

ARE COWORKERS GOOD SOLDIERS OR GOOD ACTORS?

by

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ABSTRACT

ARE COWORKERS GOOD SOLDIERS OR GOOD ACTORS?

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Drawing from attribution theory, I propose a field study which develops and tests a model to describe (1) how individuals use multiple observations of coworker behavior to form attributions about whether beneficial behaviors have self-serving or prosocial motives, (2) how the attributions regarding the motive for coworker behavior (self-serving or prosocial) moderate the influence of organizational citizenship behaviors on affect toward that coworker, and finally, (3) how such affect toward a coworker translates into more distal performance-related evaluations of coworkers.

Specifically, two attribution cues, distinctiveness and consistency, are considered as mechanism through which coworkers form beliefs about the motives for their focal employee's behavior as prosocial or self-serving. Consistency was measured by the congruence between exemplification in presence of the supervisor and exemplification in absence of the supervisor. To understand these multi-dimensional relationships, polynomial regression response surface analysis was conducted. Polynomial regression response surface analysis was used to investigate the attribution process where individuals form , and structural equation modeling was used to examine a two-stage moderated mediation model which depicts indirect effect of

impression management on the distal work outcomes (i.e., coworker performance appraisal, coworker preference) via organizational citizenship behaviors (i.e., OCB-I, OCB-O) and affective responses (i.e., coworker liking, coworker trust), and existence of attributed motive's moderating role on the relationship between OCBs and affects.

Results showed that the joint relationship of the two competing IM behaviors supported the hypothesized attributed motives in most situations. As expected, when beneficial behavior was consistent across targets and situations, a prosocial attribution occurred but a self-serving attribution occurred when there was upward high distinctiveness (supervisor-focused ingratiation was higher than coworker-focused ingratiation) or low consistency such that exemplification occurred more in the supervisor's presence than absence. It was also found that the higher the prosocial motive attribution. Also, the analysis produced evidence to support the three-path mediation effect model in which impression management indirectly affected distal work-related outcomes via OCB-I – liking chain, but not via OCB-O and trust. However, this study did not find evidence for the moderating effect of the attributed motives.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | iii |
| ABSTRACT | v |
| LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS..... | x |
| LIST OF TABLES | xi |
| Chapter | Page |
| 1. INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES | 5 |
| 2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behaviors | 5 |
| 2.1.1 Definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior | 5 |
| 2.1.2 OCB-I and OCB-O | 6 |
| 2.2 Impression Management..... | 7 |
| 2.2.1 Definition and Taxonomy of Impression Management | 7 |
| 2.3 Construct Similarity between OCB and IM..... | 12 |
| 2.3.1 Beneficial Behaviors in the Eyes of Target | 12 |
| 2.3.2 Intended Beneficiary-Based Conceptualization of IM and OCB Relations | 14 |
| 2.4 Differentiating IM and OCB by Underlying Motives..... | 15 |
| 2.4.1 Motivational Approach..... | 15 |
| 2.4.2 Attribution Theory..... | 17 |
| 2.4.3 Coworker Perspective and Evaluations | 21 |
| 2.4.4 Coworker's Attribution of Motives Underlying Beneficial Behaviors | 23 |
| 2.5 Hypothesized Model: IM, OCB, Motive Attribution and Cognitive Responses | 26 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 2.5.1 Beneficial Behaviors: IM and OCB..... | 26 |
| 2.5.2 Liking | 28 |
| 2.5.3 Interpersonal Trust | 29 |
| 2.5.4 Attribution of Motive as a Moderator | 29 |
| 2.5.5 Affective Responses to Performance Evaluation..... | 33 |
| 2.5.6 Affective Responses to Coworker Preference | 34 |
| 3. METHODOLOGY | 36 |
| 3.1 Procedure..... | 36 |
| 3.2 Measures..... | 37 |
| 3.2.1 Impression Management Tactics | 37 |
| 3.2.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior | 38 |
| 3.2.3 Attributed Motives for OCB-I and OCB-O | 38 |
| 3.2.4 Coworker Liking | 40 |
| 3.2.5 Interpersonal Trust | 40 |
| 3.2.6 Coworker Performance | 41 |
| 3.2.7 Coworker Preference | 41 |
| 3.2.8 Control Variables..... | 41 |
| 4. RESULTS..... | 43 |
| 4.1 Descriptive Statistics | 43 |
| 4.2 Test of Attribution Process | 45 |
| 4.2.1 Validation of Impression Management Measurement | 45 |
| 4.2.2 Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis | 48 |
| 4.3 Model Test..... | 57 |
| 4.3.1 Measurement Model | 57 |
| 4.3.2 Structural Model: Mediation and Moderation | 58 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 5. DISCUSSION | 62 |
| 5.1 Summary | 62 |
| 5.2 Implications for Research..... | 67 |
| 5.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research..... | 69 |
| 5.4 Conclusion..... | 71 |
| APPENDIX | |
| A. MEASURES OF CURRENT STUDY..... | 73 |
| REFERENCES..... | 86 |
| BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION | 100 |

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

| Figure | Page |
|--|------|
| 1 Hypothesized Model of Motive Attribution Process..... | 24 |
| 2 A Proposed Model of Peer Evaluation of a Coworker's IM, OCB, and Performance..... | 27 |
| 3 Two-Dimensional Display of the Relationship between Information Cues and Attributed Motives: A. Distinctiveness and Attributed Motives toward OCB-I (MOCBI), B. Consistency and Attributed Motives toward OCB-O (MOCBO)..... | 39 |
| 4 Predicting Attributed Motives from Two Information Cues: A. Predicting Attributed Motives Underlying OCB-I (MOCBI) from Distinctiveness (INGS and INGC), B. Predicting Attributed Motives Underlying OCB-O (MOCBO) from Consistency (EXEP and EXEA) | 52 |
| 5 Standardized Parameters for the Full Mediation Model..... | 60 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table | Page |
|--|------|
| 1 Classification of IM Tactics based on Tedeschi and Melburg (1984) | 8 |
| 2 Classification of IM Taxonomies and Mechanisms | 11 |
| 3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables | 44 |
| 4 Examination on the Appropriateness of Aggregating Individual-level Responses for Each Variable..... | 45 |
| 5 Factor Structure of New Ingratiation and Exemplification Scales | 46 |
| 6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Four Impression Management Tactics | 48 |
| 7 Polynomial Regression – Response Surface Analysis Results | 51 |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) has been defined as voluntary and prosocial behavior that is beneficial to other individuals, groups, and the larger organization (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Traditional views of OCB have suggested that employees engage in a variety of extra-role behaviors in order to benefit their organizations and other people who work in them. However, an alternative perspective from the impression management (IM) literature has conceptualized OCB as an opportunistic behavior that is used specifically to manage impressions and maximize self-interest (Bolino, 1999). For example, an employee might stay late to help a coworker complete a project because he believes this behavior will be observed and perceived favorably by his supervisor rather than for reasons of prosocial intentions. This view suggests that employees realize that OCB is noticed by supervisors and influences performance evaluations (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) and that employees are likely to engage in OCBs when they believe they will receive rewards for those behaviors (Haworth & Levy, 2001). Thus, the motivation behind OCBs is proposed to be self-serving such that employees engage in OCBs in order to influence their supervisors and achieve desired personal goals (i.e., receive a raise) (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997).

