance. As I discussed previously with relation to the FFM traits, individuals have a fundamental motivation to interact with others and form interpersonal relationships (e.g., the "relational" need in SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2000), so these social job characteristics should theoretically relate to various positive attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral outcomes. Meta-analytic evidence presented by Humphrey and colleagues (2007) supports this contention, as social characteristics had an average corrected correlation of .34 with job satisfaction, .26 with internal work motivation, and .19 with subjective performance ratings[7].

On the other hand, contextual characteristics represent the physical and environmental context within which work is performed (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). The study of the work context has its roots in motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1966), where adverse working conditions were conceptualized as hygiene factors that contributed to dissatisfaction. Herzberg

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[7] Correlations for interaction outside the organization were only available for the job satisfaction criterion.

(1966) argues that the work context may not have a direct effect on performance per se, but rather some minimum standard of acceptable working conditions must be met to avoid dissatisfaction. Humphrey and colleagues (2007) discuss three primary factors that influence the work context at work. Physical demands reflect the amount of physical activity, whether it be strength, endurance, or activity, necessary to do the job. Work conditions reflect the degree to which health hazards, loud noises, and extreme temperatures are present on the job (Campion & McClelland, 1991). Ergonomics reflects the extent to which the job permits comfortable movement and positions at work. As predicted by motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1966), poor work environments are likely to lead to dissatisfaction as a function of the physical discomfort associated with them (Campion, 1988). Humphrey et al. (2007) found support for this hypothesis, as contextual characteristics had an average corrected correlation of .20 with job satisfaction. Table 1 outlines the job characteristics and their definitions from the expanded JCM that are included in this dissertation

Expanding the JCM from just motivational, or task, characteristics to include social and contextual characteristics has provided a better understanding of the job factors that promote satisfaction, motivation, and greater productivity in individuals. In sum, it is clear that all three dimensions of work design (task, social, contextual) have meaningful relationships with attitudinal, motivation, and ultimately, performance outcomes. However, it is evident from the two topics of review thus far (personality and work design) that there is a need to consider the joint effects of both the *individual* and the *environment* to explain a range of attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral outcomes. Hackman and Oldham (1975) alluded to this fact by proposing that an individual difference characteristic, growth-need-strength, moderates the effects of the work design features on outcomes. Although findings with respect to this particular

construct have been equivocal (Fried & Ferris, 1987), the broad contention that all work characteristics are not equally beneficial for all people provided an important foundation for person-situation interactionist theories, which I will review next.

<p style="text-align:center">Early Person-Situation Interactionist Theories</p>

Up to this point, I have reviewed theory and empirical evidence supporting the importance of personality and job characteristics to important attitudinal, motivational, and behavioral outcomes. In my review, I have mirrored the historical development of theory regarding personality and work design by separately considering the influence these factors have on work outcomes, when it is almost always likely that employee behavior can be better understood by a joint consideration of the person and environment. For example, the seminal meta-analysis by Barrick and Mount (1991) showed that although conscientiousness was a valid predictor of performance in all jobs, most of the other trait validities showed significant job-related variability (e.g., extraversion). In this vein, Barrick et al. (2013) lamented that "very little research has systematically examined the joint and interactive effects of these two sets [personality and work design] of motivational influences" (p. 132). Because work in this area has been largely theoretical in nature, I now turn to a discussion of these theories. First, I will review several influential theories which posit broad person-situation interactionism. I limit this review to theories whose central propositions concern the interplay between the person and situation, as opposed to other theories that consider the person or situation in a very limited sense, and are primarily concerned with one over the other (i.e., the JCM). Second, I will discuss in detail the theory of purposeful work behavior (TPWB), including how the TPWB builds upon other person-situation interactionist theories. Third, I will propose an extension to the theory, based on the theory of work adjustment (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969), which considers the role of the broader

occupational context (Morgeson et al., 2010). I will state my hypotheses for the dissertation in these latter two sections.

<u>Situation-Strength Theory</u>

Situation-strength theory (Mischel, 1968; Meyer et al., 2010) posits that personality cannot be studied in isolation of situational characteristics because the expression of personality traits is constrained by the environment. In particular, the theory predicts that situation strength will moderate the effects of personality traits on the environment. Situation strength is defined as "implicit or explicit cues provided by external entities regarding the desirability of potential behaviors" (Meyer, et al., 2010, p. 122). Thus, a strong situation is one with a great deal of external cues (i.e., rules, structures, supervision) that direct behavior. On the other hand, a weak situation is one where the job provides a great deal of latitude for the individual to behave in ways they choose to behave.

Meyer and colleagues (2010) further operationalized situation strength with a four-factor framework composed of (a) clarity, or the extent to which one's job responsibilities are available and clear, (b) consistency, or the extent to which one's job responsibilities are congruent with each other, (c) constraints, or the extent to which an individual's freedom to act is limited by external forces, and (d) consequences, or the extent to which the employee's behaviors have an effect (positive or negative) on other stakeholders. According to this conceptualization, a situation is strong in the sense that it is clear, consistent, constrained, and provides a stage wherein behavior has consequences for others. Strong situations will inhibit personality trait validities because they provide less room for discretion that is associated with personality, and instead provide clear instructions on what the individual should do (Mischel, 1968). Thus, variance in performance will be attributable to factors other than personality, which is related to

discretion and volition that is suppressed in strong situations. However, weak situations do not provide such guidelines, and thus enable the expression of trait-motivated behavior. Thus, personality trait validities will be stronger in weak situations.

There is some empirical evidence in support of the theory. For example, Barrick and Mount (1993) found that autonomy (an indicator of situation strength) moderated the effects of conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness on performance. Further, a recent meta-analysis by Meyer, Dalal, and Bonaccio (2009) found that conscientiousness-performance validities were slightly stronger for occupations low on constraints and consequences. Judge and Zapata (2014) tested the premise of situation-strength theory by conducting a meta-analysis on the relationship between the FFM and job performance, and using O*NET to code several different indicators of situation strength corresponding to work processes and outcomes. Work processes correspond to the degree to which the work provides freedom or latitutde in how the work is performed, and work outcomes correspond to the degree to which the products of one's work present strong demands. They then regressed the FFM-performance validities on the O*NET codes to examine the extent of a moderating effect. Their results indicated that weak situations in the form of processes (e.g., high autonomy, high task variety) moderate all of the FFM validities, while the work outcomes (e.g., impact of decisions on coworkers, consequences of error) had mixed effects, moderating only the agreeableness-job performance and openness-job performance correlations. Their findings provided support for the importance of situation strength in individuals' work processes, such that weaker situations relate to increased FFM-job performance relationships.

Despite the strong logic underlying situation-strength theory, a primary criticism levied against it is the lack of specificity as to its predictions. For example, the theory predicts that all

traits will be moderated by situation strength. This is perhaps derived from the historical context in which it was proposed – Mischel (1968) first proposed the concept of situation strength when pessimism regarding personality was very high. Therefore, a simple explanation for the weak personality validity evidence was that the validity of all traits varied according to situation strength, although it is unlikely that all trait validities are suppressed or enhanced in the same manner. Similarly, there are no specific propositions in the theory as to what individuals actually do when situations are weak, and the categorization of strong vs. weak situations leaves out many other important situational characteristics. For example, in a weak situation, will all traits predict performance, or only some? Situation strength theory does not provide an answer to such a question. Thus, more recent trait interactionist frameworks, such as person-job fit (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996) and trait activation theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003), have taken a more fine-grained approach to proposing person-situation interactions.

Person-Job Fit Theory

Person-job (P-J) fit is based on broader theories of person-environment fit, which propose that fit is "the degree of compatibility or match between individuals and some aspect of their environment" (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011, p. 3; see also Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Person-environment fit can occur on different dimensions, including person-organization, person-team, person-supervisor, and person-job fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). P-J fit is the most salient dimension to the broad topic of person-job characteristic interactionist theories that are the focus of this dissertation. At its core, P-J fit theory proposes that individuals "fit" in their jobs when the job has demands which they can meet with their abilities (i.e., demands-abilities fit) and when individuals have needs that are supplied by their jobs (i.e., needs-supplies fit; Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). For example, an individual may

occupy a job that requires knowledge of computer programming, and if the individual has that knowledge, their abilities meet the demands of the job. Similarly, an individual may desire flexible scheduling, and if their job provides this, the individual's needs are supplied by the job. The most proximal outcome that follows achieving "fit" in the context of P-J fit theory is job satisfaction and, more distally as a function of increased job satisfaction, performance (Kristof et al., 2005; Locke, 1976).

P-J fit provides a logical explanation for why different individuals derive satisfaction from different job situations. Namely, either their needs are met or they provide something needed by the job, and both situations result in beneficial work outcomes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). However, the breadth of the theory allows any number of individual and job situations to be considered. For example, studies conducted in a P-J fit framework have examined personal attributes such as values, interests, and personality (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Cable & Judge, 1996; Edwards, 1991; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), as well as situational characteristics stemming from the job itself, supervisor, and organization (Kristof, 1996). Further, a number of outcomes of fit have been considered, such as applicant reactions to perceptions of fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004), recruiter reactions to perceived fit (Kristof-Brown, 2000), and the aforementioned job satisfaction and performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Thus, P-J fit theory suffers from a lack of an integrative and parsimonious framework within which to explain person-job interactionism. In addition to this limitation, P-J fit focuses on work outcomes that are affective in nature (i.e., job satisfaction), and thus does not consider the underlying motivational processes that occur as a result of person-job congruence and which are central to theories involving attributes of both individuals and jobs (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

Trait Activation Theory

Trait activation theory takes a more specific approach than situation strength and person-job fit theories and proposes that when specific attributes of the situation correspond with specific traits, higher job performance will result (Tett & Burnett, 2003). To do so, it draws from the FFM framework to provide a parsimonious set of personality traits as opposed to the overly broad conceptualizations of the individual inherent in situation strength and P-J fit. Further, the theory draws on several situational taxonomies to provide a holistic conceptualization of the work environment. According to trait activation theory, individuals are reactive to trait-relevant situational cues originating from the task itself, the social environment, or from the organizational climate (Tett & Guterman, 2000). Thus, Tett and Burnett (2003, p. 505) postulate that "an individual will seek out and be satisfied with tasks, people, and organizational features affording opportunities for expressing his or her array of personality traits". The converse is also true – if the individual and situation are discordant, the individual will suffer poor work outcomes. Key to the theory is the concept of situation trait relevance (Tett & Guterman, 2000) – a situation is relevant to a trait if it provides trait-relevant situational cues to the individual. As an example, consider an individual that is high on conscientiousness. According to the theory, jobs that require detail, precision, and rule following will likely cause conscientiousness to be activated in such an individual and trigger positive outcomes (I will discuss the outcomes further later). Likewise, a social context at work predicated on responsibility and dependability will activate conscientiousness, as will an organizational culture that is achievement-focused (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Such situational cues will cause the highly conscientious individual to enjoy several positive outcomes, including increased motivation and performance. On the other hand, a less conscientious person may succeed in jobs where creativity is necessary, where the social

context demands cooperation, and where the organization has limited promotion opportunities (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Thus, Tett and Burnett (2003, p. 509) propose that "the high end of a trait leads to success in some jobs, [and] the low end leads to success in others".

Trait activation theory advances on situation strength theory in several key ways. First, the theory provides predictions for a specific personality framework (i.e., the FFM) and outlines situational cues that will moderate the effects of different traits. In other words, the theory realizes that one situational cue (i.e., autonomy) might be beneficial for one trait (i.e., openness), but not another (i.e., extraversion). Second, the theory outlines specific outcomes that will arise from the combination of matched traits and situational characteristics – namely, motivation and performance. Finally, the theory uses several frameworks to characterize task, social, and organizational situational cues that will interact with behavior. For task characteristics, trait activation theory draws on the RIASEC interests model (Holland, 1985) as a situational taxonomy to describe task characteristics of the job that might facilitate trait expression. The use of the RIASEC model in relation to FFM traits is based on work by DeFruyt and Mervielde (1999) that showed a relationship between the FFM traits and preferences for different job types (see also Mount et al., 2005). For social characteristics, the theory draws from the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientations-Behavior (FIRO-B; Schultz, 1958) model, which posts that interpersonal compatibility with others occurs when one's needs for affection, control, and inclusion are met by others. Tett and Burnett (2003) propose that affection needs correspond to agreeableness, and control and inclusion to extraversion. Finally, they utilize the organizational culture and climate taxonomy developed by O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) to characterize organizational influences on behavior. This taxonomy proposes that organizations can be innovative, detail-oriented, outcome-oriented, aggressive, supportive, reward-oriented,

team-oriented, and decisive, and trait activation theory proposes that the different types of organizations will activate certain traits (i.e., innovative organizations will activate openness).

The inclusion of situational taxonomies at the task, social, and organizational level allows trait activation theory to provide greater specificity over situation-strength theory that, in contrast, relies on one characteristic to describe all jobs (i.e., situation strength). The opposite holds true in the case of P-J fit theory, in that research using the theory has relied on an abundance of situational characteristics with no clear situational taxonomy. Therefore, trait activation theory improves upon P-J fit theory by proposing clear situational cues that activate traits. On the "person" side, trait activation also provides greater specificity than situation strength which postulates that all personality traits will be moderated by situation strength, or P-J fit theory that includes any number of individual difference characteristics usually conceptualized as ability dimensions. Judge and Zapata (2014) meta-analytically tested some of the major premises of trait activation theory[8]. Their results were mixed, as they found support for the moderating effect of some of their hypothesized situational characteristics (e.g., the extent to which the job involves dealing with unpleasant or angry people moderated the validity of emotional stability) but not others (e.g., attention to detail requirement *negatively* moderated the validity of conscientiousness). The cause of their mixed results may be because they did not use the situational taxonomy specified in trait activation theory, and instead chose job characteristics available on O*NET that they hypothesized would provide trait-relevant situational cues.

Despite the positive features of trait activation theory, Barrick and colleagues (2013) point out that the theory does not specify the psychological mechanisms underlying trait-motivated behaviors. For example, although trait activation theory alludes to the role of

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[8] For a discussion of their methodology, see the section on situation strength theory.

motivation, clearly stating that "motivation will increase when trait expression opportunities are increased" (Tett & Burnett, 2003, p. 510), the cursory discussion of motivation undermines the complexity of personality-situation interactions and their underlying psychological mechanisms. Further, the situational taxonomy provided by the theory, although commendable for its multilevel nature and its increased specificity over previous theories, is perhaps *too* broad. In fact, it provides room for almost any situational characteristic to be considered a trait activator. For example, recent research using trait activation theory as an underlying framework has shown that perceived organizational support and perceptions of the developmental environment moderate the effects of conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability on counterproductive behavior (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004). Further research in this vein indicates that goal-focused leadership enables the expression of conscientiousness such that conscientiousness has a stronger, positive relationship with performance when the individual's leader is goal-focused (Colbert & Witt, 2009). The theory has also been applied to study trait expression in assessment centers (Lievens, Chasteen, Day, & Christiansen, 2006). Thus, although the theory provides a useful framework to understanding trait-behavior linkages in various contexts, the lack of specificity makes it difficult to provide useful advice to practitioners. To this end, Barrick et al. (2013) proposed the theory of purposeful work behavior to build on some of the premises of trait activation theory, while ameliorating some of its weaknesses.

The Theory of Purposeful Work Behavior

As I discussed in Chapter 1 and as shown in Figure 1, the theory of purposeful work behavior (TPWB) posits that individuals' behaviors are goal-directed, or purposeful, and the accomplishment of these goals is a function of both the person and situation (Barrick et al.,

2013). The "purposeful" component of the TPWB corresponds to the previously reviewed higher-order strivings associated with the FFM traits. For example, individuals high on conscientiousness and emotional stability will be motivated to strive for achievement. Thus, individual's higher-order goals are a function of their personality traits, which motivate individual behavior (Barrick et al., 2001). The TPWB also posits that when certain situational characteristics are present the individual will experience greater meaningfulness, as well as positive motivational processes such as self-efficacy, goal setting, and expectancy. This is derived from the assumption in the theory that individuals strive for meaning in their lives, and this striving is satisfied by work situations that are concordant with their purposeful goal strivings. As Barrick et al. (2013, p. 139) state, "although purposefulness arises primarily from one's personality traits, experienced meaningfulness is the result of the cumulative effects of internal…and external forces". Finally, these intermediate motivational processes give rise to specific work outcomes, such as job satisfaction and job performance (contextual and task performance).

As its core, the theory draws from the same basic premise underlying the previously reviewed interactionist theories: that consideration of the person and situation, when "matched" on some key characteristic, will explain behavior better than if only the person or situation were considered in isolation of the other. Like trait activation and person-job fit theories, Barrick et al. (2013) argue that congruence between personal and situational characteristics will result in positive work outcomes, and incongruence will result in negative work outcomes (or less positive work outcomes). However, the TPWB goes beyond other theories by integrating the two most widely accepted and commonly studied personality and situational taxonomies (i.e., the FFM and JCM) to provide a parsimonious model of person-situation interactionism. Specifically,

the TPWB makes specific predictions about which FFM traits will correspond to which job characteristics from the expanded JCM model, such that individuals with a high level of certain FFM traits will thrive in work environments with a high level of the corresponding job characteristics. As shown in Table 2, the TPWB focuses on the moderating effects of motivational/task characteristics from the original JCM (i.e., autonomy, task variety, feedback, task significance, task identity; see Table 1 for their definitions), the social characteristics from the expanded JCM (social support, interaction outside the organization, interdependence), and the power and influence provided by the job on the FFM traits. The immediate outcomes of these interactions are motivational in nature (meaningfulness, work engagement), followed by more distal outcomes (satisfaction, performance).