In examining the constructs of impression management and organizational citizenship behavior it is clear that there are certain behaviors that may be classified either as OCB or as IM. For example, an employee may do a favor for a supervisor out of a genuine desire to benefit the supervisor (that is, altruism, a form of OCB) or the employee may do the same favor because of a desire to make the supervisor like him and get desired reward (that is, ingratiation, a form of IM). Thus, it is not only the behavior per se, but also the motive underlying the behavior which determines whether a particular behavior reflects IM or OCB.

Even though only the actor knows the true motives behind his or her behavior, attribution theory suggests that individuals draw attributions about the motives for the behavior of others (Heider, 1958) and that these attributions are critical in determining an individual's evaluation of others (Allen & Rush, 1998; Ferris, King, Judge, & Kacmar, 1991; Eastman, 1994). According to attribution theory, people are particularly likely to look for explanations for observed behavior of others when it deviates from norms and expectations (Wong & Weiner, 1981). Since IM and OCBs include behaviors that go beyond typical expectations or standards in work settings (c.f., Grant & Ashford, 2008; Wayne, Kacmar, & Ferris, 1995), when employees engage in them, others look for information to discern the motives underlying these behaviors. Research suggests that when behavior is attributed to sincere, benevolent, or prosocial motives, evaluations will be positive, but when the attributed motives are impression-management or self-serving, evaluations will be negative (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Eastman, 1994; Johnson, Erez, Amir, Kiker, & Motowidlo, 2002; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004).

However, most previous studies, with the exception of Tepper et al. (2004), have examined the attributions supervisors make for their subordinates' beneficial behaviors (e.g., prosocial or self-serving). Since supervisors are the primary targets of impression management behaviors because they make decisions regarding employee rewards, employees with self-serving motives may behave differently in front of supervisors and coworkers. Research has found that supervisors have limited information about employee behavior, given subordinates may engage in substantial impression management targeted at them and therefore, their judgments may not be accurate (McCall, Morrison, & Hannan, 1978; Wood & Mitchell, 1981). On the other hand, coworkers do not typically influence reward decisions and thus, are not the primary target of impression management. Thus, beneficial behavior directed at coworkers is more likely to reflect genuine citizenship behavior (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000; Lee & Allen, 2002; Moorman, 1991). Coworkers have more opportunity to observe a focal coworker's behaviors displayed for different targets, and thus, are less likely to be manipulated by IM tactic

use directed toward supervisors. In support of this, several impression management studies found that observers are better than targets in identifying the sincerity of actor behavior (e.g., Risen & Gilovich, 2007; Vonk, 2002).

However, past research exploring coworkers' attributions about and responses to their peers' beneficial behavior have yielded inconsistent findings. Jones and his colleagues (Jones, Jones, & Gergen, 1963; Jones, Stires, Shaver, & Harris, 1968) examined how coworkers evaluated ingratiation engaging in opinion conformity. They found that bystanders evaluated the ingratiation less positively when that person obtained more plausible gains. On the other hand, an experiment conducted by Wayne, Kacmar, and Ferris (1995) demonstrated that coworkers were more satisfied and perceived higher fairness when they witnessed their peers use ingratiation targeted at supervisors. An observer's evaluation of an actor is influenced by not only the actor's behavior but also interactions with the actor (Yamamrino & Atwater, 1993). However, such interactions are omitted in laboratory contexts and thus, lab studies might not fully reflect the dynamics of a real work setting. Therefore, it is important to examine how coworkers make attributions about their peers' observed beneficial behavior and how such attributions relate to affective reactions to the focal coworker (actors) in field settings.

Drawing from attribution theory, I propose a field study which develops and tests a model to describe (1) how individuals use multiple observations of coworker behavior to form attributions about whether beneficial behaviors have self-serving or prosocial motives, (2) how the attributions regarding the motive for coworker behavior (self-serving or prosocial) moderate the influence of OCB frequency on affect toward that coworker, and finally, (3) how such affect toward a coworker translates into more distal performance-related evaluations of coworkers.

The sections which follow review the literature which provides the background for creating the model. First, the literature on OCB is discussed, followed by the impression management literature. Then, the similarity between behaviors commonly referred to as impression management (i.e., exemplification) and OCB (i.e., conscientiousness) are

discussed. Next, attribution theory is discussed as a framework which describes how people form beliefs about the causes of a person's behavior. Specifically, attribution cues are discussed as mechanism through which people form beliefs about the motives for their coworker's behavior as prosocial or self-serving. Finally, these perceived motives are described as important variables which moderate the relationship between the frequency which a coworker is observed engaging in OCBs and the rater's affective responses toward that coworker. Specifically, more favorable affective reactions are expected toward coworkers believed to have prosocial motives and less favorable affective reactions are expected toward coworkers believed to have self-serving motives. Finally, literature supporting the link between affective responses to coworkers and performance-related evaluations of them is described.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

2.1.1. Definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The origin of the concept of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) can be traced to Barnard (1938) who connoted the concept of 'willingness to cooperate' and Katz (1964) who introduced the concept of 'innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions.' Both authors argue that employees' engagement in behaviors that are not part of formal job requirements is necessary for organizational effectiveness. Later, these types of extra role behaviors were labeled organizational citizenship behavior and explicitly defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988: 4). Due to the potential importance of OCB to organizational success, substantial research has focused on identifying its antecedents (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Even though there has been general agreement that extra role behavior is a distinct performance construct from in-role behavior, specific definitions of extra role behavior and the terminology used to describe this phenomena have been debated by scholars in the years following the initial conceptualization of OCB. For example, Graham (1991) argued that OCBs reflect informal role expectations in organizations such that employees engage in OCBs when they believe it is expected of them. That is, Graham (1991) suggested that OCBs are not necessarily separate from in-role job performance, but reflect relational expectations (ties, rights, responsibilities). Morrison (1994) argued that a particular behavior might be considered in-role by one manager and out-of-role by another and found that employee definitions of extra

role behavior differed from those of their supervisors and from those of other employees. Borman and Motowidlo (1993, 1997) introduced the term contextual performance to refer to behaviors which are similar to citizenship behaviors in many aspects, but are not explicitly defined as extra-role.

Several other constructs also share similarities with OCB (LePine, Erez, and Johnson, 2002). According to LePine et al. (2002) these include *prosocial organizational behavior* (behaviors that benefit others, groups, and organizations; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), *organizational spontaneity* (voluntary behaviors that benefit organizations; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), and *extra role behavior* (behaviors that are beyond job expectations and are intended to benefit organizations; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). Despite different labels, all these constructs exhibit substantial redundancy with Organ's (1988) definition of OCB in that the behaviors described are voluntary and intended to benefit organizations. However, these other conceptualizations may include behaviors that are expected and rewarded (Organ, 1997). In contrast, Organ defined OCB as what is *not* required and rewarded in the job (e.g., Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988).

2.1.2. OCB-I and OCB-O

Two decades ago when the notion of OCB was first introduced, Smith et al. (1983) suggested two general dimensions of OCB: altruism (helping others) and general compliance (engaging in behaviors generally accepted as good for the organization). Later, Organ (1988) offered an extended taxonomy of five dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors, which is the most well-accepted conception of OCB among researchers (LePine et al., 2002). These dimensions include altruism (helping others), conscientiousness (behaving like a good employee as expected), sportsmanship (not complaining about trivial inconveniences), courtesy (considering the effects of actions on others before taking actions that affect others), and civic virtue (responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization). Since

then, a plethora of researchers have conceptualized OCB in somewhat different ways, and over 30 potentially different dimensions of OCB have been discussed in the literature (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

There have been several attempts to integrate these alternative conceptions into a single taxonomy of OCB. Scholars have suggested that Organ's taxonomies can be differentiated in terms of the intended beneficiary (cf. Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). The most popular integrative conceptualization of OCB grounded in this approach is a two-dimensional taxonomy introduced by Williams and Anderson (1991). The first dimension, OCB-I, reflects employee behaviors that are targeted at individuals and the second dimension, OCB-O, reflects employee behaviors directed toward the organization. The OCB literature suggests that Organ's dimensions can be subsumed under these two dimensions, such as that OCB-I reflects altruism and courtesy and OCB-O comprises sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue (LePine et al., 2002). Similarly, McNeely and Meglino (1994) also proposed that OCBs can be distinguished by behaviors directed at individuals and behaviors directed at organizations. Research has found that these two targeted-based dimensions of OCB load on different factors and relate to different antecedents (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). Specifically, affect-driven factors (e.g., empathy, autonomy) have been found to be associated more with OCB-I, but not with OCB-O, whereas cognition-driven factors (e.g., reward equity, pay) have been found to correlate with OCB-O, but not with OCB-I. If your work contains more than four chapters, add additional template chapters to your template now before continuing.

2.2 Impression Management

2.2.1. Definition and Taxonomy of Impression Management

The current section reviews past IM literature, various conceptualizations of IM, and discusses the distinct dimensions of IM which have been put forth. Tedeschi and Melburg (1984) introduced a 2 x 2 typology which facilitates classification of various IM tactics (See

Table 1). According to this typology, IM tactics can be classified as assertive, defensive, tactical, or strategic. Assertive behaviors are those that the actor initiates when he or she perceives an opportunity to enhance their reputation and build up a positive image. Defensive behaviors are reactive responses aimed at avoiding negative evaluation by others, and are taken on in response to a threatening situation. Tactical behaviors represent behaviors with short-term objectives, whereas strategic behaviors have long-term objectives. Thus, IM tactics can be classified into one of four general categories (i.e., tactical/assertive, tactical/defensive, strategic/assertive, strategic/defensive), and most IM studies have focused on tactical-assertive behaviors, especially, ingratiation (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). The following section reviews the three most popular IM taxonomies that focus on tactical-assertive IM tactics.

Table 1. Classification of IM Tactics based on Tedeschi and Melburg (1984)

| | Tactical | Strategic |
|-----------|---|---|
| Assertive | Ingratiation, intimidation, self-promotion, exemplification, entitlements, enhancements | Behaviors aimed at developing desired reputational characteristics |
| Defensive | Apologies, accounts (excuses and justifications), disclaimers | Learned helpfulness, self-handicapping behaviors (e.g., alcoholism, drug abuse) |

Jones and his colleagues (Jones, 1964; Jones & Wortman, 1973) defined ingratiation behaviors as any attempt at upward influence, and discussed four types of ingratiation: other enhancement, opinion conformity, favor rendering, and self-presentation. Other enhancement involves accentuating positive attributes of, while ignoring negative attributes of, a target person in order to increase liking. Opinion conformity involves expressing opinions consistent with a target person, regardless of one's personal opinion. Favor rendering involves doing favors for the target person. Finally, self-presentation involves highlighting ones' own positive characteristics and accomplishments to convey a positive image of self to the target. Jones and others' early conception of ingratiation behavior defines this construct more broadly than later conceptions (i.e., Jones & Pittman, 1982; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) have. Later, Kumar and

Beyerlein (1991) developed an instrument to measure ingratiation, which defines ingratiation as “a set of assertive tactics that are used by organizational members to gain the approbation of superiors who control significant reward for them” (Kumar & Beyerlein, 1991: 619).

Jones and Pittman (1982) delineated five distinct IM behaviors and the mechanisms through which they were postulated to operate: ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication. They defined ingratiation as expressing views that conform to those of a target, doing favors for a target, and complementing a target with intention of achieving likability by the target person. Self-promotion is defined as making positive statements about oneself in order to enhance others’ perceptions of competence and mastery. For example, an employee might talk about his past accomplishments, abilities, and qualifications in order to make the target perceive him as more capable. Exemplification refers to engaging in behaviors aimed at projecting an image that one is hardworking, sincere, and morally worthy. For instance, an employee may pretend to work very hard in the presence of a supervisor in order to appear as a model employee. Intimidation refers to making threats or showing anger to create a perception that one is dangerous and tenacious. Finally, supplication refers to highlighting weakness and dependence on others in an effort to obtain help.

More recently, Wayne and Ferris (1990) suggested three IM tactics: job focused tactics, supervisor-focused tactics, and self-focused tactics. Job-focused tactics are defined as “behaviors and verbal statements related to an individual’s performance on his or her job” (p. 493). Individuals using job-focused IM tactics may manipulate information about their own job performance to convey a positive impression to superiors. For instance, employees may come to work before superiors and leave after them to create an impression of working long hours, or may share information about their own accomplishments in an effort to promote themselves. In contrast, supervisor-focused tactics refer to behaviors and verbal statements aimed directly at supervisors, such as praising them, talking about their personal lives, and doing favors for them. Finally, self-focused tactics are defined as “behaviors that are intended to create the impression

that the subordinate is a nice, polite person” (p. 493). Treating others with respect and acting like a model employee are typical examples of such self-focused tactics.

Despite the distinct terminology used in these different IM taxonomies, many elements are conceptually similar. Table 2 classifies the elements of each taxonomy, highlighting the overlapping aspects and attributions sought when using tactics. Negative attributions that can result from tactic use and emotions likely to be aroused in others as a result of tactic use also are included. As can be seen in Table 2, the behaviors that Jones and his colleagues (1964; 1973) labeled ingratiation are similar to what Wayne and Ferris (1990) labeled supervisor-focused tactics and what Jones and Pittmann (1982) labeled ingratiation. However, although supervisor-focused tactics (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) and ingratiation (Jones & Pittmann, 1982) share similar behaviors (i.e., other enhancement, opinion conformity, favor rendering), supervisor-focused tactics specify the target as the supervisor, whereas the target of ingratiation in Jones and Pittmann’s (1982) taxonomy can be peers or subordinates in addition to supervisors.

Reviewing Table 2 demonstrates that the various taxonomies also differ in their treatment of self-promotion. Self-promotion was originally conceptualized as a form of ingratiation by Jones (1964) and Jones and Wortman (1973). Later Jones and Pittman (1982) conceptualized it as enhancing perceptions of competence rather than liking, distinguishing it from ingratiation. Even though research supported the distinctive nature of these two tactics (Godfrey, Jones, & Lord, 1986), several empirical studies have treated self-promotion as a part of ingratiation (i.e., Gordon, 1996). Job-focused tactics (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) also have been treated as a form of self-promotion (Bolino & Turnley, 2006). Finally, exemplification and self-focused tactics (Wayne & Ferris, 1990) have been treated as parallel constructs as both consist of behaviors intended to present self as nice, friendly, and hardworking.