In the following sections, I begin by discussing the critical motivational outcomes (i.e., meaningfulness, motivational processes) that the TPWB proposes result from person-situation congruence. As I've stated previously, I will conduct a meta-analytic study to test the hypotheses. Because meta-analyses are limited by the extant research literature, I will be unable to test the mediators proposed by the TPWB because of a lack of studies and instead test the direct linkages between the FFM and the three outcomes the theory proposes (job performance, contextual performance, and job satisfaction). However, it is important to discuss the motivational constructs that the theory proposes links person-situation congruence to the more distal outcomes in order to understand the logic underlying the hypotheses that follow. After discussing the motivational outcomes, I will review the specific propositions from the TPWB regarding the different motivational strivings and which characteristics will facilitate these strivings. These propositions are the basis for the hypotheses in the dissertation. As I mentioned in the discussion of the higher-order motivational strivings associated with the FFM traits (see

section titled "The FFM and Higher-Order Strivings"), I am not testing the explicit propositions from the TPWB that focus on the higher-order motivational strivings, but am instead using the strivings as a theoretical framework with which to organize the propositions from the TPWB regarding specific trait-characteristic linkages. I will also extend the situational taxonomy beyond task and social characteristics to include contextual characteristics of jobs. Following this discussion and associated hypotheses, I propose an extension of the situational taxonomy based on the theory of work adjustment that considers the effects of higher-order occupational characteristics.

Motivational Outcomes

The TPWB predicts that experienced meaningfulness is the most proximal outcome of person-situation congruence. Of the three critical psychological states identified by Hackman and Oldham (1975; see the section on the JCM for further details), experienced meaningfulness has emerged as the "most critical" state (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Humphrey et al., 2007; Johns, Xie, & Fang, 1992; Oldham, 1996). This finding reinforces the notion that the "the ultimate goal of human beings is to pursue meaning in our work and nonwork lives" (Humphrey et al., 2007, 1346). Thus, it plays the role of the central mediator in the TPWB of the interactive effects of personality and the job's characteristics on subsequent behavioral and attitudinal outcomes (Barrick et al., 2013). Experienced meaningfulness has been defined by various scholars as the extent to which individuals perceive their behaviors on the job to be worthwhile and useful (Kahn, 1990), valuable and important (Humphrey et al., 2007), purposeful and significant (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003), and meaningful, valuable, and worthwhile (Hackman & Oldham 1975). Thus, experienced meaningfulness captures the intrinsic worth that employees attach to their work behaviors. It follows, then, that employees will attach greater worth to their behaviors at

work when the characteristics of their jobs align with what they are intrinsically motivated to do, as represented by personality and motivational strivings.

According to the TPWB, when individuals experience greater meaningfulness as a result of person-situation congruence, they will be more highly motivated. The psychological outcomes the theory highlights as exemplar motivational processes are three constructs central to the study of motivation: self-efficacy, goal setting, and expectancy (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Self-efficacy is defined as one's perception of "how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). Self-efficacy has been conceptualized as both a trait-like individual difference variable (e.g., Judge & Ilies, 2003; Judge, Jackson, Shaw, Scott, & Rich, 2007) and a motivational variable that varies both between and within people (Bandura, 1982). The former approach views self-efficacy as relatively stable across situations, while the latter approach views levels of self-efficacy as being contingent upon the situation. It is likely that both views are true. For example, one can have high trait self-efficacy in that one is confident in one's abilities to succeed across situations, while also believing that one is less likely to succeed in some situations than others (Judge & Bono, 2001). Thus, the TPWB argues that self-efficacy is a motivational process that is contingent upon both the person and situation. Meta-analytic evidence shows that self-efficacy is related to the FFM traits (multiple $R = .49$; Judge & Ilies, 2002) and job performance [$\rho = .34$; 95% CI: (.34, .36); Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998], supporting its role as a mediator in the theory.

According to goal setting theory, individuals that set specific and difficult goals will perform better than those that do not (Locke & Latham, 1990; 2013). A plethora of studies conducted in both laboratory and field settings support this contention, with d values of performance ranging from .52 to .82 comparing groups with "do-your-best" goals and those with

specific and difficult goals (Locke & Latham, 1990; 2002). The theory also specifies several

moderators of goal-performance linkages, including goal commitment (goals will lead to higher

performance when individuals are committed to them), feedback (goals will lead to higher

performance when individuals are aware as to their progress in achieving the goal), and task

complexity (goals will lead to higher performance in simpler tasks). A key component to goal

setting theory and that which is most relevant to the TPWB is the role of self-set goals. It is only

logical that personality and job characteristics can interact only to predict self-set as opposed to

assigned goals. However, even when goals are assigned, individuals usually have considerable

discretion in setting their own goals. For example, goals at work are frequently assigned by a

supervisor (e.g., "produce 1000 widgets per day"), but to arrive at the larger goal, individuals

frequently set "personal goals" (e.g., "if I produce 200 widgets an hour, I can achieve my

assigned goal in five hours"). Thus, personality theorists contend that some personality traits will

lead individuals to set more ambitious personal goals, even when in a "strong" situation with

little discretion to set one's own goals (Meyer et al., 2010). Judge and Ilies (2002) found that the

FFM had a strong relationship with goal setting (multiple $R = .63$[9]), lending credence to the

contention that goal setting is related to one's disposition.

Finally, expectancy is a core construct in the valence-instrumentality-expectancy model

of motivation. According to the model, valence (anticipated desirability of an outcome),

instrumentality (likelihood that performance will lead to desired outcome), and expectancy

(likelihood that effort will lead to the performance necessary to attain the desired outcome)

combine multiplicatively to form an index of motivation (Vroom, 1964). Thus, expectancy has a

strong relationship with the concept of self-efficacy as it is one's self-evaluation of the likelihood

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[9] In addition, all of the individual FFM trait coefficients were statistically significant in the regression equation.

of success. Research has shown that expectancy is related to performance [mean r = .22; 95% CI: (.17, .25); Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996] and, similar to the other motivational constructs, a strong dispositional basis (FFM multiple R = .36; Judge & Ilies, 2002).

Next, I will develop specific hypotheses based on the propositions from the TPWB. The higher-order strivings from the TPWB provide the organizing framework for the hypotheses in the dissertation, and the next section is organized by these strivings to propose specific FFM trait-job characteristic interactions. Table 2 shows a summary of the expected FFM trait-job characteristic interactions, grouped by their associated higher-order strivings.

Hypothesis Development

Communion Striving

Communion striving is a goal that represents an individual's motivation for harmony in interpersonal situations and acceptance from others (Barrick et al., 2013; Hogan, 1996). Communion striving is best represented by the traits agreeableness and emotional stability. As I discussed previously, agreeableness represents a tendency to be courteous, altruistic, and trusting of others (Goldberg, 1992; Mount et al., 2005). As described by Costa and McCrae (1992, p. 15), highly agreeable individuals are "sympathetic to others and eager to help them, and believe that others will be helpful in return". Agreeableness has been linked to helping behaviors in situations where interpersonal interactions are important, such as teams (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998). Emotional stability is a tendency to be calm, relaxed, and rarely anxious (Barrick & Mount, 1991). As such, emotionally stable individuals have a tendency to get along with other people. Further, emotionally *un*stable individuals tend to be hypervigilant and defensive, which may cause them to react negatively to others' actions which they perceive as

threats, but which may not be (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997; Shavit & Shouval, 1977). Therefore, agreeableness and emotional stability have a clear link to communion striving.

According to the TPWB, the job characteristics that provide a match or, in trait activation parlance, cues for trait expression aligned with communion striving are the social characteristics of work. These characteristic include social support, interdependence, and interaction outside the organization. Jobs with a great deal of social support allow individuals to both receive and provide help to others on the job (Karasek, 1979). Highly interdependent jobs are those where one's performance is contingent on the others' performance, and vice versa (Kiggundu, 1981). Finally, interaction outside the organization reflects the extent to which the job requires the employee to communicate with external stakeholders (i.e., the public, customers, suppliers; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Stone & Geutal, 1985). Jobs with high levels of these social characteristics will facilitate individuals' fulfillment of communion goals, and will thus contribute to experienced meaningfulness. On the other hand, jobs with low levels of these characteristics will effectively block high communion striving individuals' progress towards their desired goals, resulting in adverse work outcomes (Agnew, 1992). This is because all three social characteristics allow individuals to interact with others in ways that are affiliative and cooperative. In line with this reasoning, Kahn (1990) proposed that the expression of an individual's 'preferred self', as will happen when they are in concordant work situations, facilitates connections to others and the fulfillment of affiliative goals. For example, a public relations professional in charge of managing press releases for an organization will have the opportunity and, in order to effectively perform his or her job, will have to establish cooperative relationships with journalists. In short, agreeable and emotionally stable individuals that are in

situations with social characteristics that are congruent with communion striving will enjoy greater satisfaction and performance.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship of agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by social support, such that social support is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship of agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by interdependence, such that interdependence is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship of agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by interaction outside the organization, such that interaction outside the organization is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by social support, such that social support is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by interdependence, such that interdependence is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 6: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by interaction outside

the organization, such that interaction outside the organization is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Status Striving

Status striving represents an individual's motivation to acquire power and influence in social situations (Bakan, 1966; Barrick et al., 2002). Status striving is best represented by the FFM trait of extraversion. This is because extraverts are active, dominant in social situations, and gregarious (Goldberg, 1992). Extraverts are particularly predisposed towards seeking extrinsic rewards, such as income, which come as a result of achieving high status positions (Howard & Bray, 1994; Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). Thus, extraverts' purposeful goal strivings are oriented towards "getting ahead" as opposed to "getting along" (which is associated with communion striving; Hogan, 1996).

The job characteristics identified by the TPWB as facilitating status striving are power and influence and task significance. Although not an explicit part of the expanded JCM, power and influence is an important aspect of work and represents the degree to which the job allows one to lead and influence others, as well as acquire a position of dominance relative to others (Barrick et al., 2013; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). Task significance is the extent to which the job impacts the lives or work of others (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Humphrey et al., 2007). These characteristics are consistent with status striving, as they either fulfill the desire to "get ahead" of others, help enhance the individual's social reputation, or provide information as to the individual's performance relative to others. Thus, individuals high on extraversion that occupy jobs with a high degree of these characteristics will experience meaningfulness and engagement because extraverts derive meaning from situations where they can dominate others, where their

behaviors have a direct impact on other individuals, and where they can receive information as to their standing relative to other individuals (Barrick et al., 2013; Hogan & Holland, 2003).

For example, consider the job of regional sales manager for a pharmaceutical drug company. Such jobs usually involve supervising a group of individual salespeople (high power and influence) and helps provide individuals with the drugs they need to treat their medical condition (high task significance). An extraverted individual occupying this job will have his/her status striving fulfilled and will therefore interpret their jobs as being meaningful, resulting in increased motivation, satisfaction, and performance. On the other hand, an introverted individual, who is quiet, prefers to be alone, and is submissive in interpersonal situations, will be unlikely to have their intrinsic, motivational strivings fulfilled in a job like this and will experience the negative effects of an incongruent work situation – namely, a lack of experienced meaningfulness, low motivation, dissatisfaction, and poor performance.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship of extraversion with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by power and influence, such that power and influence is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship of extraversion with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by task significance, such that task significance is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Autonomy Striving

Autonomy striving reflects the motivational goal to behave in ways that are self-determined and to be in control of one's environment (Mount et al., 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). A secondary component of autonomy striving that is relevant to the TPWB is the desire to learn

and grow, as doing so allows one to better control the environment (Barrick et al., 2013). The FFM trait most closely associated with autonomy striving is openness to experience. Individuals high on openness are intellectually curious, imaginative, and creative (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Research shows that open individuals desire autonomy at work because it allows them to engage in have control over their immediate work environment, determine their own way of getting their work done, and try new things (Mount et al., 2005).

Following this, the work characteristics associated with autonomy striving are autonomy and task variety. Autonomy is defined as the freedom individuals to determine when they will perform work, how they will perform work, or to make work-related decisions (Krasek, et al., 1998; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Task variety is the degree to which the job has various different tasks that incumbents are required to perform (Humphrey, et al., 2007). Thus, task variety refers to how well-defined an individual's job tasks are. According to the TPWB, individuals high on openness will experience meaning from jobs high in autonomy because they have the discretion to "explore and experiment with alternative methods at work and to satisfy their curious nature" (Barrick et al., 2013, p. 144). Further, task variety provides the opportunity to engage in many different tasks and think about one's work in different ways. Engaging in a variety of tasks is requires individuals to learn and grow (Hackman & Lawler, 1971), which individuals high on openness are receptive to. Thus, when the work situation is characterized by high autonomy and high task variety, individuals high on openness to experience will experience meaningfulness and be engaged at work.

As an example, consider the role of a professor. A professor's job is characterized by making decisions every day about the work one will engage in and how one will go about engaging in it (high autonomy). Further, professors engage in many different tasks, sometimes

even within one work day, such as teaching, research, service, and mentoring (high task variety). Thus, an individual who is full of ideas, imaginative, and enjoys learning new things will be able to pursue autonomy goals as a professor because they can engage in activities for which they are suited. On the other hand, an individual who is more closed-minded and conventional may prefer structure and routine as opposed to the unstructured nature of a job with high autonomy and task variety. Thus, open individuals in such jobs will benefit from experienced meaningfulness, and greater satisfaction and performance.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship of openness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by autonomy, such that autonomy is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship of openness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by task variety, such that task variety is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Achievement Striving

Achievement striving refers to the desire to "get things done", particularly in a timely and efficient way (Barrick et al., 2002). Achievement striving is also characterized by demonstrating competence and mastery in achievement situations which, according to self-determination theory, is a universal human need (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The personality traits associated with achievement striving are conscientiousness and emotional stability (Barrick et al., 2002). Conscientious individuals are disciplined, organized, and dutiful (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992). In fact, the very nature of conscientiousness is a desire to achieve (Barrick et al., 2013; Mount et al., 2005). Emotionally stable individuals are rarely depressed or anxious and

remain calm even in high pressure situations (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1992). On the other hand, emotionally unstable individuals are less confident, question their self-worth, and are overly sensitive to environmental stimuli. Therefore, individuals low on emotional stability are motivated to pursue goals that avoid failure rather than achievement goals (Payne, Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). Because of their link to achievement striving, it is not surprising that they are the only two traits that predict performance across most jobs (Barrick et al., 2001).

The job characteristics that facilitate conscientious and emotionally stable individuals' achievement goal pursuit are task identity and feedback from the job and others. Task identity is the extent to which the job involves a single, identifiable whole piece of work that incumbents can see through from start to finish (Sims et al., 1976). Feedback from the job is the extent to which the job itself provides an individual with information as to the effectiveness of their performance, while feedback from others is the extent to which others (i.e., supervisor or coworker) provide the individual with such information (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). According to Barrick et al. (2013), these job characteristics collectively inform the individual as to their progress towards fulfillment of organizational objectives. As such, they provide the context for individuals high on conscientiousness and emotional stability to experience meaningfulness. This is because conscientious and emotionally stable individuals want to "get things done" and pursue achievement goals, and therefore require feedback as to their progress towards these goals in order to properly channel their energy towards work tasks (Barrick et al., 2002; Payne et al., 2007). In the absence of performance feedback, highly conscientious and emotionally stable individuals will be unaware of their goal progress, the link between their effort and goal accomplishment will be weakened, and they may decide to pursue other goals besides those desired by the organization (Locke & Latham, 2001). Another relevant point is related to how

individuals react to feedback. Research shows that individuals with more confidence in their abilities (i.e., conscientious, emotionally stable) view even negative feedback as opportunities to improve and are motivated by it, as opposed to individuals with negative self-appraisals (Bono & Colbert, 2005; Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997). Therefore, feedback (whether positive or negative) is more likely to result in experienced meaningfulness and heightened engagement for individuals high on conscientiousness and emotional stability.

As an example, consider the job of carpenter. Carpenters typically work on a given project from start to finish, such as painting a house or replacing a roof. As such, they are able to direct their efforts on that one task from start to finish (high task identity). Further, they receive feedback as to their performance both from observing the outcomes of their work (high feedback form the job) and from customer feedback (high feedback from others). In this job, individuals who are dutiful and achievement oriented, as well as calm in high-stress situations will be better able to pursue achievement goals because the environment provides them with the opportunity to do so by providing a clear link between their effort and desired outcomes. Further, this situation will reinforce the feelings of competence that achievement striving individuals seek. On the other hand, lazy and careless individuals will perform poorly in this situation, while emotionally unstable individuals will be overly self-critical in the face of negative feedback and be unable to properly complete the job. Thus, jobs with these characteristics are best suited to conscientious and emotionally stable individuals because it allows them to fulfill their achievement goals, resulting in experienced meaning, followed by greater satisfaction, and performance.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship of conscientiousness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by task identity, such that task identity is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 12: The relationship of conscientiousness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by feedback from the job, such that feedback from the job is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 13: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by task identity, such that task identity is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 14: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by feedback from the job, such that feedback from the job is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Safety Striving

Although the TPWB does not propose safety striving as a key motivational striving, I believe that expanding the framework to include its effects provides a more comprehensive representation of the wide range of individuals' motivational strivings. Further, I propose that contextual job characteristics, which are not included in the TPWB, provide the situational context that allows individuals to achieve their safety goals (Humphrey, et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Safety striving is derived from hierarchy of needs theory (Maslow, 1943) and reflects individuals' desire to be comfortable and secure in their work and nonwork lives (Edmondson, 1999; Schein & Bennis, 1965). Individuals that strive for safety do so in order to protect themselves from threats to their well-being, psychological and otherwise (Staw et al., 1981). I propose that the FFM trait associated with this striving is low emotional stability. As I

previously discussed, individuals low on emotional stability (i.e., those that are neurotic) are frequently depressed and anxious (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Further, neurotic individuals tend to be particularly sensitive to situations that could threaten their well-being, leading them to be preoccupied with avoiding negative outcomes as opposed to pursuing positive outcomes (Gray, 1991; van der Linden et al., 2007). This preoccupation with avoiding negative outcomes is analogous to my conceptualization of safety striving.

The contextual job characteristics from the expanded JCM associated with striving for safety are physical demands, work conditions and ergonomics. Physical demands reflect the physical strength, endurance, and activity necessary for a job (Edwards, Scully, & Brtek, 2000). Work conditions reflect the extent to which the work environment is hazardous, dangerous, or physically uncomfortable (e.g., noisy, extreme temperatures). Ergonomics reflect the extent to which work involves comfortable movements and appropriate posture (Humphrey et al., 2007). In order to be clear in explaining the correspondence of these characteristics with safety striving, I will refer to these characteristics below in terms of their negative pole (i.e., high physical demands, poor working conditions, and poor ergonomics). Thus, the explanation for the hypothesized interactions with contextual features of jobs is different and slightly more complicated than for the previous interactions. Specifically, based on previous research (Humphrey et al. 2007), contextual characteristics of unpleasant jobs (i.e., high physical demands, poor working conditions, and poor ergonomics) are negatively related with satisfaction and motivation. I expect that these contextual conditions will result in more strongly negative relationships between low emotional stability and the criteria I consider in this study. This is because neurotic individuals are emotionally unstable, anxious, and reactive to negative environmental stimuli, which leaves them devoid of the psychological resources necessary to

cope with the physical and psychological demands of unpleasant and stressful jobs (Brockner, 1988; Hui & Lee, 2000). For example, behavioral plasticity theory suggests that dispositional self-evaluations influence individuals' reactions to stress such that individuals with negative self-evaluations react more negatively to stressful situations (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Thus, I believe that individuals with low emotional stability (i.e., with negative self-evaluations; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) will react more negatively (i.e., lower meaningfulness, satisfaction, and performance) to poor contextual characteristics of jobs compared to individuals high on emotional stability.

The job of crab fisherman exemplifies a situation with poor contextual conditions. This job typically entails lifting and managing heavy, steel crab traps (high physical demands), requires one to be outdoors in very cold temperatures for extended periods of time on a wet and slippery boat (poor work conditions), involves a variety of uncomfortable positions for different jobs on the crab boat (poor ergonomics), and is seasonal in nature, with crab fishermen being employed only for the crab season and without any guarantees of employment the following crab season. Neurotic individuals will suffer more strongly negative consequences from these poor job conditions than emotionally stable individuals. This is because when an individual is high on emotional stability s/he is more likely to have the psychological resources and the dispositional adaptability to be able to cope with these unpleasant and physically and psychologically demanding jobs. Thus, poor contextual conditions will be associated with more strongly negative neuroticism-criterion correlations. This is analogous to poor contextual conditions being associated with more strongly *positive* emotional stability-criterion correlations. Given that safety striving is operationalized in terms of the negative pole of emotional stability while the

other interactions involving emotional stability are operationalized in terms of the positive pole, I phrase the hypotheses in the context of the positive pole in order to be consistent.

Hypothesis 15: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by physical demands, such that greater physical demands are associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 16: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by work conditions, such that poor work conditions are associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 17: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by ergonomics, such that poor ergonomics are associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

In sum, the TPWB represents an important theoretical contribution to the study of person-situation interactionism and how individuals derive meaning from work. Given that the theory is relatively new, the first purpose of my dissertation is to test major provisions of the theory, while also testing proposed extensions to the theory pertaining to the motivational influences of contextual job characteristics from the expanded JCM and striving for safety and security. In addition, I extend TPWB by arguing that considering the broader context in which jobs are performed may elucidate conditions under which some FFM traits predict work motivation and outcomes. In fact, scholars have recently called for research that investigates how the broader

occupational context impacts individual outcomes, while lamenting the lack of work in this area (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013; Dierdorff, Rubin, & Morgeson, 2009; Morgeson et al., 2010). To answer this call, I draw on an occupation-focused theory of the work environment, the theory of work adjustment (TWA; Lofquist & Dawis, 1969), for a situational taxonomy that considers the effects of the occupational context rather than the job characteristics from the JCM. More specifically, I investigate how the broader occupational context, when matched to relevant personality traits, can result in person-situation congruence within the framework proposed by the TPWB. Thus, I propose that occupational characteristics, operationalized as "occupational values" or "occupational reinforcer patterns" (ORPs) in the TWA, moderate the effects of relevant traits on the criteria outlined in the TPWB. In the next section, I review the TWA and present hypotheses outlining specific FFM trait-occupational values interactions that will result in the outcomes outlined in the TPWB: experienced meaningfulness, motivational processes, satisfaction, and performance.

The Theory of Work Adjustment

The theory of work adjustment (TWA) arose from a similar premise as that guiding the JCM: namely, the need for a taxonomy of work situations. The difference between the two theories is that while the JCM seeks to describe objective characteristics of the job (e.g., the amount of autonomy provided by the job), the TWA instead seeks to provide a psychological description of the work context rooted in outlining the needs fulfilled by the work situation (Dawis & Lofquist, 1975). Further, the TWA is concerned with the work environment at the level of the occupation, while the JCM considers the jobs that are nested within those higher level occupations (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). To this end, the TWA describes the situational context of work in terms of "occupational reinforcer patterns" (ORPs), which "reflect the relative

presence or absence of reinforces in the occupational context and concern the specific individual needs an occupational context satisfies" (Morgeson et al., 2010, p. 353). I believe that it is important to consider the role of the occupational context, especially in a trait-situation interactionist framework, for several reasons. First, the occupational context has important implications for individual outcomes, such as job satisfaction (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). Second, work design is intimately tied to the occupational context. Thus, it is important to consider the broader occupational context when examining how individual job design features impact worker outcomes, as is the case with this study. Finally, because the TWA provides a psychological taxonomy of work, it provides a useful lens through which to study the notion that occupations can reinforce different individual needs. This is particularly important in the case of the current study, as the person-situation interactionist paradigm is based on the premise that individuals desire different things at work, and when the characteristics of work provide individuals with the ability to meet those desires, positive outcomes will result. For these reasons, I beleive there is a high degree of fidelity between personality traits and ORP that that can further our understanding of the way that traits interact with the work environment to influence motivation and performance outcomes.

As in other person-situation theories, a key idea in the TWA is the notion of correspondence (or concordance/congruence in the TPWB) between the individual and the occupation, where "correspondence is a reciprocal relationship in which the work personality and work environment are mutually responsive, with the individual fulfilling the requirements of the work environment and the work environment fulfilling the requirements of the individual" (Rounds, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1987, p. 298). Therefore, the TWA is at its core a theory of needs, as alluded to by the correspondence between the "requirements" of the work environment and

the individual – however, rather than considering the needs of the individual in the absence of context (i.e., need for achievement), it considers the individual needs that the occupational context satisfies (i.e., the occupation satisfies the need for achievement). Hence, the TWA provides an occupation-focused framework that demonstrates how characteristics of work correspond to individual needs. In the context of this dissertation, those needs are operationalized by the FFM traits (Tett & Burnett, 2003). When the needs of the person and occupation are in correspondence with one another, the person experiences heightened job satisfaction (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Scott, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1960).

Research by Lofquist and Dawis (1978; see also Gay, Weiss, Hendel, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1971) found that the plethora of psychological needs satisfied by occupations reduce to six higher-order "occupational values": achievement, autonomy, altruism, status, safety, and comfort. These six values are synonymous with the reinforcers in the TWA and can also be thought of as higher-order occupational characteristics (Morgeson et al., 2010). Dierdorff and Morgeson (2013) postulated that these six factors can be further grouped according to which aspect of the work environment provides reinforcement to the individual. In their model, achievement and autonomy provide reinforcement from the self, altruism and status provide reinforcement from the social environment, and safety and comfort provide reinforcement from the nonsocial external environment (Hesketh & Griffin, 2005). Similarly, Morgeson and Humphrey (2008; see also Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006) grouped job characteristics from the expanded JCM into task, social, and contextual categories, which directly correspond to the three reinforcement sources of occupational values. Dierdorff and Morgeson (2013) found support for this contention, as the six higher-order occupational values had significant cross-level effects on the corresponding individual job characteristics from the

expanded JCM, and indirect effects on job satisfaction via their effects on the job characteristics. See Table 3 for a list and definitions of the occupational values, grouped by their reinforcement domain.

Given that occupational characteristics are concerned with what the occupation offers its incumbents in terms of psychological need fulfillment (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013), they provide high fidelity to the FFM traits in an interactionist framework. However, one limitation of the TWA is the lack of a coherent person-based framework that corresponds to the psychological taxonomy. For example, the theory considers individual needs, values, interests, personality, skills, and abilities as different dimensions of the individual that can potentially correspond to the characteristics of the occupation (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969). However, the TWA describes each group of constructs generally, and does not provide a person-based framework to accompany that of the work situation. Thus, empirical research on the theory has neglected to investigate occupational values in conjunction with the FFM taxonomy despite the clear conceptual link between the two.

Because the logic underlying these hypotheses draws from the same logic proposed by the TPWB (reviewed above), the discussion that follows focuses on how the occupational values provide a "match" to the strivings associated with the FFM traits, with the same theoretical model and outcomes described in the TPWB to follow from these trait-situation combinations. Hence, as shown in Figures 3 and 4, I propose that the occupational values provide a situational taxonomy that may interact with the FFM traits in a similar manner to job characteristics, resulting in higher meaningfulness, engagement, satisfaction, and performance. Figure 4 shows the occupational values taxonomy, matched to their corresponding FFM traits. These trait-value combinations are further grouped according to their association with the task, social, or

contextual domain of the work environment (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). For example, achievement traits (conscientiousness, emotional stability) are associated with the occupational value of achievement. These FFM traits and the occupational value of achievement are both most relevant to the task domain of work, while the status striving trait (extraversion) and associated occupational value (status) are most relevant to the social domain of work. As the figure highlights, the occupational values model shows high fidelity to the FFM traits and, by extension, their associated higher-order motivational strivings. For example, the occupational value of achievement corresponds to traits associated with striving for achievement, the occupational value of status corresponds to traits associated with striving for status, and so forth. Next, I define the six occupational values and discuss the FFM traits associated with them.

Hypothesis Development

Reinforcement from the Social Environment - Altruism and Status

Occupations with a high degree of altruism foster interpersonal relationships and service to others. High-altruism occupations reinforce social harmony while also encouraging incumbents to cooperate to get their jobs done. These occupations are typically characterized by jobs with a high degree of social support, interdependence, and interactions with others. Central to these occupations are positive, socially oriented work behaviors (Grant, 2007). According to the TPWB, individuals that strive for communion goals, or those high in agreeableness and emotional stability, are likely to have their goals fulfilled by occupations reinforcing altruistic values. Exemplar high-altruistic occupations include childcare workers and audiologists.

Occupations with a high degree of status provide recognition and prestige. These occupations provide reinforcement that includes the opportunity to lead others, engage in important or prestigious work, and acknowledges performance. Thus, individuals that strive for

status goals (extraverts) can enact their motivational goal strivings in high-status occupations because these occupations foster their desire for recognition. Recognition is contingent upon the feedback provided by high-status others (Luthans & Stajkovic, 2000), which reinforces extraverts' desire to be acknowledged for their performance in the form of rewards, promotions, and the like. Exemplary high-status occupations are engineers and pilots.

> Hypothesis 18: The relationship of agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of altruism, such that greater occupational reinforcement of altruism is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

> Hypothesis 19: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of altruism, such that greater occupational reinforcement of altruism is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

> Hypothesis 20: The relationship of extraversion with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of status, such that greater occupational reinforcement of status is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Reinforcement from the Self - Achievement and Autonomy

Occupations with a high degree of achievement promote the utilization of one's abilities and offer greater feelings of accomplishment than occupations with a low degree of achievement. These occupations offer patterns of reinforcers that promote success and goal accomplishment. Occupations that reinforce achievement needs allow individuals to observe their goal progress

(i.e., task identity) and to receive feedback as to their performance, both from the job and others (Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). As predicted by the TPWB, these characteristics moderate the effects of the FFM traits associated with achievement striving: conscientiousness and emotional stability (Barrick et al., 2013). Occupations with a high degree of achievement directly correspond to individuals with an achievement motivation because they promote accomplishment, and will therefore satisfy conscientious and emotionally stable individuals' desire to set and accomplish achievement goals. Exemplar occupations that reinforce achievement values include athletes and accountants.

Occupations with a high degree of autonomy stimulate independence, creativity, and personal discretion. These jobs present "weak" situations where individuals can act in self-concordant ways (Meyer et al., 2010). Thus, occupations with an autonomy reinforcement pattern tend to have jobs nested within them with higher degrees of autonomy and task variety. These characteristics provide a match for the higher-order motivational striving of autonomy, which is associated with openness to experience. Occupations with a high autonomy reinforcement pattern will provide the discretion and variety of activities open individuals desire, while also providing the impetus for learning and growth (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008), fulfilling open individuals' autonomy goals. Exemplar occupations that reinforce autonomy values include animal trainers and police detectives.

Hypothesis 21: The relationship of conscientiousness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of achievement, such that greater occupational reinforcement of achievement is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 22: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of achievement, such that greater occupational reinforcement of achievement is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Hypothesis 23: The relationship of openness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of autonomy, such that greater occupational reinforcement of autonomy is associated with more strongly positive trait-criterion relationships.

Reinforcement from the Nonsocial External Environment - Safety and Comfort

Occupations with a high degree of safety are stable and predictable. These occupations typically involve routine activities and stable employment. Occupations with a high degree of comfort are physically comfortable to work in and free from stress. High safety and comfort occupations reinforce these needs with safe working conditions, an ergonomically sound environment, low stress, and predictability. As is the case with contextual job characteristics, these values align with striving for safety, which is associated with low emotional stability. As I've discussed, emotionally unstable individuals seek to avoid threatening situations that could threaten their physical or psychological safety (van der Linden et al., 2007). Thus, emotionally unstable individuals are ill equipped for jobs lacking safety and security (Brockner, 1988) and are instead better suited for occupations that provide safety and security. This will lead occupational reinforcement of safety and comfort to be positively related to neuroticism-criterion relationships. As was the case with the job characteristics associated with safety striving, I phrase the hypotheses in terms of the positive pole of emotional stability. Exemplar occupations that do

not reinforce safety and comfort needs are fishermen and laborers, while occupations that do reinforce safety and comfort needs are white-collar jobs such as accountant.

> Hypothesis 24: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of safety, such that greater occupational reinforcement of safety is associated with more strongly negative trait-criterion relationships.

> Hypothesis 25: The relationship of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction will be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of comfort, such that greater occupational reinforcement of comfort is associated with more strongly negative trait-criterion relationships.

Relative Importance of Job Characteristics and Occupational Values

Following the preceding discussion on the merits of job characteristics and occupational values as moderators of the FFM traits, it follows to investigate which situational taxonomy provides a better framework for studying person-situation interactionism. On one hand, it could be that job characteristics, being narrower constructs than occupational values, provide greater fidelity to the FFM traits. Under this explanation, it would be reasonable to hypothesize that the JCM is a more appropriate taxonomy to model the situational influences on FFM trait validities. However, it is also plausible that because occupational values are concerned specifically with psychological needs fulfilled by the occupation, they provide a closer conceptual match with personality traits, which some scholars argue represent needs themselves (Allport, 1951; Tett & Burnett, 2003). As such, we investigate these competing hypotheses with a research question and

use meta-analytic dominance analyses to test which situational taxonomy provides a better "fit" to the FFM traits in an interactionist framework.