Although the conceptualizations of three tactics in the Jones and Pittman’s (1982) taxonomy (ingratiation, self-promotion, exemplification) are similar to those of the Wayne and

Table 2. Classification of IM Taxonomies and Mechanisms

| Jones & wortman (1973), Kumar & Beyerlein (1991) | Wayne and Ferris (1990) | Jones and Pittman (1982) | Attributions sought | Negative attributions risked | Emotion to be aroused |
|--|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|------------------------------|
| Other enhancement, opinion conformity, favor rendering, self-promotion | Supervisor-focused tactics | Ingratiation | Likable | sycophant, conformist, obsequious | affection |
| | Job-focused tactics | Self-promotion | Competent (effective, "a winner") | faudulent, conceited, defensive | fear |
| | Self-focused tactics | Exemplification | Worthy (suffers, dedicated) | hypocrite, sanctimonious, exploitative | respect (awe, deference) |
| | | Intimidation | Dangerous (ruthless, volatile) | blusterer, wishy washy, ineffectual | guilt (shame, emulation) |
| | | Supplicatoin | helpless (handicapped, unfortunate) | stigmatized, lazy, demanding | nurturance (obligation) |

Part of this table is directly cited from Jones and Pittman (1982).

Ferris's (1990) taxonomy (supervisor-focused, self-focused, job-focused), the current study draws exclusively from Jones and Pittman (1982) and focuses on only ingratiation and exemplification. Ingratiation and exemplification are chosen as the focal constructs for the current study because both involve presenting oneself in a favorably manner - specifically by engaging in behaviors that parallel those that are commonly defined as OCBs.

2.3 Construct Similarity between OCB and IM

2.3.1. Beneficial Behaviors in the Eyes of Target

Previous IM research suggests that employees actively engage in diverse IM tactics to enhance their image in an effort to receive higher performance ratings from their supervisors (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995). However, employees also may engage in IM tactics to build up an image that they are a good citizen (Ferris & Kacmar, 1988; Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006). Even though IM and OCB differ in the fundamental motives underlying them (Rioux & Penni, 2001), employees who display IM behaviors may, on the surface, appear to be the same as employees who display OCBs in the eyes of their supervisors (Bolino, 1999; Ferris et al., 1994). Following this line of reasoning, some researchers suggest that the link between IM and perceived OCB is more immediate and that supervisor perceptions of OCB mediate the connection of IM to supervisory performance evaluation (Bolino et al., 2006).

Similarly, other research has conceptualized OCB as an opportunistic behavior that is used for impression management to maximize self-interest (cf. Bolino, 1999; Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). That is, employees realize that OCBs are noticed by supervisors and they tend to exhibit OCBs when supervisors are present in order to enhance supervisor evaluations of their performance (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo, & Van Scotter, 1994). This view infers that employees engage in OCBs in order to enhance supervisor perceptions of them and achieve desired goals (i.e., receive a raise) (Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997). This attempt to look like a good citizen may be a good strategy for employees, given research has found that

supervisors give higher performance ratings to employees who they perceive to engage in OCBs (Allen & Rush, 1998; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Moreover, OCB evaluation accounts for larger portion of variance in overall supervisor performance evaluations than objective or task-related performance ratings (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

This line of research indicates that what is perceived by targets as OCB may reflect the actors' engagement in IM. Similarly, what is truly intended by the actor to be OCB also can be perceived as IM. Because behavioral descriptors of IM can be very similar to those used to describe OCBs, it is difficult to conceptually distinguish IM behaviors from OCBs (Bolino, 1999; Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al., 1994). This substantial similarity in the behavioral content of these two constructs also is reflected in measures of IM and OCB (Bolino & Turnley, 1999).

As such, a construct similarity perspective (e.g., Bolino, 1999; Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Bolino et al., 2006; Fandt & Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al., 1994) acknowledges the similarities between behaviors defined as IM and those defined as OCB. It suggests that IM tactics should correlate highly with OCB dimensions that are behaviorally similar to them. For example, IM behaviors (i.e., helping as reflected in ingratiation) that closely resemble citizenship behaviors (i.e., helping as reflected in altruism) should result in strong relationships between *that specific* IM behavior (ingratiation) and *that specific* OCB dimension (altruism). Because the same behavior (helping) can reflect either IM or OCB, what distinguishes these two constructs from each other is the underlying motive for the behavior. Although that motive is truly knowable only to the actor, attribution theory suggests that observers make attributions about the motives underlying the behavior of others from multiple observations of an actor's behavior (Heider, 1958). One factor that may be important in forming attributions about an actor either IM or OCB, is the distinguished beneficiary of the behavior. Literature exploring the target of behavior in organizations suggests that both impression management and citizenship behavior can be targeted at either individuals (coworkers, supervisors) or at the organization at large.

2.3.2. Intended Beneficiary-Based Conceptualization of IM and OCB Relations

One possible approach that can identify the behavioral similarity between IM tactics and OCB dimensions is to match them in terms of the target or “intended beneficiary” (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007) of the behaviors reflected in the IM or OCB. The OCB literature has acknowledged that employees perform different types of prosocial behaviors depending on the intended targets (cf., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Setton & Mossholder, 2002). Similarly, Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that Organ’s taxonomies can be categorized into OCB-I that is directed at individuals (i.e., supervisor, coworkers, subordinates) and OCB-O that is targeted at the organization.

Although IM behaviors are inherently communicative processes and relational (i.e., attempts to alter others’ image of self), tactics can be categorized into content-oriented messages and relational-oriented messages (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997). Bozeman and Kacmar (1997) classified self-promotion and exemplification as content-oriented tactics that focus on self-enhancement in front of managers and ingratiation, supplication, and intimidation as relational-oriented tactics that focus more on the relationship between the actor and target.

Ingratiation refers to expressing views that conform to those of a target, doing favors for a target, and complementing a target with the intention of being perceived as likable by the target person. Because this tactic includes direct helping behaviors, Ferris et al. (1994) argued that ingratiation is more behaviorally similar to OCBs than other IM tactics. However, Ferris et al. (1994) viewed OCBs as a single overarching construct rather than taking into account the different types of OCBs (i.e., OCB-I, OCB-O). Thus, they provide a more simplified view of the relationship between IM and OCB. On the other hand, the interpersonal communication framework of impression management (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997) suggests that ingratiation may be most strongly related to certain types of citizenship behaviors. More specifically, ingratiation is aimed at a specific target and focuses on interpersonal relationships and, therefore, it should be more positively and substantially correlated with relational-oriented

citizenship behaviors such as OCB-I (altruism and courtesy) than with organizationally-targeted behaviors. Typical ingratiation behaviors include favor rendering, flattering, and conforming to the opinions of others, and such behaviors directly resemble the content of altruism (helping others) and courtesy (helping someone else prevent occurrence of a problem). Thus, ingratiation is expected to exhibit a stronger relationship with OCB-I than with OCB-O.