> Research Question 1: Which situational taxonomy (JCM or TWA) is dominant in predicting the correlation between the FFM and job performance, contextual performance, and job satisfaction?

Table 3. Definitions of Occupational Values, Grouped by Reinforcement Domain, from the Theory of Work Adjustment

Reinforcement domain	Occupational value	Definition
Self	Achievement	The extent to which the occupation promotes the utilization of one's abilities and offers feelings of accomplishment
	Autonomy	The extent to which the occupation stimulates independence, creativity, and personal discretion.
Social Environment	Altruism	The extent to which the occupation fosters interpersonal relationships and service to others.
	Status	The extent to which the occupation provides recognition and prestige.
Nonsocial External Environment	Safety	The extent to which the occupation is stable and predictable.
	Comfort	The extent to which the occupation is physically comfortable to work in and free from stress.

Figure 4. FFM traits and Corresponding Occupational Values Grouped by Job Characteristic Domain

FFM Traits

| Agreeableness Emotional Stability | Extraversion | Openness | Conscientious-ness Emotional Stability | Emotional Stability |

| Social | | Task | | Contextual |

| Altruism | Status | Autonomy | Achievement | Safety Comfort |

Occupational Values
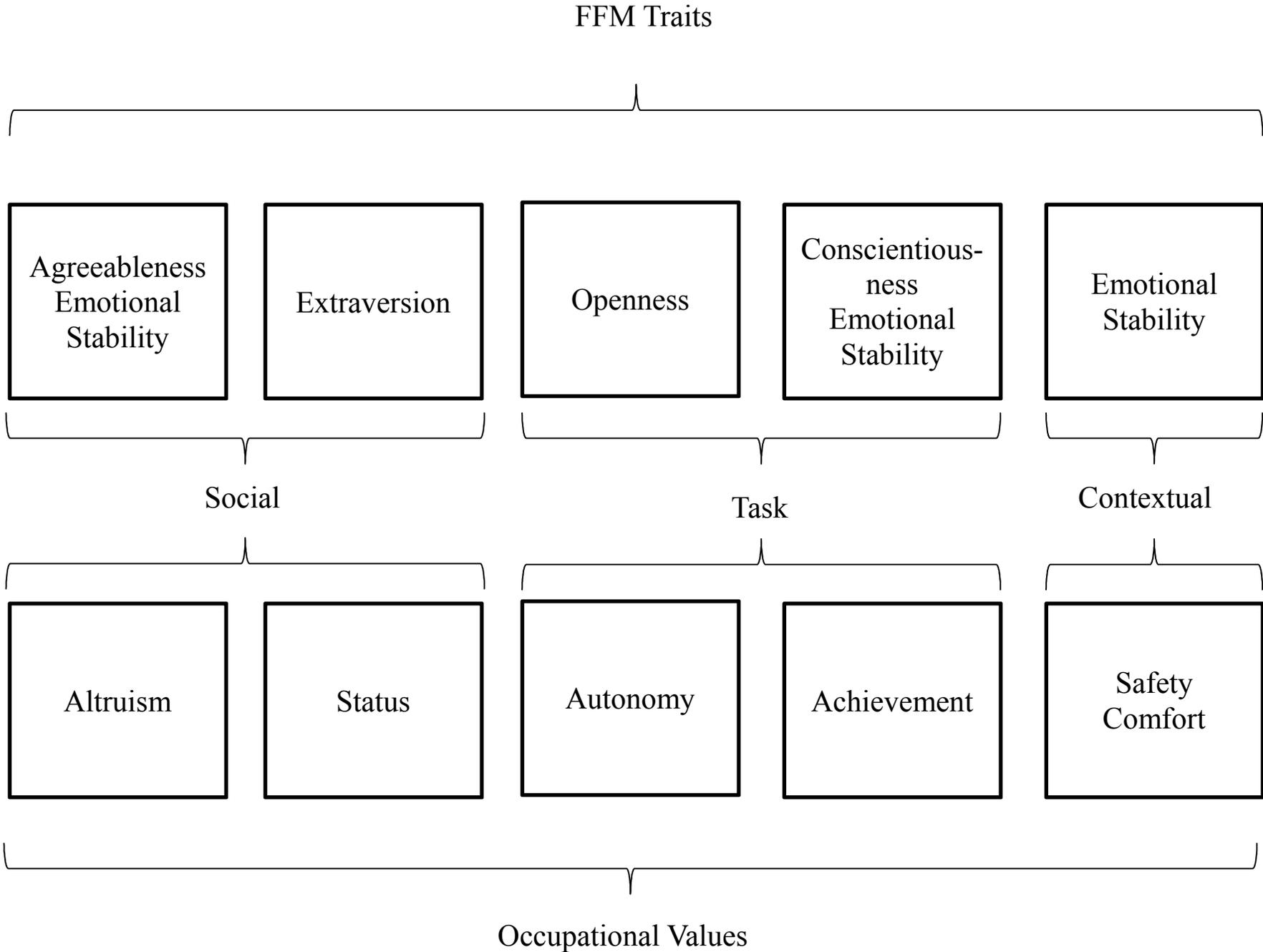
CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this dissertation, I conducted 15 meta-analyses (5 traits x 3 criteria) to investigate the

moderating effects of job characteristics on the relationship between the FFM traits and job

satisfaction, task or overall performance, and contextual performance. I took three steps to test

the hypotheses in this study. First, in order to estimate the true-score construct-level correlations,

I created a database consisting of both published and unpublished studies that examine the

relationships between FFM traits and the aforementioned criteria. For a study correlation to be

included in the meta-analysis, the data must involve incumbents in the same job. Second, for

each correlation I coded the job characteristics that are hypothesized to interact with the FFM

traits in predicting the criteria of interest. I used the Occupational Information Network (O*NET)

to obtain these codes. Third, I regressed each of the FFM-criterion correlations on the job

characteristics to determine the degree of a moderating effect on each FFM-criterion correlation.

Literature Search

I conducted an extensive search for published and unpublished literature which

investigates the relationship of the FFM personality traits with job satisfaction and job

performance (e.g., overall job performance/task performance, contextual performance). For job

satisfaction, the study had to report an outcome variable consisting of an individual's overall

favorable or unfavorable evaluation of their job (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2013). I excluded

measures that were not specific to the job, such as career satisfaction or supervisor satisfaction.

For overall job or task performance, the study had to report an outcome variable consisting of

"behaviors that contribute to the production of a good or the provision of a service" (Rotundo &

Sackett, 2002; p. 67). These are frequently operationalized in terms of supervisor ratings of an individual's quality or quantity of performance, or a supervisor's assessment of the overall quality of performance. For contextual performance, the study had to report an outcome variable consisting of "behaviors that [are] discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promote the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, Podsakoff, & Mackenzie, 2006; p. 8). Contextual performance could therefore take the operational form of helping behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, job dedication, interpersonal facilitation, and voice behaviors (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Gonzalez-Mulé et al., 2014). It is important to note that I did not include counterproductive behaviors, which are typically considered a third dimension of job performance (in addition to task and contextual performance), for two reasons. First, the TPWB does not mention counterproductive behaviors as one of its critical outcome variables. This is because the theory is concerned with positive outcomes of person-situation congruence, while the negative outcomes resulting from person-situation incongruence are outside of the scope of the theory. Second, I attempted to perform the analyses with the intent of extending the theory further, but was unable to locate a sufficient number of studies. Therefore, I excluded counterproductive behaviors. Please see Table 4 for a summary of the meta-analyses to be conducted, as well as the sources of the previous studies that have conducted these meta-analyses.

First, I used the PsycINFO, Web of Science and Proquest Dissertations databases to search for studies using terms similar to those above as keywords coupled with keywords descriptive of the FFM traits, such as personality, Five-Factor Model, Big Five, conscientiousness, emotional stability (neuroticism), agreeableness, extraversion, and openness. Second, I manually searched several top journals in the field, such as *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, Academy of Management Journal, Journal of Management, Personnel Psychology, and *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* using the above keywords, as well as perused individual article abstracts to identify relevant articles. Third, I examined the reference list (or, in the case of more recently published studies, the Appendix) of several published meta-analyses. These include meta-analyses of the FFM traits and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002), meta-analyses of the FFM traits and OCB (Chiaburu et al., 2011), and meta-analyses of the FFM traits and job performance (Judge & Zapata, 2014; Shaffer & Postlethwaite, 2012). Fourth, I used Google Scholar to identify studies citing studies identified in the previous steps, and scanned them to obtain any additional pertinent coefficients.

Inclusion Criteria

There were several *a priori* inclusion criteria. First, only those studies with employed adult samples will be included. Therefore, any samples with college students as the participants were excluded. Second, studies had to provide correlations between the FFM and one or more of the criteria of interest as well as the information necessary to compute them (e.g., sample size and statistics such as means and *SDs*, univariate *t*-test, *d* statistic). Third, the samples in the studies had be from homogeneous occupational groups so that I could validly code the job characteristics. Fourth, the studies had to either use established FFM scales (i.e., the PCI, NEO-PIR/FFI, IPIP) or scales that can be classified into the different FFM traits using the procedure in Barrick and Mount (1991). For example, I included the 16PF scales and the California Psychological Inventory and classified the sets of traits from those instruments into the FFM traits using Barrick and Mount's (1991) taxonomy.

Data Coding

I enlisted the help of a management doctoral student at the University of Iowa to code the studies. She was experienced in coding meta-analyses, having helped code two other meta-analyses with me, and had completed the meta-analysis course offered by the department. For each study I had identified for inclusion during the search process, she coded the following: (a) correlation between FFM trait(s) and criteria, (b) sample size, (c) reliabilities of predictor and criteria, (d) occupation of the sample, (e) job characteristics from O*NET, and (f) occupational values from O*NET. We discussed the coding once per week either via e-mail or in-person meetings to check on her progress and to discuss any questions that came up. Common questions included how to classify a certain occupational group, whether a dependent variable should be considered contextual or overall job performance, and which personality variables to code when a study presented many of them from different scales. At the completion of her coding, I randomly coded 20 of the 169 articles. Agreement was 100%. Further, I manually inspected the rest of the coding, classified scales into their respective personality traits, and reversed the sign of neuroticism correlations so that they instead reflected emotional stability to be consistent with the other FFM traits.

With respect to the job and occupational characteristics, occupational values are directly available from O*NET (labeled "Work Values") and have been used in previous research (e.g., Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). With regards to the job characteristics from O*NET, I used the Work Activities and Work Context inventories of the Occupational Requirements dimension of O*NET to identify those items which correspond to the job characteristics in the TPWB. O*NET is a database of occupational information which contains information about characteristics of workers in jobs, as well as the work itself (Peterson et al., 2001). O*NET uses a set of common

descriptors for all jobs which have been sent to a random sample of job incumbents who rated

the degree to which their jobs are characterized by the different job descriptors. The entire set of

O*NET variables are rated on a scale from 1-5, with the exception of occupational values, which

range from 0 to 100. Childs, Peterson, and Mumford (1999) reported high reliability for the work

activities inventory [average ICC(2) = .92], while Strong, Jeanneret, McPhail, Blakey, and

D'Egidio (1999) reported high reliability for the work context inventory [average ICC(2) = .80].

Table 5 shows the O*NET variables, organized by the associated motivational striving,

in conjunction with the associated FFM traits and job characteristics. For autonomy striving, I

identified two items that represented the autonomy in the job and one that represents the degree

of task variety. First, "structured/unstructured work" represents the extent to which the job is

structured, rather than allowing the worker to determine tasks, priorities, and goals. Second,

"freedom to make decisions" represents the extent to which the job offers decision making

freedom without supervision. These two variables were averaged to form an autonomy

composite. The alpha reliability of the composite was .78 for the full database. Third,

"importance of repeating the same task" represents the importance of repeat physical or mental

activities over and over to perform the job (reverse scored to represent task variety).

For communion striving, I identified one item each for interdependence, interaction

outside the organization, and social support. First, "face-to-face discussions" indicates how often

the job involves having face-to-face discussions with individuals or teams. Second, "dealing with

external customers" indicates how important it is to interact with external customers or the public

in the job. Third, "contact with others" indicates how much the job requires the worker to be in

contact with others to perform it.

For status striving, I identified one item each for power and influence, and task significance. First, "coordinate or lead others" indicates how important it is to coordinate or lead others in doing the job. Second, "impact of decisions on co-workers or company results" indicates the impact the employee's decisions have on the results of co-workers, clients, or the company.

For achievement striving, I identified two items that could be combined into a task identity scale, and one item that was commensurate with feedback from the job. I should note that these items do not align directly with the definitions of their respective job characteristics as well as the other items I chose from O*NET. However, I could not find any instances in the literature where these two job characteristics were measured using O*NET items, nor could I locate any O*NET items that more closely approximated task identity and feedback from the job than these. Therefore, although I acknowledge that these items do not measure their intended constructs as well as the items I used for other job characteristics, I felt that it was as close as I could get to doing so. First, "organizing, planning, and prioritizing work" indicates how often the worker has to develop specific goals and plans to prioritize, organize, and accomplish work. Second, "developing objectives and strategies" indicates how important it is that the worker establishes long-range objectives and specify strategies and actions to achieve them. Given that task identity refers to working on a task from start to finish, I averaged these two items as they represented the procedural steps an individual must go through to complete a task. The alpha reliability of the composite was .77 for the full database. Third, "making decisions and solving problems" indicates how often the worker receives feedback on their performance and acts upon it.

Meta-Analytic Method

I used the random-effects meta-analytic model developed by Hunter and Schmidt (2004) to cumulate effect sizes across studies. The Hunter and Schmidt method involves correcting correlations for predictor and criterion unreliability and using sample-size weighting of individual correlations to correct the correlations for sampling error. Because personality variables suffer from very little range restriction in incumbent samples (Schmidt et al., 2008), I did not correct for range restriction.

Correction Methods

Reliability information was available for most studies. Therefore, I used individual correction methods and imputed the average reliability for the studies that did not report reliabilities. I corrected the correlations for predictor and criterion unreliability using Cronbach's alpha for the FFM traits, job satisfaction, contextual performance, and job satisfaction. For job performance, the average reliability was .87 ($k = 319$; $SD = .09$); for contextual performance, the average reliability was .88 ($k = 117$; $SD = .07$); for job satisfaction, the average reliability was .84 ($k = 200$; $SD = .08$). For the traits, I used the average reliabilities within the set of studies for a particularly dependent variable. The values for job performance were as follows: agreeableness = .81 ($k = 79$; $SD = .09$), conscientiousness = .77 ($k = 89$; $SD = .09$); extraversion = .80 ($k = 59$; $SD = .08$); emotional stability = .78 ($k = 46$; $SD = .11$); openness = .77 ($k = 31$; $SD = .10$). The values for contextual performance were as follows: agreeableness = .77 ($k = 20$; $SD = .07$), conscientiousness = .81 ($k = 35$; $SD = .11$); extraversion = .81 ($k = 21$; $SD = .10$); emotional stability = .82 ($k = 20$; $SD = .08$); openness = .76 ($k = 18$; $SD = .06$). The values for job satisfaction were as follows: agreeableness = .71 ($k = 24$; $SD = .08$), conscientiousness = .76 ($k = $

48; *SD* = .10); extraversion = .75 (*k* = 40; *SD* = .13); emotional stability = .82 (*k* = 51; *SD* = .06); openness = .66 (*k* = 18; *SD* = .14).

There is considerable debate in the literature regarding whether intra-rater (i.e., alpha) or inter-rater reliability (i.e., correlation between two raters) should be used to correct behavioral measures reported by observers. In the current meta-analysis, I will not correct the performance criteria for inter-rater reliability to allow comparisons of the moderating effects of job characteristics across criteria. Correcting with inter-rater reliability will increase both the mean and variance of the correlation coefficients, making comparisons of regression coefficients across criteria impossible.

Regression Methods

My hypotheses were concerned with testing propositions from the TPWB, which examined the degree of the moderating effect of matched job characteristics on FFM traits, as well as my own extension that substitutes occupational values for job characteristics. As such, the primary analyses in the study are the regressions of the corrected FFM-criterion correlations obtained from primary studies on the job characteristics as opposed to the more traditional approach of cumulating effect sizes and determining the meta-analytic relationships between the FFM and criteria of interest. Therefore, the dependent variables in the regressions are the correlations for each FFM trait with a particular criterion variable.

After coding the job characteristics and occupational values for each sample, I regressed the individual correlations for each FFM trait-criterion pair on the appropriate job characteristics. I originally intended to first conduct a series of regressions that test the moderating effect of each job characteristic on the hypothesized trait by itself, followed by a series of regressions where all

the characteristics are entered into each equation to control for the effects of other job

characteristics. However, due to the small number of studies for some trait-criterion pairs (e.g., k

of 24 for agreeableness-contextual performance) and the high correlations between some of the

job characteristics, this latter test was not feasible. Therefore, I instead conducted a series of

regressions testing each hypothesized individual job characteristic, followed by a series of

regressions controlling for only the other job characteristics hypothesized to interact with the

particular trait. For example, for agreeableness, I first estimated individual regression equations

with the job characteristics of interdependence, interaction outside the organization, and social

support, followed by a regression equation with all three job characteristics entered in one step.