Exemplification refers to engaging in behaviors to facilitate an impression of being hardworking, sincere, and morally worthy (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Typical examples of exemplification include staying at work late, arriving to work early, and coming to the office during non-work hours (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). An actor may attempt to display these behaviors in the presence of a supervisor in order to facilitate an impression that he has a good work ethic and is a model employee. However, the content of its behaviors is not interpersonal in nature. Instead, it is intended to create an image of dedication to work and the organization. Such behaviors resemble conscientiousness which is a form of OCB-O. Therefore, it should be more strongly related to OCB-O than OCB-I.

Hypothesis 1. Ingratiation will be more strongly related to OCB-I than to OCB-O.

Hypothesis 2. Exemplification will be more strongly related to OCB-O than to OCB-I.

2.4 Differentiating IM and OCB by Underlying Motives

2.4.1. Motivational Approach

The construct similarity perspective discussed above suggests that supervisor ratings of OCB may be influenced by a subordinates' engagement in IM, since the behaviors that comprise IM and OCB are often quite similar. Due to the conceptual difficulty distinguishing IM behaviors from citizenship behaviors, there has been another line of IM-OCB research that aims at assessing the motives underlying displayed OCBs. This approach stems from Penner, Midili, and Kegelmeyer (1997). They, drawing from need theories of motivation to suggest that individuals are motivated to conduct certain behaviors in order to fulfill specific needs (Maslow, 1954), and argued that OCB may be a proactive construct; that is, individuals engage in OCBs

because they want to satisfy certain needs or motives. In fact, the main difference between IM and OCB is the motivational intent to perform the behavior, since the actual behavior is often the same (Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Therefore, knowing if people are engaging in OCBs (as opposed to impression management), requires identification of the motives underlying behavior (Penner et al., 1997). Impression management theory suggests that when employees are strongly motivated for impression management, they are careful to avoid creating a negative image in the eyes of others (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990) and may use OCBs to impress influential individuals (Bolino, 1999). Accordingly, motivational analysis is important to understanding impression management and organizational citizenship behavior.

Along with this perspective, several studies were conducted to reveal people's motives for performing OCBs (i.e., Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Rioux and Penner (2001) developed measures to examine three potential motives for OCB: organizational concern motives, prosocial values motives, and impression management motives. Organizational concern motives entail a desire for the company to do well, as well as to show pride in, and be committed to the organization. Prosocial values motives represent a need to help and a desire to build positive relationships with others. Impression management motives reflect a desire to look good to coworkers and supervisors in order to obtain rewards (Rioux & Penner, 2001, p. 1307). Using these measures, they found that prosocial value motives and organizational concern motives were strongly associated with OCB-I and OCB-O, respectively, but impression management motives were not. Subsequent studies also reported the same findings (Finkelstein, 2006; Finkelstein & Penner, 2004).

On the other hand, Grant and Mayer (2009) challenged the assumption that prosocial motives and impression management motives are bipolar opposites. Instead, they argued that two constructs coexist (i.e., people can be motivated by both prosocial and impression management concerns; also Bolino, 1999), are independent (also De Dreu, 2006; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2006), and may interact with one another. In their study, they examined whether

those two motives (prosocial motive, IM motive) predicted engaging in OCBs. Interestingly, they did not replicate past findings that prosocial motives relate to OCB engagement (Rioux & Penner, 2001), but instead found that IM motives moderated the effects of prosocial motives on OCBs. Specifically, the relationship between prosocial motive and citizenship behaviors was stronger when impression management motives were also high.

The above studies were solely based on self-reported motives. However, the limitation of relying on self-reported motives to distinguish IMs and OCBs is that what the actor reports as his/her true motivational intent may differ from what observers perceive the actor's motives to be. In the context of performance evaluation, how the target of the beneficial behaviors perceive the behaviors is more critical than what the actor's intention actually is. It has been suggested that what determines whether a given behavior is interpreted as an OCB or an IM tactic is the observer's attribution regarding the underlying motive for the behavior (Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, & Judge, 1995). Performance evaluation is often influenced by attributions about the motives for observed behaviors (Allen & Rush, 1998; Feldman, 1981). Since OCBs are typically taken into consideration by supervisors in their more general evaluations of performance (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo, & Van Scotter, 1994), raters' attributions regarding the motives underlying ratee behaviors may be an important factor in determining performance evaluation and performance-based rewards (Ferris, King, Judge, & Kacmar, 1991). The current study uses attribution theory to form hypotheses regarding the conditions under which raters attribute observed behaviors to impression management motives or to prosocial motives

2.4.2. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory describes how people explain the causes for experienced or observed events. A basic assumption of attribution theory (Heider, 1958) is that people are actively involved in making inferences about the causes of observed events, including evaluation of motives, intentions, or dispositions of an observed person, and that these inferences about the motives underlying an actor's behavior determine how the perceiver responds to the target

person. Therefore, attribution theory speaks to how beliefs about the causes of others' actions are formed and how these beliefs influence subsequent actions. Based on Heider's (1958) initial ideas about attributions, a plethora of attribution theories have emerged in the literature (e.g., Jones & Davis, 1965; Jones & Nisbett, 1972; Kelley, 1967; Weiner, 1985, 1986). Attribution theories can be classified as either self-attribution focused theories or other-attribution focused theories (Martinko, 1995). Self-attribution theories focus on the way individuals explain their own behavior and the consequences of those explanations. Other-attribution theories focus on how individuals explain the causes of other people's behavior. Since the interest of this study is to explore the conditions under which individuals make particular attributions about the motives behind others' behaviors, the other-attribution perspective is the theoretical framework used.

A key other-attribution theory is Kelly's (1967, 1973) covariation model. The main principle of this model is "An effect is attributed to one of its possible causes with which, over time, it covaries (Kelly, 1973: 108)." In other words, attributions can be made only when the observer has information from multiple observations because multiple observations create covariation between observed events and possible causes. According to Kelly (1973), multiple observations can generate three types of information that observers will eventually draw upon to make attributions. These three information types are consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus.

Consistency reflects the extent to which the observed person behaves the same way across differing times. Distinctiveness is the extent to which the observed person behaves the same way across different situations. Consensus is the degree to which other people in the same situation behave the same way. Kelly (1973) argued that this framework could be used to predict whether an observed action is attributed to factors internal to the actor (e.g., intelligence, effort) or is attributed to external or situational reasons that are outside of the individuals' control (e.g., task difficulty, luck). More specifically, she proposed that when there is high consistency,

low distinctiveness, or low consensus, people make internal attributions, and when consistency is low, distinctiveness is high, or consensus is high, external attributions will be made.

There are a variety of behaviors that may be interpreted as either prosocial or self-serving. This has spawned discussion in the literatures on IM and OCB about the fact that the same behavior may be a manifestation of either IM or OCB (Bolino, 1999). For example, an individual may work extremely hard, stay late at work, and have only high quality work output. This behavior can be defined as either exemplification or conscientiousness. If the individual engages in this behavior with the intent of making a favorable impression on others, then it is, by definition, exemplification. On the other hand, if the person engages in this behavior because he/she feels it is the right thing to do or wants to benefit the organization, this is, by definition, conscientiousness. Similarly, if an individual willingly performs personal favors for his/her supervisor with the motive to make the supervisor's job easier and does the same to the other employees, this is defined as altruism. However, if he/she does favors for the supervisor so that the supervisor will see him/her as likable and reward him/her, and fails to be helpful to coworkers who do not have the power to reward him/her, this is considered ingratiation. The important point here is that observers will make decisions about how they define a particular behavior based on what they believe is the actor's underlying motive. Because the underlying motive is not clearly knowable to anyone other than the actor, attribution theory explains how observers use multiple observations to form beliefs about the underlying reasons for actor behavior.