This is a more stringent test as it controls for the correlations among the job characteristics,

thereby assessing the unique effects of hypothesized job characteristics, while also being more

appropriate for the sample sizes. For the occupational values analyses, I conducted the

regressions only one-by-one because, with the exception of emotional stability, only one value

was hypothesized to interact with each trait. In the case of emotional stability, I also conducted

the regressions one-by-one to be comparable to the other traits, and because the high correlations

among the occupational values produced out-of-bounds regression estimates.

The significance of a given regression predictor indicates that the predictor moderates the

correlation which is the criterion in the regression. For example, a statistically significant,

positive coefficient for autonomy in the regression where the openness-performance correlation

is the dependent variable indicates that the correlation is larger for jobs characterized by a greater

degree of this characteristic. In order to test the significance of the regression coefficients, I used

random effects meta-regression. According to Overton (1998), fixed effects methods are most

appropriate when "the sample domain closely matches the population domain" (p. 376), when

the research area of the meta-analysis is well-developed, and when the key contextual conditions (i.e., moderators) are clearly defined. On the other hand, random effects methods are most appropriate when the sample domain underrepresents the population domain, when the research area is relatively new, and when contextual conditions are ill-defined. In the case of the present study, random effects methods should be used because various moderators proposed by other person-situation interactionist theories are not included in the present study and because the criteria of being an established research area is not as true in the case of contextual performance as with job performance and job satisfaction.

The key methodological difference between the two models is that fixed effects meta-regression weights studies by the inverse of each study's sampling error variance (i.e., the "within-study" variance), while random effects meta-regression adds a between-study variance component to the within-study variance, referred to as T^2 (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2009; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Deriving T^2 in meta-regression requires the use of an iterative procedure that is not available in built-in SPSS functionality. Thus, I will use the SPSS macros developed by David Wilson which are based on the equations presented in Lipsey and Wilson (2001). Lipsey and Wilson (2001) recommend transforming the corrected correlations into Fisher's Z, and weighting studies by the associated inverse sampling error variance of $N - 3$. Therefore, I followed their recommendations before inputting the data into their program.

Dominance Analyses

Dominance weights estimate the importance of a variable by calculating the variance explained by each variable (or group of variables) across all possible combinations of predictor variables (Budescu, 1993). Therefore, dominance weights allow one to determine whether one

group of variables "dominates" another group with respect to a particular trait-criterion relationship. The research question I posed regarding the relative strength of the job characteristics versus the occupational values can be tested with dominance weights that compare the two groups of predictors (i.e., job characteristics as a "group" and occupational values as a "group") in terms of the explained variance in the FFM-criterion correlations. Therefore, I will compute dominance weights for each of the job characteristic groups associated with autonomy, communion, status, achievement, and safety striving (see Tables 2 and 4 for information on the specific characteristics under each category) in each of the regressions explained earlier. I will use the SPSS macros developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2011) to compute the dominance weights associated with each set of predictors. It should be noted that given the limitations in SPSS that I described previously, dominance analyses can only be conducted using fixed effect weighting.

Table 4. List of Meta-Analyses Between the FFM and Various Criteria to be Updated

FFM Trait	Criterion	k	N	r	ρ
Conscientiousness	Job satisfaction	79	21,719	.20	.26
	Job performance	113	19,556	.15	.24
	Contextual performance	71	14,355	.14	.18
Emotional Stability	Job satisfaction	92	24,527	.24	.29
	Job performance	86	13,565	.09	.14
	Contextual performance	36	8,629	.10	.12
Extraversion	Job satisfaction	75	20,184	.19	.25
	Job performance	90	14,568	.07	.11
	Contextual performance	35	6,700	.07	.09
Agreeableness	Job satisfaction	38	11,856	.13	.17
	Job performance	94	15,188	.08	.13
	Contextual performance	47	10,308	.11	.14
Openness	Job satisfaction	50	15,196	.01	.02
	Job performance	80	13,044	.02	.03
	Contextual performance	38	7,405	.11	.14

Note. The FFM-job satisfaction estimates are from Judge, Heller, & Mount (2002). The FFM-job performance estimates are from Shaffer & Postlethwaite (2012). The FFM-contextual performance estimates are from Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner (2012). Except for the job performance correlations, all estimates are corrected for sampling error and measurement error (using alpha) in the predictor and criterion. The job performance correlations are corrected for sampling error and measurement error (using inter-rater reliability) in the criterion only.

Table 5. O*NET Coding Scheme

Higher-Order Strivings	FFM Traits	Job Characteristics	O*NET Variable
Autonomy	Openness	Autonomy	Structured/unstructured work
		Autonomy	Freedom to make decisions
		Task Variety	Importance of repeating same tasks
Communion	Agreeableness	Interdependence	Face-to-face discussions
	Emotional Stability	Interaction outside org.	Deal with external customers
		Social Support	Contact with others
Status	Extraversion	Power and influence	Coordinate or lead others
		Task significance	Impact of decisions on co-workers or company results
Achievement	Conscientiousness	Task identity	Organizing, planning, and prioritizing work
	Emotional Stability	Task identity	Developing objectives and strategies
		Feedback from the job	Making decisions and solving problems
Safety	Emotional Stability	Physical demands	Performing general physical activities
		Ergonomics	Cramped work space, awkward positions
		Work conditions	Very hot or cold temperatures
		Work Conditions	Sound, noise levels uncomfortable

Note. O*NET = occupational information network. FFM = five-factor model.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Before discussing the meta-regression results, I will discuss the overall meta-analytic results of

the FFM-job performance, FFM-contextual performance, and FFM-job satisfaction meta-

analyses, and compare these results to extant meta-analyses on these topics. The purpose is to

show the representativeness of these meta-analyses, given that they were conducted on a subset

of the population of studies (i.e., those with single job samples), while also providing a summary

of the literature search. Following the discussion of the overall meta-analyses, I will discuss the

hypothesis tests in the form of regression results for each trait-criterion pairing.

Overall Meta-Analyses

Table 6 presents the results of the overall meta-analyses. My search and inclusion criteria

yielded 524 total personality-job performance correlations (95 for agreeableness, 151 for

conscientiousness, 100 for extraversion, 95 for emotional stability, and 83 for openness), 133

total personality-contextual performance correlations (23 for agreeableness, 40 for

conscientiousness, 25 for extraversion, 24 for emotional stability, and 21 for openness), and 347

total personality-job satisfaction correlations (54 for agreeableness, 79 for conscientiousness, 75

for extraversion, 90 for emotional stability, and 49 for openness). I should note that I identified a

considerably larger number of studies (over 100 additional correlations) than Judge and Zapata

(2014), which undertook a similar method and used similar inclusion criteria for personality and

job performance. Before discussing the results, below I list the notation I used in the tables and

text describing the results:

- k = number of statistically independent correlations

- N = total sample size of the studies

- $\bar{r}$ = sample size weighted mean correlation

- $\bar{\rho}$ = sample size weighted mean correlation corrected for predictor and criterion unreliability

- SD_r = observed standard deviation for the sample size weighted mean correlation

- SD_ρ = observed standard deviation for the sample size weighted mean correlation corrected for predictor and criterion unreliability

- 95% CI = 95% confidence interval around the corrected correlation

- 80% CrI = 80% credibility interval around the population correlation. Note that these are presented in the tables in the interest of being thorough, but are of limited value in the present context as the studies chosen were a non-random subset of the population of studies.

With respect to job performance, agreeableness [$k = 95$; $N = 14,415$, $\bar{\rho} = .09$, 95% CI = (.06, .13)], conscientiousness [$k = 151$; $N = 26,780$, $\bar{\rho} = .23$, 95% CI = (.19, .26)], extraversion [$k = 100$; $N = 15,667$, $\bar{\rho} = .09$, 95% CI = (.06, .11)], emotional stability [$k = 95$; $N = 13,778$, $\bar{\rho} = .08$, 95% CI = (.06, .11)], and openness [$k = 83$; $N = 11,685$, $\bar{\rho} = .05$, 95% CI = (.02, .09)] all had positive correlations that differed significantly from zero. I compared these correlations to those from Barrick, Mount, & Judge's (2001) second-order meta-analysis that used supervisor ratings of performance (which the grand majority of the studies in my sample used) and found that all of Barrick et al.'s (2001) estimates were within the confidence intervals reported here except for emotional stability, which lay slightly outside the confidence interval (Barrick et al.'s estimate of $\bar{\rho} = .13$). The average difference in correlations was .02, with all of Barrick et al.'s estimates being slightly higher or the same.

With respect to contextual performance, agreeableness [$k = 23$; $N = 3,837$, $\bar{\rho} = .15$, 95% CI = (.10, .21)], conscientiousness [$k = 40$; $N = 8,257$, $\bar{\rho} = .36$, 95% CI = (.28, .44)], extraversion [$k = 25$; $N = 4,626$, $\bar{\rho} = .09$, 95% CI = (.02, .15)], emotional stability [$k = 24$; $N = 3,774$, $\bar{\rho} = .15$, 95% CI = (.08, .21)], and openness [$k = 21$; $N = 2,978$, $\bar{\rho} = .13$, 95% CI = (.07, .20)] all had positive correlations that differed significantly from zero. I compared these correlations to those from Chiaburu et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis on the relationship between the FFM and citizenship behaviors and found that all of Chiaburu et al.'s (2001) estimates were within the confidence intervals reported here except for conscientiousness. My estimate of the conscientiousness-contextual performance relationship was almost twice that reported by Chiaburu and colleagues of $\bar{\rho} = .18$. This is largely due to an outlier study (excluded by Chiaburu et al.) which reported a sample size of 1,615 and a correlation of .73 between conscientiousness and contextual performance. When I remove this study, my estimate of the correlation drops 10 correlation points to .26. However, I decided to keep the study, as the goal of my dissertation was to identify moderators that might predict the presence of such outliers. Further, all of the substantive conclusions remained unchanged when this study was removed.

With respect to job satisfaction, agreeableness [$k = 54$; $N = 11,123$, $\bar{\rho} = .15$, 95% CI = (.08, .21)], conscientiousness [$k = 79$; $N = 14,584$, $\bar{\rho} = .29$, 95% CI = (.24, .33)], extraversion [$k = 75$; $N = 17,834$, $\bar{\rho} = .28$, 95% CI = (.23, .32)], emotional stability [$k = 90$; $N = 17.908$, $\bar{\rho} = .29$, 95% CI = (.25, .33)], and openness [$k = 49$; $N = 10,879$, $\bar{\rho} = .07$, 95% CI = (.02, .13)] all had positive correlations that differed significantly from zero. I compared these correlations to those from Judge et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis and found that all of Judge and colleagues' estimates were within the confidence intervals reported here. In addition, the average difference in correlations was -.02 (i.e., the correlations here were slightly larger, on average). In sum, these

comparisons led me to feel confident that my database of was representative of the population of studies.

Finally, Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the coded job characteristics and occupational values. These correlations were estimated from the full database of studies for all traits and criteria. In other words, I combined all of the data from all trait-criterion pairs into one database to calculate these correlations. Therefore, the effective sample size is 1,004, although some individual studies provided multiple estimates, and the correlations may vary in different trait-criterion study subsets that were used for the regression analyses. As shown in the table, some of the correlations were quite large which, in combination with the small sample size for some trait-criterion pairings, led me to forgo including the entire array of job characteristics or occupational values simultaneously in any of the regressions.

Hypotheses Tests

Tables 8-18 present the results of the hypotheses tests. I used $p < .10$ (two-tailed) as the significance criterion. I chose this criterion because of research suggesting that the typical p value of .05 may be too conservative when evaluating moderator hypotheses (Aguinis & Stone-Romero, 1997). I chose to use a two-tailed test because, although my hypotheses were all directional nature (which would merit the use of 1-tailed tests), the use of two-tailed tests allows me to interpret hypotheses with significant p values but which ran counter to my hypotheses, as these results could also yield valuable information. I will begin by discussing the job characteristics results (hypotheses 1-17) followed by the occupational values results (hypotheses 18-25) and concluding with a discussion of the relative importance research question. Given the large number of hypotheses tested, for the convenience of the reader I have provided a summary

of the results in Table 21. This table presents 90% confidence intervals around the raw beta

coefficient for each hypothesis. These overall results are discussed on p. 121. I estimated two

regression equations per hypothesis: one with each job characteristic entered individually, and

another with the entire set of job characteristics hypothesized to interact with a particular trait

entered together. These are presented in the tables as the first and second column, respectively,

under each trait-criterion pairing. The coefficients presented in the table and text are standardized

regression coefficients, and hypotheses were supported or not by both the directionality and

significance of the coefficients at the .10 level using a two-tailed t-test. In the text I will discuss

the coefficients from the step where all the hypothesized job characteristics were entered

together as it is a more stringent test of the hypotheses. However, in the case of contextual

performance, the sample size (i.e., k) for some FFM traits was quite small. Therefore, in the case

of contextual performance I will discuss both sets of estimates.

Communion Striving Traits and Job Characteristics

Agreeableness

Hypothesis 1 stated that social support would moderate the relationships of

agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction,

such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher social support. As shown in

Table 8 column 2, the regression coefficients for social support predicting job performance were

statistically significant and *negative* ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .10$) counter to the prediction from Hypothesis

1a. Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as

shown in Table 8 column 4, the estimate was not significant ($\beta = .09$, *n.s.*). Given the relatively

small sample size of this trait-criterion pairing ($k = 23$), it may be more useful to inspect the

significance of the coefficients associated with the individual job characteristics entered one-by-

one. As shown in Table 8 column 3, social support was not significant (β = -.09, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 8 column 6, the effect of social support was significant in the expected direction (β = .32, *p* < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 1c was supported.

Hypothesis 2 stated that interdependence would moderate the relationships of agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher interdependence. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 8 column 2 the effect of interdependence was not significant (β = -.07, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 2a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 8 column 4 the effect of interdependence was significant, but in the opposite direction (β = -.59, *p* < .10). As shown in Table 8 column 3, the effect size was largely unchanged whether considering the job characteristics entered one-by-one or together. Therefore, Hypothesis 2b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 8 column 6the result was not significant (β = -.07, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 2c was not supported.

Hypothesis 3 stated that interaction outside the organization would moderate the relationships of agreeableness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher interaction outside the organization. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 8 column 2 the moderating effect of interaction outside the organization was not significant (β = .09, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 3a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 8 column 4the result was not significant (β = -.30, *n.s.*). As shown in Table 8 column 3 the effect size associated with interaction outside the organization was similar when considered

one by one. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 8 column 6 neither the effect of interaction outside the organization was not significant ($\beta = .01$, *n.s.*).Therefore, Hypothesis 3c was not supported.

Emotional Stability

Hypothesis 4 stated that social support would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher social support. As shown in Table 12 column 2 the effect of social support was not significant ($\beta = -.03$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 1a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 2 the estimate of the effect of social support was not significant ($\beta = .43$, *n.s.*). As shown in Table 13 column 1 the effect of social support was not significant when entered alone ($\beta = .25$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 4b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 2 the effect of social support was not significant ($\beta = .19$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 4c was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 stated that interdependence would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher interdependence. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 2 the effect of interdependence was not significant ($\beta =.18$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 5a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 2 the effect of interdependence was not significant ($\beta = .13$, *n.s.*).The effect size was not significant when considering the job characteristics entered one-by-one. Therefore, Hypothesis 5b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in

Table 13 column 2 the effect of interdependence was not significant ($\beta = -.04$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 5c was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 stated that interaction outside the organization would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher interaction outside the organization. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 2 the effect of interaction outside the organization was not significant ($\beta = .01$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 6a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 2 the estimate was not significant ($\beta = -.24$, *n.s.*). Further, the effect size associated with interaction outside the organization was not significant when considered one by one. Therefore, Hypothesis 6b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 2 the coefficient was not significant ($\beta = .14$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 6c was not supported.

Status Striving Trait and Job Characteristics

Hypothesis 7 stated that power and influence would moderate the relationships of extraversion with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher power and influence. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 9 column 2 the effect of power and influence was not significant ($\beta = .16$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 7a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 9 column 4 the effect of power and influence was not significant ($\beta = -.20$, *n.s.*). The coefficient and significance level were similar whether considering the job characteristics one-by-one or together. Therefore, Hypothesis 7b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 9 column 6 the estimate was not significant ($\beta = .02$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 7c was not supported.

Hypothesis 8 stated that task significance would moderate the relationships of extraversion with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of greater task significance. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 9 column 2 the effect of task significance was not significant ($\beta = .08$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 8a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 9 column 4 the effect of task significance was not significant ($\beta = -.13$, *n.s.*). The coefficient and significance level was similar whether considering the job characteristics one-by-one or together. Therefore, Hypothesis 8b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 9 column 6 the random effects estimate was not significant ($\beta = .09$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 8c was not supported.