Kelly's (1967) paradigm has been adapted by Eastman (1994) to explain when supervisors believe subordinate helping behaviors have self-serving motives and when they have prosocial motives. Eastman (1994) proposed that supervisors' attributions about subordinate behavior are based on the consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus of behaviors that are observed during performance evaluation. For example, distinctiveness of an

employee's behavior may refer to whether that employee displays certain behaviors only targeted at the supervisor or also displays such behaviors targeted at peers.

Because employees realize that beneficial behavior is noticed by supervisors and influences their performance evaluations (Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo, & Van Scotter, 1994), employees with impression management motives might engage in helpful behaviors targeted at supervisors but not at coworkers (high distinctiveness). Also, employees with impression management motives also should be more likely to engage in helpful behaviors more frequently around performance appraisal time, which may quickly disappear after this period (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000) (low consistency). Moreover, if an employee exhibits a particular behavior that other employees do not (low consensus), the evaluator also may perceive this as having an impression management motives (Eastman, 1994). Accordingly, Eastman (1994) hypothesized that, when observed behaviors have low consistency, high distinctiveness, or low consensus, supervisors will perceive this behavior as opportunistic and self-serving rather than prosocial. On the other hand, the same behaviors will be perceived as sincere OCBs when multiple observations of behavior exhibit high consistency, low distinctiveness, or high consensus.

Eastman's (1994) study used an experimental design to test the effect of Kelly's three information cues on raters' attributions and how these attributions influence performance evaluation. He manipulated information cues by describing different employee behavior in vignettes and had students act as supervisors to evaluate the underlying motives for each employee and his/her performance. However, information cues did not always influence supervisors' attributions as expected. Of the three information cues, consistency and distinctiveness did not predict attributions about the underlying motives as expected. Instead, only consensus was found to significantly influence supervisors' attribution. As expected, employees were more likely to be labeled as impression managers when consensus was low – that is, when other employees did not behave in a similar fashion. However, supervisors

allocated more rewards to employees whose behavior were attributed to good citizenship as opposed to ingratiation, suggesting the importance of continuing to study this phenomenon. In addition to Eastman (1994), several other researchers (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Johnson et al., 2002) found that supervisors' attributions of employee behavior as prosocial were positively associated with supervisor performance evaluations.

2.4.3. Coworker Perspective and Evaluations

Since impression management is typically used by lower-status agents to influence higher-status targets to obtain benefits (Leary & Kowalski, 1990), an employee's intentional use of impression management tactics should occur in the presence of targets with reward power (i.e., supervisors). Accordingly, information supervisors possess regarding their own subordinates is heavily dependent on what their subordinates display during observation (Wood & Mitchell, 1981). Because employees may present themselves as good employees only when their supervisors are around, supervisor impressions of their employees may be less accurate than those of coworkers, who have the opportunity to observe the actor's behavior when the supervisor both is and is not around. In support of this, the performance evaluation literature has found that supervisor evaluations tend to be biased due to limited opportunity to observe the full range of employee behavior (McCall, Morrison, & Hannan, 1978). Similarly, the IM literature also has suggested that ingratiation may not be detected as such by supervisors and thus, may enhance supervisor performance evaluation (Liden & Mitchell, 1988).

Considering an observer's perception of an actor is determined by both the interactions with and observations of that actor (Yammarino & Atwater, 1993), peers may have more opportunities to observe a focal coworker behaving differently with different targets (i.e., supervisor and coworkers) than do supervisors. While the supervisor is likely to be the primary target of impression management activity, beneficial behavior targeted at people other than the supervisor (i.e., coworkers, subordinates) is more likely to reflect genuine citizenship activities (Allen, Rush, & Russell, 2000; Lee & Allen, 2002; Moorman, 1991). Therefore, unlike

supervisors, coworkers are less likely to be “fooled” by impression management tactics because employees with impression management motives may be lax in their use IM tactics when the supervisor is not around. Also, the IM literature argues that targets (i.e., supervisors) tend to accept ingratiating behaviors without doubt but observers (i.e., coworkers) are likely to view such behaviors critically because they do not personally benefit from them (Vonk, 2002). Thus, peers may be more accurate judges of the motives underlying beneficial behavior than are supervisors. In support of this, studies of impression management have reported that observers are better than targets at identifying the sincerity of behaviors exhibited by the actor (Risen & Gilovich, 2007; Vonk, 2002). Accordingly, the current study proposes to use coworker ratings of employee behavior rather than supervisor ratings.

This study also attempts to explain the conditions under which attributions of citizenship behavior versus impression management are made. Although previous studies examined the relationship between supervisors’ motivational attributions regarding employee behavior and more general performance evaluations, with the exception of Eastman (1995), past studies did not explore how these attributions are formed. Unfortunately, Eastman (1994) did not support hypotheses around two of the attribution cues. However, his study might have failed to find supportive results because it was laboratory research conducted in an artificial environment. The use of paper people has been criticized because it reflects an unrealistic situation which may not trigger the same responses that dealing with actual people at work triggers (Tulving, 1983). In a real performance evaluation process, much is determined by the raters’ ability to observe and recall information about the ratee (Ilgen & Feldman, 1983). As discussed above, what supervisors know and observe about employees reflects what employees allow them to observe. Therefore, evaluation of paper people is likely to represent how much the subject understands and remembers from the reading instead of an actual evaluation based on experience (Tulving, 1983). Thus, this study uses a field setting to tap into actual observation of real coworkers.

2.4.4. Coworker's Attribution of Motives Underlying Beneficial Behaviors

Following Eastman (1994), this study also proposes that coworkers attribute observed beneficial behaviors to self-serving or prosocial motives by using information cues such as distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus. In the current study, only distinctiveness and consistency are explored as cues in the attribution process. Distinctiveness is determined by comparing the frequency with which employees exhibit beneficial behavior toward different targets. Consistency is determined by observing the frequency of behavior across distinct situations. Figure 1 presents how the congruence (i.e., similarity of frequencies) of ingratiation with differing targets (i.e., supervisor, coworkers) leads to differing distinctiveness, and how the congruence of exemplification with differing targets (i.e., in presence of supervisor, in absence of supervisor) is related to consistency.

It is proposed that coworkers who observe the same behavior directed at different targets will attribute beneficial behaviors to prosocial motives. In contrast, beneficial behaviors will be labeled self-serving when the ratee performs these behaviors more frequently toward a supervisor than toward coworkers in general (high distinctiveness). Coworkers who observe the same behavior consistently both when the supervisor is and is not present will attribute those behaviors to prosocial motives. In contrast, coworkers will conclude that perceived beneficial behaviors are self-serving when such behaviors are performed more frequently when the supervisor is present than when the supervisor is absent (low consistency). Figure 2 provides a two-dimensional presentation that visually delineates the below hypotheses.

This study explores two specific beneficial behaviors - (1) those targeted at individuals (ingratiation or OCB-I) and (2) those targeted at the organization (exemplification or OCB-O). These specific behaviors are chosen because both can be used by the actors for impression management purposes and also can be exhibited for genuine prosocial reasons.

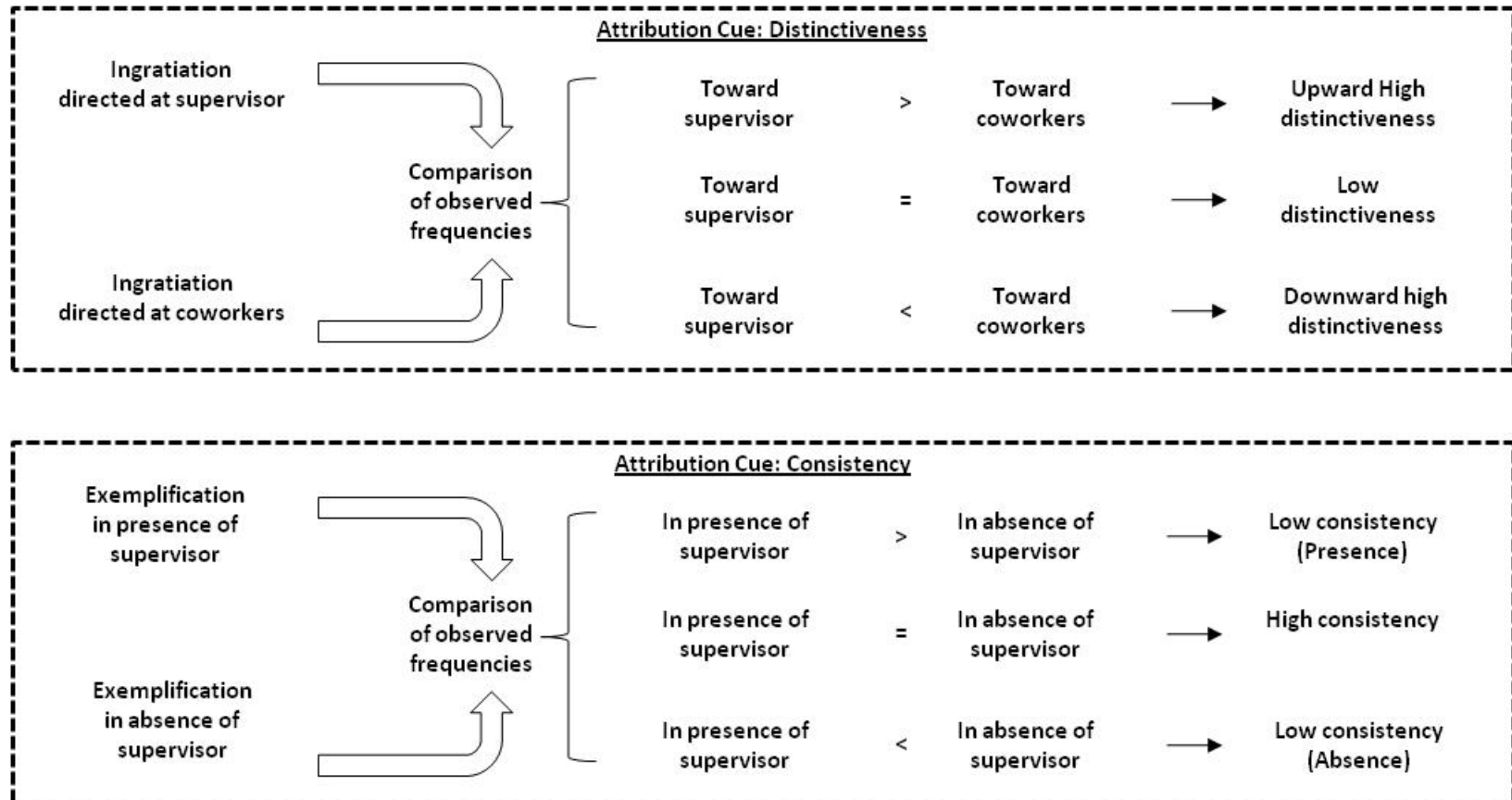


Figure 1. Hypothesized Model of Motive Attribution Process

Hypothesis 3: Coworkers will attribute beneficial behaviors targeted at an individual to self-serving motives if they perceive that those behaviors are performed toward a supervisor more frequently than toward coworkers (upward high distinctiveness).

Hypothesis 4: They will attribute beneficial behavior targeted at an individual to prosocial motives if they perceive that those behaviors are performed toward both the supervisor and coworkers with the same frequency (low distinctiveness).

Hypothesis 5: Coworkers will attribute beneficial behavior targeted at an individual to prosocial motives if they perceive that those behaviors are performed more frequently toward coworkers than supervisor (downward high distinctiveness).

Hypothesis 6: Coworkers will attribute perceived beneficial behaviors targeted at the organization to self-serving motives if they perceive that those behaviors are performed more frequently when the supervisor is present and less frequently when the supervisor is absent (low consistency - Presence).

Hypothesis 7: Coworkers will attribute beneficial behaviors targeted at the organization to prosocial motives if they perceive that those behaviors are performed with similar frequency both when the supervisor is present and absent (high consistency).

Hypothesis 8: Coworkers will attribute beneficial behaviors targeted at the organization to prosocial motives if they perceive that those behaviors are performed higher frequency when the supervisor is not present (low consistency – Absence).

In sum, the current study expands on Eastman (1994) and other research in several ways. Like past studies, this study uses attribution theory to explain when behavior is interpreted as self-serving or prosocial. However, although previous studies began to explore this idea, they explored it more out of an OCB framework than an IM framework (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Eastman, 1994; Grant et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2002; Tepper et al., 2008). In contrast, the current study attempts to draw equally from both IM and OCB frameworks and use measurement from both domains. In addition, past studies mainly focused on supervisors'

evaluations. This is a limitation because supervisors, as compared to coworkers, may be less able to make reasonably accurate judgments about employee behavior and the underlying motivations for it. Accordingly, the current study focuses on coworker evaluations of employee behavior. Finally, although Eastman's (1994) study took an important first step in exploring the factors that influence when behavior might be classified as self-serving or prosocial, it was an experimental design conducted in an artificial lab environment. The current study uses a field study which captures coworkers' observations of employee behavior and the attributions coworkers form based on them.

2.5 Hypothesized Model: IM, OCB, Motive Attribution, Affective and Cognitive Responses

The hypothesized model (Figure 2) suggests that coworker evaluation of a peer's organizational citizenship behavior affects their affective responses (i.e., liking, interpersonal trust) to that person which, in turn, influence cognitive responses (i.e., performance evaluation and coworker preference). In addition, a critical component of this model is the attribution the observer makes for the motive underlying actor's OCBs. Specifically, the relationship between coworkers' perception of the level of beneficial behavior an individual engages in and affective responses is moderated by the attribution about the underlying motives for that behavior.