Autonomy Striving Trait and Job Characteristics

Hypothesis 9 stated that autonomy would moderate the relationships of openness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher autonomy. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 10 column 2 the random effects result was not significant ($\beta = .16$, *n.s.*).Therefore, Hypothesis 9a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 10 column 4 the effect of autonomy w as not significant ($\beta = .19$, *n.s.* As shown in column 3, the coefficient and significance level was similar whether considering the job characteristics one-by-one or together. Therefore, Hypothesis 9b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 10 columns 10 and 12 the effect of autonomy was significant ($\beta = .24$, $p < .10$) and in the expected direction. Therefore, Hypothesis 9c was supported.

Hypothesis 10 stated that task variety would moderate the relationships of openness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the

correlations would be larger under conditions of higher task variety. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 10 column 2 the random effects estimate was not significant (β = -.11, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 10a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 10 column 4 the effect of task variety was not significant (β = -.03, *n.s.*).As shown in column 3, the coefficient was similar in magnitude (although it changed sign) and not significant when entered one-by-one. Therefore, Hypothesis 10b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 10 column 6 the effect of task variety was significant, but in the opposite direction (β = -.52, *p* < .10). Therefore, Hypothesis 10c was not supported.

Achievement Striving Traits and Job Characteristics

Conscientiousness

Hypothesis 11 stated that task identity would moderate the relationships of conscientiousness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher task identity. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 11 column 2 the effect of task identity was not significant (β = -.08, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 11a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 11 column 4 the random effects estimate was not significant (β = -.11, *n.s.*). This remained the case when the job characteristics were entered one-by-one. Therefore, Hypothesis 11b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 11 column 6 the effect of task identity was not significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 11c was not supported.

Hypothesis 12 stated that feedback from the job would moderate the relationships of conscientiousness with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction,

such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher feedback. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 11 column 2 the random effects result was not significant (β = -.06, *n.s.*).Therefore, Hypothesis 12a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 11 column 4 the effect of feedback was significant, but in the opposite direction to that hypothesized (β = -.43, *p* < .10). Further, as shown in column 3, the estimate was of similar magnitude and in the same direction when entered one-by-one. Therefore, Hypothesis 12b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 11 column 6 the effect of feedback was not significant (β = -.10, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 12c was not supported.

  Emotional Stability

Hypothesis 13 stated that task identity would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher task identity. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 3 the effect of task identity was significant and in the hypothesized direction (β = .26, *p* < .10). Therefore, Hypothesis 13a was supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 3 the effect of task identity was significant (β = .41, *p* < .10). The estimate was virtually unchanged when entered alone. Therefore, Hypothesis 13b was supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 3 the random effects estimate was not significant (β = -.03, *n.s.*).. Therefore, Hypothesis 13c was not supported.

Hypothesis 14 stated that feedback from the job would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of higher feedback. With respect to

job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 3 the effect of feedback was not significant (β = -.00, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 14a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 3 the effect of feedback was significant, but in the opposite direction (β = -.37, *p* < .10)). As shown in Table 13 column 1, the estimate was actually positive and not significant when entered individually. Therefore, Hypothesis 14b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 3 the effect of feedback was not significant (β = -.06, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 14c was not supported.

Safety Striving Trait and Job Characteristics

Before discussing the results for these hypotheses, it is important to note that the three job characteristics associated with safety striving (e.g., physical demands, work conditions, and ergonomics) were coded such that higher scores represented the negative pole of the characteristic. For example, a high score on work conditions refers to *poor* work conditions. Thus, a positive coefficient indicates that the emotional stability-criterion correlation is more strongly positive in cases of worse work conditions. Hypothesis 15 stated that physical demands would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the positive correlations would be larger under conditions of greater physical demands. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 4 the effect of physical demands was not significant (β = .01, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 15a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 4 the the effect of physical demands was not significant (β = -.20, *n.s.*). As shown in column 1, the coefficient was significant but in the opposite direction when entered one-by-one (β = -.44, *p* < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 15b was not supported. With respect to job

satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 4 the random effects estimate was not significant (β = -.03, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 15c was not supported.

Hypothesis 16 stated that work conditions would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of poor work conditions. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 4 the effect of work conditions was not significant (β = -.08, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 16a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 4 the random effects estimate was not significant (β = -.20, *n.s.*). As shown in column 1, the effect of work conditions was significant, but in the opposite direction when entered one-by-one (β = -.47, *p* < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 16b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 4 the effect of work conditions was not significant (β = -.05, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 16c was not supported.

Hypothesis 17 stated that ergonomics would moderate the relationships of emotional stability with (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of poor ergonomics. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 12 column 4 the effect of ergonomics was not significant (β = -.08, *n.s.*).Therefore, Hypothesis 17a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 13 column 4 the effect of ergonomics was not significant (β = .18, *n.s.*). As shown in column 1, the coefficient was not significant when entered one-by-one (β = -.19, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 17b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 14 column 4 the effect of ergonomics was not significant (β = .02, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 17c was not supported.

Next, I will discuss the results of the occupational values moderators. To test these hypotheses, I entered each of the occupational values one-by-one into regression equations predicting the trait-criterion correlations. I did this because the high multicollinearity between the occupational values produced out-of-bounds estimates (i.e., regression coefficients above 1) when all occupational values were entered together. However, I was interested in investigating whether non-hypothesized occupational values interacted with the traits, so I ran a series of regressions beginning with the hypothesized value for each trait, followed by each other occupational value. I will discuss these results below.

Communion Striving Traits and Occupational Values

Agreeableness

Hypothesis 18 stated that the relationships between agreeableness and (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of altruism, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of greater occupational reinforcement of altruism. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 15 column 1 the random effects result associated with altruism was not significant ($\beta = -.12$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 18a was not supported. None of the other occupational values were significant. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 15 column 2 the effect of altruism was not significant ($\beta = -.22$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 18b was not supported. Among the unhypothesized occupational values, autonomy ($\beta = -.48$, $p < .05$), comfort ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .05$) and status ($\beta = -.49$, $p < .05$) were all negative and significant. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 15 column 3 the random effects estimate of altruism was not significant ($\beta = .15$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 18c was not supported. None of the other occupational values were significant.

Emotional Stability

Hypothesis 19 stated that the relationships between emotional stability and (a) job

performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the

occupational reinforcement of altruism, such that the correlations would be larger under

conditions of greater occupational reinforcement of altruism. With respect to job performance, as

shown in Table 19 column 1 the effect of altruism was not significant ($\beta = .10$, *n.s.*). Therefore,

Hypothesis 19a was not supported. Although not hypothesized, it is interesting to note that

occupational reinforcement of status was a significant, positive predictor of the emotional

stability-job performance relationship ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$). With respect to contextual performance,

as shown in Table 19 column 2 the effect of altruism was not significant ($\beta = .18$, *n.s.*).

Therefore, Hypothesis 19b was not supported. None of the coefficients associated with the

unhypothesized occupational values were significant. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown

in Table 19 column 3 the effect of altruism was not significant ($\beta = .04$, *n.s.*). Therefore,

Hypothesis 19c was not supported. None of the other occupational values were significant.

Status Striving Trait and Occupational Values

Hypothesis 20 stated that the relationships between extraversion and (a) job performance,

(b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the occupational

reinforcement of status, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of greater

occupational reinforcement of status. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 16

column 1 the effect of status was significant and in the hypothesized direction ($\beta = .19$, $p < .10$).

Therefore, Hypothesis 20a was supported. Although not hypothesized, it is interesting to note

that occupational reinforcement of achievement ($\beta = .21$, $p < .10$) and autonomy (random effects

$\beta = .20$, $p < .10$) were significant, positive predictors of the extraversion-job performance

relationship.. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 16 column 2 the effect of status was not significant (β = -.14, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 20b was not supported. None of the unhypothesized occupational values were significant.. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 16 column 3 the effect of status was not significant (β = .04, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 20c was not supported. Further, none of the other occupational values were significant.

Achievement Striving Traits and Occupational Values

Conscientiousness

Hypothesis 21 stated that the relationships between conscientiousness and (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of achievement, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of greater occupational reinforcement of achievement. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 17 column 1 the effect of achievement was significant, but not in the hypothesized direction (β = -.15, *p* < .10). Therefore, Hypothesis 21a was not supported. None of the unhypothesized values were significant predictors of the conscientiousness-performance relationship. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 17 column 2 the random effects result of achievement was not significant (β = -.13, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 21b was not supported. Autonomy (β = -.28, *p* < .10), safety (β = -.33, *p* < .10) and comfort (β = -.28, *p* < .10) were all significant under the random effects model. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 17 column 3 the effect of achievement was not significant (β = -.11, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 21c was not supported. None of the unhypothesized occupational values was significant..

Emotional Stability

      Hypothesis 22 stated that the relationships between emotional stability and (a) job

performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the

occupational reinforcement of achievement, such that the correlations would be larger under

conditions of greater occupational reinforcement of achievement. With respect to job

performance, as shown in Table 19 column 1 the random effects estimate of achievement was

not significant (β = .10, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 22a was supported. With respect to

contextual performance, as shown in Table 19 column 2 the effect of achievement was not

significant (β = .18, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 22b was not supported. With respect to job

satisfaction, as shown in Table 19 column 3 the effect of achievement was not significant (β =

.04, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 22c was not supported[10].

Autonomy Striving Trait and Occupational Values

      Hypothesis 23 stated that the relationships between openness and (a) job performance, (b)

contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the occupational

reinforcement of autonomy, such that the correlations would be larger under conditions of

greater occupational reinforcement of autonomy. With respect to job performance, as shown in

Table 18 column 1 the effect of autonomy was significant and in the hypothesized direction (β =

.21, *p* < .10). Therefore, Hypothesis 23a was supported. Among the unhypothesized occupational

values, both safety (random effects β = -.23, *p* < .10) and status (random effects β = .19, *p* < .10)

were significant. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 18 column 2 the

effect of autonomy was not significant (β = .07, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 23b was not

supported. None of the unhypothesized occupational values were significant. With respect to job

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[10] Please note that the results of the unhypothesized occupational values (status, autonomy) were discussed in the communion striving section.

satisfaction, as shown in Table 18 column 3 the random effects result of autonomy was not significant (β = -.10, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 23c was not supported. Further, none of the unhypothesized occupational values were significant.

<u>Safety Striving Trait and Occupational Values</u>

        Hypothesis 24 stated that the relationships between emotional stability and (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of safety, such that the correlations would be more negative (i.e., smaller) under conditions of greater occupational reinforcement of safety. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 19 column 1 the random effects result was not significant (β = -.13, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 24a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 19 column 2 the effect of safety was not significant (β = -.04, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 24b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 19 column 3 the random effects result was not significant (β = .09, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 24c was not supported[11].

        Hypothesis 25 stated that the relationships between emotional stability and (a) job performance, (b) contextual performance, and (c) job satisfaction would be moderated by the occupational reinforcement of comfort, such that the correlations would be more negative (i.e., smaller) under conditions of greater occupational reinforcement of safety. With respect to job performance, as shown in Table 19 column 1 the effect of comfort was not significant (β = .07, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 25a was not supported. With respect to contextual performance, as shown in Table 19 column 2 the effect of comfort was not significant (β = -.01, *n.s.*). Therefore,

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[11] Please note that the results of the unhypothesized occupational values (status, autonomy) were discussed in the communion striving section.

Hypothesis 25b was not supported. With respect to job satisfaction, as shown in Table 19 column 3 the random effects result was not significant ($\beta = .49$, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 24c was not supported

Relative Importance of Job Characteristics and Occupational Values

In order to answer the research question regarding the relative importance of the job characteristics and occupational values as moderators of FFM-criterion correlations, I conducted dominance analyses (please see the Method section for a detailed description of dominance analyses methods). In these analyses, I compared the dominance weight (labeled DW in the table) associated with the hypothesized set of job characteristics to the dominance weight associated with the hypothesized occupational striving for each trait-criterion pair. These results are presented in Table 20, along with the accompanying percent of the R^2 associated with each set of predictors (labeled DW% in the table).

First, the set of job characteristics associated with agreeableness (e.g., social support, interdependence, contact outside the organization) were collectively more important than the occupational reinforcement of altruism for all three trait-criterion relationships. In the case of job performance, the job characteristics DW was .03 (58%) compared to the occupational values DW of .02 (42%). In the case of contextual performance, the job characteristics DW was .45 (98%) compared to the occupational values DW of .01 (2%). However, these results should be interpreted with caution given the relatively low *k* available for this criterion. In the case of job satisfaction, the job characteristics DW was .19 (71%) compared to the occupational values DW of .08 (29%).

Second, the set of job characteristics associated with conscientiousness (e.g., task identity, feedback) were collectively less important than the occupational reinforcement of achievement for the conscientiousness-job performance relationship, while the converse was true for contextual performance and job satisfaction. In the case of job performance, the job characteristics DW was .03 (41%) compared to the occupational values DW of .05 (59%). In the case of contextual performance, the job characteristics DW was .10 (62%) compared to the occupational values DW of .06 (38%). In the case of job satisfaction, the job characteristics DW was .02 (84%) compared to the occupational values DW of .00 (16%).

Third, the set of job characteristics associated with extraversion (e.g., power and influence, task significance) were collectively less important than the occupational reinforcement of status for the extraversion-job performance relationship, while the opposite was the case for contextual performance and job satisfaction. In the case of job performance, the job characteristics DW was .04 (46%) compared to the occupational values DW of .04 (54%). In the case of contextual performance, the job characteristics DW was .13 (90%) compared to the occupational values DW of .02 (10%). In the case of job satisfaction, the job characteristics DW was .02 (81%) compared to the occupational values DW of .00 (19%).

Fourth, the set of job characteristics associated with emotional stability (e.g., social support, interdependence, contact outside the organization, task identity, feedback, physical demands, ergonomics, working conditions) were collectively more important than the occupational reinforcement of altruism, achievement, safety, and comfort for all three trait-criterion relationships. In the case of job performance, the job characteristics DW was .10 (67%) compared to the occupational values DW of .05 (33%). In the case of contextual performance, the job characteristics DW was .51 (80%) compared to the occupational values DW of .13

(20%). In the case of job satisfaction, the job characteristics DW was .24 (88%) compared to the occupational values DW of .03 (12%).

Finally, the set of job characteristics associated with openness (e.g., autonomy, task variety) were collectively slightly more important than the occupational reinforcement of autonomy for openness-performance relationship, while the opposite was the case for the other two criteria. In the case of job performance, the job characteristics DW was .03 (48%) compared to the occupational values DW of .03 (52%). In the case of contextual performance, the job characteristics DW was .03 (89%) compared to the occupational values DW of .00 (11%). In the case of job satisfaction, the job characteristics DW was .18 (87%) compared to the occupational values DW of .03 (13%).

Summary of Results

Table 21 presents a summary of the results. In the table, I present the 90% confidence intervals around all of the estimates. Those confidence intervals in bold do not include zero, and those which are bolded *and* italicized did not include zero and were significant in the hypothesized direction. As shown in Table 21, many of the propositions from the TPWB were not supported in my study. With respect to communion striving traits (i.e., agreeableness and emotional stability), only social support was a significant, positive moderator of agreeableness, and only with respect to job satisfaction, with many of the other job characteristic-criterion combinations being nonsignificant, or significant and in the opposite direction. In the case of emotional stability, none of the communion striving job characteristics were significant moderators. Thus, in a general sense, the social characteristics of jobs had mixed effects on the validities of agreeableness, and no effect on those of emotional stability. With respect to the status striving trait (i.e., extraversion), neither of the job characteristics were significant

moderators. With respect to the autonomy striving trait (i.e., openness), autonomy had a significant, positive moderating effect in the case of job satisfaction, but was not significant for job or contextual performance. With respect to the achievement striving traits (i.e., conscientiousness, emotional stability), task identity had a positive moderating effect on the relationships between emotional stability and job and contextual performance, but had no effect for the other trait-criterion combinations.. Feedback from the job had a *negative* moderating effect on the conscientiousness-contextual performance and emotional stability-contextual performance relationships.

My own extensions to the TPWB were largely unsupported. With respect to the safety striving trait (i.e., emotional stability), none of the contextual job characteristics were significant moderators of the trait-criterion relationships. With respect to the occupational values[12], there was some consistency in the results concerning job performance. As expected, status was a positive moderator of the extraversion-job performance relationship and autonomy was a positive moderator of the openness-job performance relationship. Counter to expectations, achievement was a negative moderator of the conscientiousness-job performance relationship. In the cases of contextual performance and job satisfaction, none of the occupational values were significant moderators of the trait-crtierion relationships.

Finally, I asked a research question related to whether the hypothesized job characteristics or occupational values would be relatively more important in predicting trait-criterion relationships. In almost all cases, the answer to this question was that job characteristics were significantly more important than occupational values. However, the two were essentially

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[12] It is important to remember that these hypotheses were tested with the occupational values alone in the regression equation. Therefore, they are less conservative than the hypotheses tests for the job characteristics that included at least one other construct in the equation.

identical in predicting the extraversion-performance and openness-performance relationships, and occupational values were more important only in predicting the conscientiousness-job performance relationship.

Table 6. Meta-analytic Results between FFM Personality Traits and Criteria

	k	N	$\bar{r}$	SD_r	$\bar{\rho}$	SD_ρ	95% CI		80% CrI	
Job Performance										
Agreeableness	95	14,415	.07	.15	.09	.18	[.06	.13]	[-.02	.21]
Conscientiousness	151	26,780	.19	.18	.23	.20	[.19	.26]	[-.01	.46]
Extraversion	100	15,667	.08	.13	.09	.15	[.07	.12]	[-.07	.26]
Emotional Stability	95	13,778	.07	.11	.08	.13	[.06	.11]	[-.06	.23]
Openness	83	11,685	.04	.15	.05	.15	[.02	.09]	[-.11	.21]
Contextual Performance										
Agreeableness	23	3,837	.13	.10	.15	.13	[.10	.21]	[.02	.29]
Conscientiousness	40	8,257	.31	.24	.36	.26	[.28	.44]	[.04	.67]
Extraversion	25	4,626	.07	.13	.09	.16	[.02	.15]	[-.08	.21]
Emotional Stability	24	3,774	.12	.13	.15	.16	[.08	.21]	[-.02	.32]
Openness	21	2,978	.10	.11	.13	.15	[.07	.20]	[-.00	.27]
Job Satisfaction										
Agreeableness	54	11,123	.11	.19	.15	.24	[.08	.21]	[-.09	.39]
Conscientiousness	79	14,584	.23	.16	.29	.21	[.24	.33]	[.08	.50]
Extraversion	75	17,834	.22	.17	.28	.21	[.23	.32]	[.06	.49]
Emotional Stability	90	17,908	.24	.16	.29	.16	[.25	.33]	[.09	.49]
Openness	49	10,879	.05	.14	.07	.14	[.02	.13]	[-.10	.25]

Note. k = number of independent samples; N = total sample size; $\bar{r}$ = sample=size weighted mean correlation; SD_r = observed standard deviation of the uncorrected correlations; $\bar{\rho}$ = sample-size weighted mean correlation corrected for predictor and criterion unreliability; SD_ρ = observed standard deviation of the corrected correlations; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; 80% CrI = 80% credibility interval.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations among Job Characteristics and Occupational Values

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Social support	4.67	.33	-																
2. Interdependence	4.63	.27	.18	-															
3. Interaction outside org.	3.97	.66	.59	.16	-														
4. Power and Influence	3.60	.50	.25	.48	.09	-													
5. Task sig.	3.94	.47	.15	.23	.34	.44	-												
6. Autonomy	4.20	.37	.11	.19	.12	.56	.52	-											
7. Task variety	3.43	.65	-.12	.25	.17	.12	.16	.39	-										
8. Task identity	3.23	.62	.08	.51	.05	.47	.30	.55	.45	-									
9. Feedback	3.93	.50	.20	.34	.29	.44	.70	.37	.12	.50	-								
10. Physical demands	2.69	.95	-.19	-.02	.07	-.09	.03	-.32	-.05	-.49	-.14	-							
11. Working cond.	2.58	.72	-.26	-.13	-.20	.00	.19	-.09	-.02	-.20	-.02	.67	-						
12. Ergonomics	1.73	.68	-.32	-.19	-.08	-.08	.21	-.06	-.01	-.30	-.01	.59	.65	-					
13. Altruism	70.6	14.7	.41	.24	.29	.44	.05	.32	.15	.30	.15	-.12	-.35	-.19	-				
14. Achievement	52.5	21.0	.08	.26	.04	.52	.47	.62	.41	.71	.63	-.38	-.10	-.24	.29	-			
15. Autonomy	57.7	21.8	.12	.18	.13	.56	.63	.69	.32	.65	.69	-.27	.07	-.05	.28	.88	-		
16. Safety	58.5	14.5	.03	.03	-.09	.22	.43	-.00	-.25	-.05	.37	.24	.34	.30	-.02	.11	.24	-	
17. Comfort	49.1	20.9	.00	.26	-.03	.61	.55	.62	.34	.70	.66	-.31	.02	.01	.27	.88	.88	.26	-
18. Status	46.7	21.8	.08	.35	.05	.59	.55	.59	.29	.68	.67	-.30	-.05	-.18	.24	.90	.87	.18	.89

Note. $N = 1004$. All correlations with an absolute value greater than .08 were significant at the .05 level. Org. = organization; Sig. = significance; Cond. = conditions.

Table 8. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Agreeableness-Criterion Relationships

	Agreeableness-JP k = 95		Agreeableness-CP k = 23		Agreeableness-Satisfaction k = 54	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Job Characteristic	β	β	β	β	β	β
Social support	-.20*	-.24*	-.09	.09	.32*	.32*
Interdependence	-.12	-.07	-.56*	-.59*	-.05	-.07
Interaction outside the organization	-.06	.09	-.22	-.30	.16	.01
R	-	.22	-	.63	-	.33
R^2	-	.05	-	.40	-	.11

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.

*p < .10, two-tailed test

Table 9. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Extraversion-Criterion Relationships

	Extraversion-JP $k = 100$		Extraversion-CP $k = 25$		Extraversion-Satisfaction $k = 75$	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Job Characteristic	β	β	β	β	β	β
Power and influence	.19*	.16	-.20	-.20	.07	.02
Task significance	.14	.08	-.13	-.13	.11	.09
R	-	.20	-	.22	-	.10
R^2	-	.04	-	.05	-	.01

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.

*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 10. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Openness-Criterion Relationships

Job Characteristic	Openness-JP $k = 83$		Openness-CP $k = 21$		Openness-Satisfaction $k = 49$	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	β	β	β	β	β	β
Autonomy	.13	.16	.17	.19	-.02	.24*
Task variety	.07	-.11	.04	-.03	-.41*	-.52*
R	-	.17	-	.17	-	.46
R^2	-	.03	-	.03	-	.21

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 11. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Conscientiousness-Criterion Relationships

Job Characteristic	Conscientiousness-JP k = 151		Conscientiousness-CP k = 40		Conscientiousness - Satisfaction k = 79	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	β	β	β	β	β	β
Task identity	-.11	-.08	-.07	-.11	-.17	-.13
Feedback	-.11	-.06	-.38*	-.43*	-.16	-.10
R	-	.14	-	.40	-	.19
R^2	-	.02	-	.16	-	.04

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*p < .10, two-tailed test

Table 12. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Emotional Stability-Job Performance Relationship

Job Characteristic	Emotional Stability-Job Performance $k = 95$			
	1 β	2 β	3 β	4 β
Social support	.03	-.03		
Interdependence	.17*	.18		
Interaction outside the organization	.02	.01		
Task Identity	.26*		.26*	
Feedback	.13		-.00	
Physical demands	-.09			.01
Work conditions	-.13			-.08
Ergonomics	-.13			-.08
R		.17	.26	.14
R^2		.03	.07	.02

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 13. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Emotional Stability-Contextual Performance Relationship

	Emotional Stability-Contextual Performance $k = 24$			
	1	2	3	4
Job Characteristic	β	β	β	β
Social support	.25	.43		
Interdependence	.03	.13		
Interaction outside the organization	.03	-.24		
Task Identity	.38*		.41*	
Feedback	.17		-.37*	
Physical demands	-.44*			-.27
Work conditions	-.47*			-.38
Ergonomics	-.19			.18
R	-	.32	.48	.51
R^2	-	.10	.23	.26

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.

*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 14. Job Characteristics as Predictors of Emotional Stability-Job Satisfaction Relationship

| Job Characteristic | Emotional Stability-Satisfaction $k = 90$ | | | |
| | Random | | | |
	1 β	2 β	3 β	4 β
Social support	.27*	.19		
Interdependence	-.01	-.04		
Interaction outside the organization	.24*	.14		
Task Identity	-.08		-.12	
Feedback	-.07		-.06	
Physical demands	-.05			-.03
Work conditions	-.06			-.05
Ergonomics	-.04			.02
R	-	.28	.17	.00
R^2	-	.08	.03	.00

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. In the first column under each trait-criterion relationship, all variables were entered individually. In the second column under each estimation method, all variables were entered together. R and R^2 refer to the multiple R and percent variance explained, respectively, of the block of variables. k = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.

*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 15. Occupational Values as Predictors of Agreeableness-Criterion Relationships

Occupational Value	Agreeableness-JP $k = 95$	Agreeableness-CP $k = 23$	Agreeableness-Satisfaction $k = 54$
	1	2	3
	β	β	β
Altruism	-.12	-.22	.15
Achievement	-.12	-.30	-.16
Autonomy	-.01	-.48*	-.11
Safety	.06	-.10	.02
Comfort	-.03	-.39*	-.06
Status	-.07	-.49*	-.14

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. All variables were entered individually. $k =$ number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 16. Occupational Values as Predictors of Extraversion-Criterion Relationships

Occupational Value	Extraversion-JP $k = 100$	Extraversion-CP $k = 25$	Extraversion-Satisfaction $k = 75$
	1	2	3
	β	β	β
Status	.19*	-.14	.04
Achievement	.21*	.07	-.01
Altruism	.14	.32	-.02
Autonomy	.20*	.02	.05
Safety	-.11	-.12	-.15
Comfort	.09	.02	.01

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. All variables were entered individually. $k =$ number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

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Table 17. Occupational Values as Predictors Conscientiousness-Criterion Relationships

Occupational Value	Conscientiousness-JP k = 151 1 β	Conscientiousness-CP k = 40 2 β	Conscientiousness - Satisfaction k = 79 3 β
Achievement	-.15*	-.13	-.11
Altruism	-.22*	-.14	-.05
Autonomy	-.07	-.28*	-.01
Safety	-.05	-.33*	.00
Comfort	-.13	-.28*	-.01
Status	-.14	-.20	-.03

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. All variables were entered individually. *k* = number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*p < .10, two-tailed test

Table 18. Occupational Values as Predictors of Openness-Criterion Relationships

Occupational Value	Openness-JP $k = 83$	Openness -CP $k = 21$	Openness - Satisfaction $k = 49$
	1	2	3
	β	β	β
Autonomy	.21*	.07	-.10
Safety	-.23*	.08	.15
Comfort	.13	-.04	-.13
Status	.19*	-.14	-.02
Achievement	.17	.07	-.16
Altruism	.13	.27	.07

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. All variables were entered individually. $k =$ number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 19. Occupational Values as Predictors of Emotional Stability-Criterion Relationships

Occupational Value	Emotional Stability-JP $k = 95$	Emotional Stability-CP $k = 24$	Emotional Stability-Satisfaction $k = 90$
	1	2	3
	β	β	β
Altruism	.10	.18	.04
Achievement	.12	.05	.00
Safety	-.13	-.04	.09
Comfort	.07	-.01	.04
Status	.17*	-.11	.02
Autonomy	.16	.01	.06

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient. All variables were entered individually. $k =$ number of studies; JP = job performance; CP = contextual performance.
*$p < .10$, two-tailed test

Table 20. Dominance Analyses Comparing Job Characteristics and Occupational Values Across Traits and Criteria

	Agreeableness		Conscientiousness		Extraversion		Emotional Stability		Openness	
	DW	DW%	DW	DW%	DW	DW%	DW	DW%	DW	DW%
Job Performance										
Job Characteristics	.03	58	.03	41	.04	46	.10	67	.03	48
Occ. Values	.02	42	.05	59	.04	54	.05	33	.03	52
Total R^2	.05		.08		.08		.15		.06	
Contextual Performance										
Job Characteristics	.45	98	.10	62	.13	90	.51	80	.03	89
Occ. Values	.01	2	.06	38	.02	10	.13	20	.00	11
Total R^2	.46		.16		.15		.64		.03	
Job Satisfaction										
Job Characteristics	.19	71	.02	84	.02	81	.24	88	.18	87
Occ. Values	.08	29	.00	16	.00	19	.03	12	.03	13
Total R^2	.26		.03		.02		.27		.20	

Note. DW refers to the raw dominance weight. DW% refers to the percentage of the variance explained attributable to the set of predictors. DW values may not sum exactly to total R^2 due to rounding error.

Table 21. Summary Table of Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis	Trait	JC or OV	Job Performance	Contextual Performance	Job Satisfaction
1	Agreeableness	Social support	**(-.29, -.01)**	*(-.07, .13)*	***(.06, .32)***
2		Interdependence	(-.18, .08)	**(-.51, -.19)**	(-.27, .03)
3		Interaction outside org.	(-.04, .10)	(-.14, .00)	(-.08, .08)
4	Emotional Stability	Social support	(-.12, .09)	(-.01, .52)	(-.01, .30)
5		Interdependence	(-.00, .16)	(-.15, .35)	(-.24, .15)
6		Interaction outside org.	(-.04, .05)	(-.18, .05)	(-.03, .15)
7	Extraversion	Power and influence	(-.00, .11)	(-.25, .07)	(-.12, .15)
8		Task significance	(-.03, .09)	(-.15, .07)	(-.08, .18)
9	Openness	Autonomy	(-.02, .16)	(-.12, .31)	***(.00, .31)***
10		Task variety	(-.08, .02)	(-.10, .12)	**(-.25, -.10)**
11	Conscientiousness	Task identity	(-.09, .03)	(-.07, .16)	(-.19, .05)
12		Feedback from the job	(-.10, .05)	**(-.34, -.07)**	(-.18, .07)
13	Emotional Stability	Task identity	***(.02, .11)***	***(.03, .20)***	(-.15, .02)
14		Feedback from the job	(-.05, .05)	**(-.25, -.02)**	(-.01, .17)
15		Physical demands	(-.04, .04)	(-.11, .03)	(-.08, .06)
16		Work conditions	(-.06, .03)	(-.10, .27)	(-.14, .15)
17		Ergonomics	(-.07, .04)	(-.28, .03)	(-.12, .08)
18	Agreeableness	Altruism	(-.00, .00)	(-.01, .00)	(-.00, .00)
19	Emotional Stability	Altruism	(-.01, .00)	(-.00, .01)	(-.00, .00)
20	Extraversion	Status	***(.00, .01)***	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)
21	Conscientiousness	Achievement	**(-.01, -.00)**	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)
22	Emotional Stability	Achievement	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)
23	Openness	Autonomy	***(.00, .01)***	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)
24	Emotional Stability	Safety	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)
25	Emotional Stability	Comfort	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)	(-.00, .00)

Note. Values presented in the table are 90% confidence intervals. Bolded entries did not include zero; bolded and italicized entries were supportive of the hypothesis. JC = job characteristic; OV = occupational value.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

It is largely accepted in the broad psychology literature that behavior is a function of the person

and the situation in which the person is situated. This broad axiom is especially relevant in the

context of recent skepticism towards the ability of personality characteristics to predict work

behaviors (Morgeson et al., 2007). As such, many management theories seek to integrate aspects

of the person with aspects of the situation in interactive frameworks to predict work behaviors.

Unfortunately, empirical work in this area has evolved in a largely disjointed manner from the

theoretical treatments of person-situation interactionism, with most research implicitly choosing

one or the other to study and scant investigation of the joint, interactive influences of person and

situation. Further, most person-situation interactionist theories suffer from a lack of specificity

with respect to their personological or situational framework and, in some cases, both. These

deficits limit the ability of such theories and empirical work based on them to provide

generalizable suggestions to organizations. The goal of my dissertation is to help address this gap

in the literature by providing a meta-analytic test of some of the propositions of a recently

published person-situation interactionist theory (i.e., the theory of purposeful work behavior;

Barrick et al., 2013) that is derived from the well-established research traditions on the Five

Factor Model of personality and the job characteristics model. Theoretically, these findings will

be important to theories of personality, job characteristics, and their interplay, while also being

important to practitioners seeking to select employees and design jobs in ways that improve

organizational performance. Below, I will discuss the implications of the results, limitations, and

future research directions.

Implications and Contributions

The major question I intended to address with the dissertation was quite simply: How do traits interact with job and occupational characteristics to influence attitudes and productive behavior? Two major purposes arose from this question. First, I sought to test the major propositions of the TPWB while extending the job characteristics considered by the theory to include contextual elements of jobs. Second, I sought to integrate the occupational values framework from the theory of work adjustment with the TPWB to determine whether occupational values moderate FFM trait validities. To this end, the contributions of my dissertation are quite mixed, as the majority of my hypotheses were unsupported, with some in the opposite direction to that hypothesized. However, even in these cases, there were some interesting implications from the results. In this section, I will begin my discussing some of the unsupported hypotheses (i.e., those results that were significant but in the opposite direction, and those results that were not significant), followed by a discussion of the supported hypotheses derived from the TPWB and my extensions to the theory.

Unsupported Hypotheses

First, it is important to acknowledge that many of the hypotheses were unsupported both in the sense of being nonsignificant, and in the sense that their 90% confidence interval did not include zero but was in the opposite direction to that hypothesized. One part of the TPWB which I did not discuss in detail concerns the gravitation of individuals towards certain kinds of jobs, and this is one possible explanation for these unexpected findings. As shown in Figure 1, the theory contends that personality has direct effects on the job characteristics. This is similar to the basis for the attraction-selection-attrition framework (Schneider, 1987) and related theoretical paradigms, such as the gravitation model (McCormick, Jeanneret, & Mecham, 1972; Wilk,

Desmarais, & Sackett, 1995) and theories of person-job fit (Kristof, 1996) – namely, that

individuals will gravitate towards jobs which provide a "fit" for their personality. This

gravitation process takes the form of individuals being attracted to a job which they think might

be a good fit for them, followed by individuals being selected into those jobs, and, after some

time, individuals that were not a good fit for those jobs ultimately leaving those jobs, either

voluntarily or involuntarily due to poor performance. In the context of the TPWB and the

dissertation, for example, an agreeable person might be drawn to and selected for jobs that

involve social support, interaction outside the organization, and interdependence, and that

reinforce the need for altruism. According to the theory, agreeable individuals in these jobs are

likely to remain in them and perform well. This implies that, if the gravitation process is true,

individuals in a given job will be range restricted on the traits that are related to success in that

job, as those that are misfits are more likely to have left the job. Relatedly, it is generally

accepted that personality suffers from little range restriction (especially when compared to

general mental ability; see Schmidt, Shaffer and Oh, 2008), and this is likely true at the

population level (i.e., when considering incumbents across a host of occupations, personality is

typically not restricted), but unlikely to be true at the level of one particular job (and, by

extension in the case of this study, one sample). For example, a sample of nurses, where

agreeableness is important to perform well, is likely to have a smaller standard deviation on

agreeableness than a sample of accountants, where agreeableness is much less important.

     Thus, if we assume that the individuals in these samples have gravitated towards jobs that

provide an appropriate fit with their personality, and these individuals have remained in their

jobs for a reasonable period of time, the interpretation of the present results becomes

complicated. This is because I am, in effect, testing whether trait-criterion relationships are

moderated by the same job characteristics that have already influenced the gravitation process. In keeping with the previous examples, in a given occupational sample nurses have presumably already gravitated towards jobs with high levels of interdependence that are a good fit for their personality (namely, their high levels of agreeableness). My dissertation posits that across samples, there will be a positive correlation between the amount of interdependence for a job within a sample (which is a constant value) and the correlation between agreeableness and outcomes derived on that sample. The underlying assumption is that because interdependence is relevant to agreeableness (i.e. interdependence activates agreeableness), the magnitude of the interdependence for each sample will be positively associated with the magnitude of the agreeableness-outcome correlation. But if individuals in a sample have gravitated to a job that provides an optimal amount of interdependence, then it is possible that the restriction in range on agreeableness will cause interdependence to attenuate the agreeableness-criterion correlations, as indicated by a negative regression coefficient of interdependence on the agreeableness-criterion correlations, or one that is not significant.

Although this explanation may account for some of the negative correlations in the study, it does not account for the numerous unsupported hypotheses, which do not seem to follow a discernable pattern. In the above example, social support moderates the relationship between agreeableness and job satisfaction as expected, but not for the other two criteria. The other two job characteristics are not significant. This was also the case with the other trait-criterion relationships. Thus, there does not appear to be a unifying rationale for which job characteristics cause the gravitation/range restriction process I discuss here, and which job characteristics activate the effects of their respective hypothesized traits. One possible explanation is that the

TPWB is actually a theory of how personality traits lead to job choice as much as it is a theory of trait-situation congruence.

Test of the TPWB

Second, there are important implications of the hypotheses that were supported, as this is the first study to test the TPWB and investigate the interactive relationships between the job characteristics model and the Big Five model of personality. In several instances, the predictions from the TPWB held true in that trait-criterion correlations were larger under the hypothesized job characteristics. In some cases, the magnitudes of the trait-criterion correlations increased considerably. For example, in the case of agreeableness-job satisfaction, the corrected population-level correlation is .15, but under conditions of social support 1 standard deviation above the mean, this correlation increases to .21, which is an increase 40% a. However, given the aforementioned unsupported hypotheses, there was no consistent theme as to which traits, job characteristics, or criteria enjoyed the most supported hypotheses.

Beyond contributing to the TPWB, these findings also contribute to more general theories of person-situation interactionism, such as trait activation theory and person-job fit, and to the recent debate on the importance of personality by highlighting that, under favorable job conditions, the magnitude of the relationship between personality and various criteria can rival the well-established relationship between general mental ability and job performance (Schmidt et al., 2008). By the same token, the nonsignificant findings and opposite direction findings highlight a potential limitation of testing these theories – namely, that the same factors that are likely to predict greater job and contextual performance and greater job satisfaction are also likely to predict gravitation towards jobs characterized by these factors, which makes it difficult to tease apart the effects potential moderating effects of the job characteristics.

Theoretical Extensions

Third, with respect to my extensions to the theory, my hypotheses were unsupported in terms of the moderating influence of contextual job factors on emotional stability. The lack of support for this extension to the theory also calls into question the "safety striving" addendum I made to the existing four strivings proposed by the TPWB (i.e., achievement, communion, power, and autonomy). As I mentioned previously, this may be due to neurotic individuals self-selecting out of jobs with these characteristics early in their careers, given that many of the relationships were not significant or negative. However, these findings were not unique to contextual job characteristics, as emotional stability was also hypothesized to be moderated by the job characteristics associated with achievement and communion striving, and these results were similarly weak. It could be that because neurotic individuals are uncomfortable and unlikely to succeed in situations where one must strive for achievement and communion or avoid being unsafe, they actively avoid these jobs altogether. This is in line with Gray's (1991) reinforcement sensitivity theory, as neurotic individuals are more likely to assess situations that demand achievement, getting along with others, and which are physically demanding as potentially harmful, and will therefore avoid these situations altogether.

Fourth, my extension of the theory that considered occupational values (Dawis & Lofquist, 1975) as moderators also had mixed results. As I discussed in the hypotheses development, I reasoned that the occupational values framework would enact a similar moderating effect to job characteristics. This reasoning was based on the occupational values framework being a psychological taxonomy of work which would correspond closely to the FFM traits. The TWA states that when individuals' needs are reinforced by their jobs, they will be more satisfied and enjoy greater performance. Although the theory of work adjustment is at its

core a person-situation interactionist theory, few studies have tested that premise, instead studying individual needs and occupational reinforcement of needs in isolation. Thus, my study helps answer the call by Dierdorff and colleagues (2009) to consider the effects of contextual elements of occupations on work behaviors and attitudes in a manner which stays true to the original aim of the TWA. In the case of contextual performance and job satisfaction, my hypotheses went lunsupported. However, in the case of job performance, I found that the hypothesized occupational values had a significant moderating effect on extraversion and openness. Thus, my results suggest extraverts are more successful in occupations that reinforce the need for status, and individuals high on openness are more successful in occupations that reinforce the need for autonomy. It is interesting that the most consistent results were with respect to job performance, as research drawing from the TWA has frequently been concerned with predicting job satisfaction as the most proximal outcome of correspondence between person and situation (e.g., Dierdorff & Morgeson, 2013). Thus, my results show the efficacy of the theory in also being applied to job performance as an outcome.

Relative Importance Analyses

Finally, my results indicated that job characteristics were relatively more important than occupational values in predicting trait-criterion relationships in almost all instances. Specifically, with respect to job satisfaction and contextual performance, the job characteristics were significantly stronger than the occupational values in all cases. This is consistent with Dierdorff and Morgeson's (2013) logic, as they proposed that job characteristics mediate the effects of occupational values on job satisfaction. With respect to job performance, job characteristics were consistently more important across traits, but the difference in relative importance between job characteristics and occupational values was significantly smaller. These findings are interesting

when one considers the nested relationship between occupational values and job characteristics. As Dierdorff and Morgeson (2013) argue, occupational values are broader, higher-level constructs that reside at the "occupation" level of analyses, while job characteristics reside at the lower "job" level of analysis. Therefore, one might expect occupational values to be relatively more important in moderating FFM-criterion relationships than their lower level counterparts. This was only the case with respect to the conscientiousness-job performance relationship, but an inspection of the beta weights associated with achievement suggests that this effect was actually negative. Therefore, the negative moderating effect of the occupational reinforcement of achievement and the conscientiousness-job performance relationship was stronger than the also negative moderating effect of task identity and feedback. In the context of my previous explanation of the unexpected, negative effects, these results might suggest that conscientious individuals are more likely to gravitate to jobs on the basis of the occupation reinforcing achievement needs as opposed to its level of task identity and feedback, and levels of achievement reinforcement beyond that which is required to attract conscientious individuals to these jobs is detrimental to performance.

The relatively stronger effects of job characteristics provide evidence that the task, social, and contextual elements of jobs proposed by the job characteristics model and Humphrey and colleagues' (2007) theoretical extension may be more proximal to individuals' person-situation congruence than higher-order occupational values. Collectively, these results provide further evidence regarding the importance of individuals' proximal job conditions. It is important to note that although job characteristics were relatively more important in almost all cases, the R^2 associated with occupational values was not trivial, as it was as high as .13 in one case (emotional stability-contextual performance). Further, the importance of job characteristics and

occupational values effects were close to one another in the case of job performance. However, it is also important to note a word of caution in interpreting the dominance analyses. Namely, given the aforementioned negative moderating effect that various job characteristics exhibited, the interpretation of the dominance analyses is not straightforward. This is because dominance analyses provide an estimate of the contribution of the model R^2 by each set of predictors, and ignores directionality. Therefore, a given set of predictors might account for more of the R^2 than another, but some of this variance explained might be in the positive direction, and some in the negative direction.

<u>Practical Implications</u>

There are several important practical implications of the results. First, the findings show that, under certain conditions, the relationships between the FFM traits and various work outcomes can be quite strong. As I mentioned previously, there were validity gains approaching 40% for certain trait-criterion pairs in favorable jobs. These findings underscore the importance of matching person to situation either by selecting individuals that are most likely to thrive in a given situation, or by redesigning jobs to correspond to the dispositions of the incumbents in those jobs. These results are particularly informative with respect to traits that might not typically be used in selection, such as openness, as the results show that jobs with a high degree of autonomy make open individuals more satisfied. Thus, employers seeking to hire individuals for autonomous jobs should consider selecting on openness. Similarly, for employers with employees that are high on openness, it might be useful to increase the autonomy afforded to these employees in their jobs.

Second, the findings with respect to the occupational values further reinforce this notion. The occupational values associated with extraversion and openness were both significant

moderators of those traits' relationships with job performance, but not the other criteria. For practitioners, this information could be used to better select employees. In contrast to the practical implications from the job characteristics results, occupational values are not easily malleable. Therefore, this information is more directly applicable to selection and can also be used in a more general sense. This is because the TWA proposes that certain occupations reinforce certain needs, regardless of other contextual elements (e.g., job characteristics, organizational characteristics). In other words, changing characteristics of the job is unlikely to have an effect on the psychological reinforcement of needs that are intrinsic to the occupation.

Limitations and Future Directions

As with any study, there are several limitations worth acknowledging. First, as stated earlier, my purpose was not to test all of the provisions of the TPWB. For example, although the theory posits that specific higher-order goals or motivational strivings emanate from the FFM traits (Barrick et al., 2013), I did not include studies that directly measure the motivational strivings in this study. Although some past research has directly measured the strivings (e.g., Barrick et al., 2002), there are not enough studies with which to reliably conduct the analyses, and these higher-order goals can be conceptualized as latent high-order constructs (personal communication with M. K. Mount, March 27, 2014). Future research should test whether the relationships between the higher order goal strivings and various criteria are moderated by job characteristics and occupational values, although such research would have to be conducted using a field study as opposed to a meta-analysis. For example, it could be that job characteristics are stronger moderators of FFM validities because they are narrower, while the broader occupational values provide a similar bandwidth "match" to the higher-order goals. Relatedly, it could be that different personality facets have different patterns of interactive relationships with

job characteristics and occupational values, because personality facets are narrower subdimensions of the traits. I could not test this notion in this study because of the lack of a sufficient number of primary studies. Future research should explore these possibilities

Second, the TPWB outlines several motivational processes (e.g., experienced meaning, goal setting, expectancy, self-efficacy) which mediate the interactive relationships between the FFM traits and criterion variables. In developing my hypotheses, I proposed that these were the underlying mechanisms linking the hypothesized interactions to the three criteria. However, I was unable to test the role of those mediators in this study due to a lack of primary studies documenting the relationships between the FFM traits and the motivational constructs outlined in the theory. Future research should explicitly test whether these motivational constructs mediate the interactive relationships between the FFM, job characteristics, and work outcomes.

Third, I was able to test for the significance of a given moderator effect, I was unable to test the exact shape of the interaction as is possible in primary studies. This is because raw data is needed to compute the intercepts of the lines (Cohen et al., 2013), and this data was missing for the personality and performance scales. In a meta-analytic study, it might be possible to produce an approximate graph of the relationships if there was reliable data available on the mean and standard deviation of the independent and dependent variables. However, in the current study there were dozens of different personality and performance scales used, and it was therefore impossible to transform them all into a standardized metric for plotting purposes. Further, to my knowledge, no studies have attempted to graph the influence of continuous moderators on meta-analytic correlations. Developing such methods could be useful to improve the interpretability of meta-analytic results.

Fourth, in this dissertation I considered only the three positive work outcomes resulting from person-congruence considered by the TPWB: job performance, contextual performance, and job satisfaction. It is equally plausible that negative work outcomes could result from person-situation *in*congruence, such as stress, burnout, or counterproductive behaviors. I was unable to consider that possibility in my dissertation due to a lack of primary studies, but future research could study whether the arguments concerning positive outcomes also apply to negative outcomes. For example, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) would suggest that individuals in jobs that do not provide a good fit for their dispositional makeup may engage in counterproductive behavior in retaliation against the organization and other coworkers (Colbert et al., 2004). Future research should explore this notion.

Fifth, the use of O*NET coding carries with it several limitations. The data available in O*NET are gathered from thousands of job incumbents and exhibit high reliability. However, there is undoubtedly a great deal of variance across jobs in specific firms, and even with respect to specific job titles that may be subsumed under a more general job title. For example, certain firms may provide more performance feedback than others, regardless of the jobs in question. Relatedly, some jobs that one considers to have high autonomy (e.g., professor) could have very different levels of autonomy in different contexts (e.g., professor employed in a teaching-focused university vs. a research-focused university). In the other case, one of the improvements of the O*NET over the former Department of Labor classification codes is the condensation of over ten thousand job titles into around one thousand job titles. This makes the tool more widely accessible at the cost of specificity. For example, subsumed under the O*NET job title "Human Resource Manager" are the job titles "Human Resources Vice President" and "Employee Benefits Manager", each of which may have slightly different job characteristics, but which are

reflected as one "score" within O*NET. It could be that some of the nonsignificant effects are due to O*NET coding not providing an exact match for the jobs reported in the samples included in this study. Thus, future research should test the predictions of the TPWB from job characteristics reported using subjective ratings directly from job incumbents.

Finally, an important future research direction concerns my proposed explanation for the unsupported hypotheses. A prospective study could show that there is range restriction on personality traits at the sample level that is predicted by job characteristics and occupational values. For example, one could follow a similar procedure to that in my dissertation and collect all single occupation studies that measured the FFM. One could then code the job characteristics and occupational values from O*NET, and calculate the meta-analytic correlations between the standard deviation of the FFM traits and the corresponding job characteristics. Such a study would provide an estimate of the degree of range restriction that is due to gravitation to jobs that provide a good fit for the individual.

Conclusion

Recent debate over the extent to which personality predicts valuable work outcomes has caused scholars to turn to exploring environmental conditions as important catalysts for personality to affect behaviors and attitudes. To this end, Barrick and colleagues' (2013) theory of purposeful work behavior seeks to integrate the literatures on key personological and environmental taxonomies in an interactive framework. This dissertation presents a test and extension of some of the ideas in the theory, with the goal of answering recent calls to investigate under what circumstances personality is a valid predictor of behavior and attitudes (e.g., Judge & Zapata, 2014). Further, I answer the call by Morgeson and colleagues (2010; also Dierdorff &

Morgeson, 2013) to examine the role of the occupational context in predicting attitudes and behavior. Thus, I incorporated a taxonomy of the psychological context of work from the theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1975) to represent occupational values that also moderate the relationships between the FFM traits and various criteria.

Overall, the results of the study were mixed, as most hypotheses were unsupported. However, some trait-criterion relationships were stronger as a function of some job characteristics, lending support to the suggestion that dispositional influences on behavior and attitudes are strongest in congruent work situations. My extensions to the theory also yielded mixed results, as the contextual job elements did not moderate the relationships between emotional stability and the criteria in the expected manner, and the occupational values from the theory of work adjustment were only consistently related to some of the FFM-job performance relationships. I also discussed significant implications, contributions, and limitations, along with directions for future research, including a proposed future research study that may shed some light on why the results were so frequently unsupported and in the opposite direction to that expected.

In summary, the current study contributes to the personality, job characteristics, and occupational values literatures by exploring their interactive relationships in predicting three important work criteria (job performance, contextual performance, and job satisfaction). The results provide some important meta-analytic evidence as to the importance of matching the person to the situation, while also highlighting some of the limitations in using meta-analytic methods to explore situational moderators of personality-criterion relationships. Practically, managers will be able to benefit from this study when selecting employees for a particular job or occupation, or when redesigning a job to provide a better fit to their current employees. In this

manner, the findings from this study can be used to mutually benefit both employees and

employers.

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