2.5.1. Beneficial Behaviors: IM and OCB

Based on the previous discussion, there is evidence that both impression management and organizational citizenship behaviors should relate to affective responses of coworkers and their distal evaluation of work-related outcomes. However, the dotted-lined box surrounding the constructs of ingratiation/OCB-I and exemplification/OCB-O highlights the difficulty observers might have in distinguishing IM from OCB given their inability to know the motive underlying the behavior. In this box, ingratiation is conceptualized as directly related to OCB-I and exemplification is directly related to OCB-O, following the target-based relationship perspective. Meanwhile, a multifoci approach to the study of OCB (e.g., Lavelle et al., 2009; Skarlicki & Latham, 1996; Williams & Anderson, 1991) suggests that the relationship between predictors of

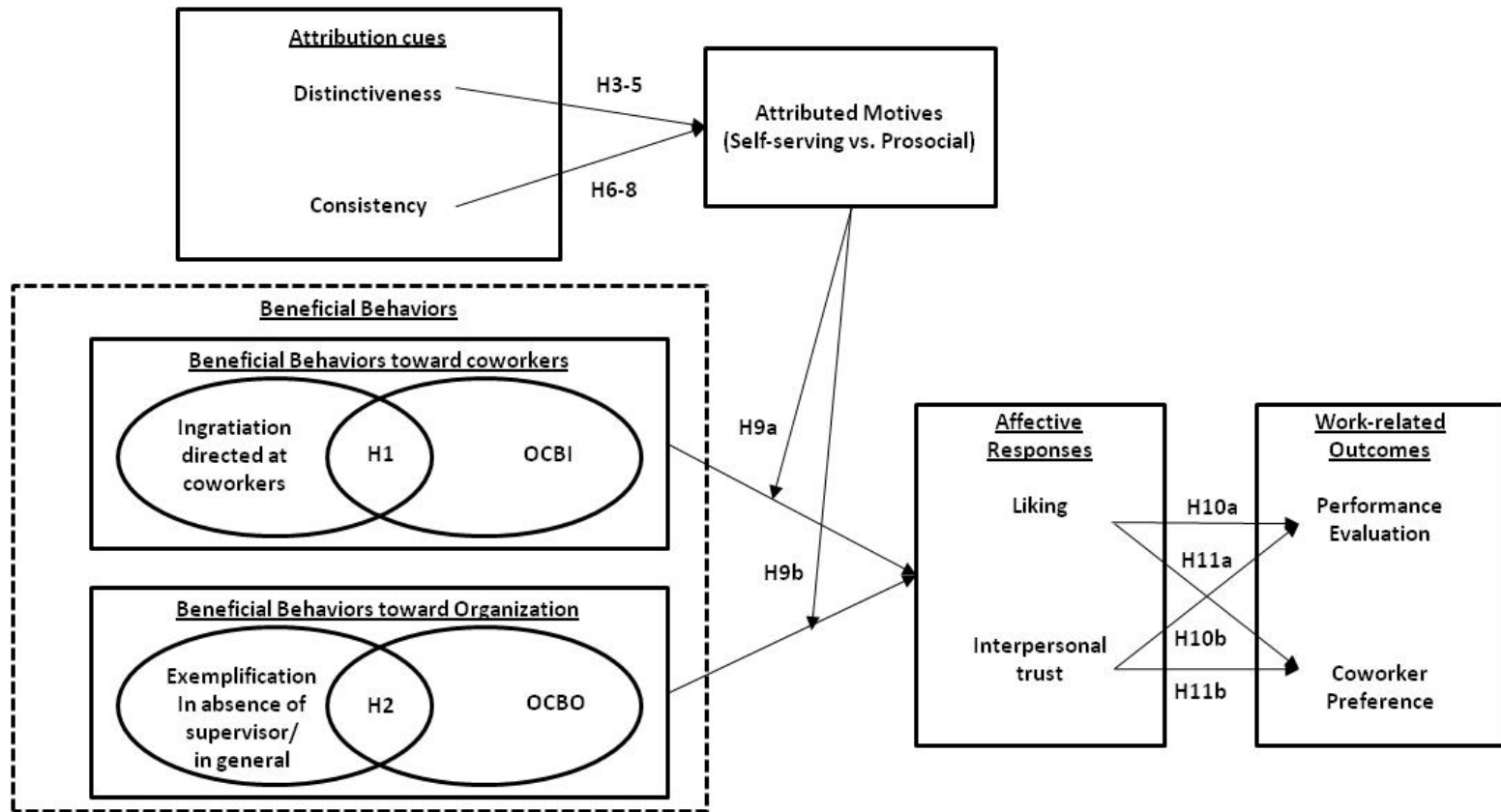


Figure 2. A Proposed Model of Peer Evaluation of a Coworker's IM, OCB, and Performance

OCB and OCB constructs should be stronger when the predictor and criterion reflect the same target (i.e., supervisor, coworkers). Therefore, in this model, ingratiation targeted at coworkers is assumed to be related to OCB-I, and exemplification in absence of a supervisor is expected to be related to OCB-O. Ingratiation directed at supervisors and exemplification displayed in the presence of supervisors are considered as contextual information that the coworkers utilize to form motive attribution.

2.5.2. Liking

Supervisors are likely to have favorable affective responses toward a subordinate's beneficial behavior. Findings from both the OCB and IM literature support this. Recent studies of OCB have demonstrated that supervisors like employees better when they engage in OCBs (Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2002). Many IM studies also have found that employees who use IM tactics are perceived as more likable by their supervisors (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991; Wayne & Liden, 1995). IM researchers argue that because employees deliver their liking and admiration for supervisors through opinion conformity, communication of admiration, and doing favors, supervisors experience being liked and respected and thus, exhibit more positive affect toward these employees.

In some cases reactions to observing OCBs may be similar for coworkers. Even though most earlier studies of organizational-focused beneficial behavior focused on supervisors' perspectives (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2002), the multi-source literature suggests that coworkers also should form affective responses to beneficial behaviors (Bates, 2000). When coworkers are the target of OCBs, the phenomenon should operate in a manner similar to supervisors such that coworker liking of the actor is enhanced when the coworker is the target of beneficial behavior. In support of this, Gordon (1996) demonstrated that lateral ingratiation increased liking more than upward ingratiation. Therefore, employees who exhibit beneficial behaviors which are targeted at coworkers should

create positive feelings in these coworkers, resulting in coworkers having more positive affect toward them. On the other hand, coworkers may perceive OCBs targeted at supervisors as ingratiation which does not benefit them. The IM literature has argued that targets may accept ingratiating behaviors without doubt but observers are likely to view such behaviors critically because they do not benefit from them (Vonk, 2002). Thus, when OCBs are targeted at supervisors rather than coworkers, this might decrease rather than increase coworkers liking if such behaviors are perceived as self-serving.

2.5.3. Interpersonal Trust

Prior research also suggests that people decide whether another person is trustworthy by observing and diagnosing that person's behavior (Ferrin, Dirks, & Shah, 2006). Behaviors are perceived as trustworthy if they are seen as voluntary rather than formally required or sanctioned because people believe voluntary behavior represents the internal character and motives of the person (Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002). In addition, more cooperative coworkers are perceived as more trustworthy (Butler, 1995). Thus, OCBs that are perceived as prosocial would be expected to enhance the reputation of the actor as trustworthy. In support of this, McAllister (1995) found that employees had high levels of trust in peers who performed altruistic behaviors. In addition to being the direct recipient of prosocial behavior, perceptions of being trustworthy also can be achieved through third party observation as long as the behavior is perceived as genuinely prosocial.

2.5.4. Attribution of Motive as a Moderator

The attribution formed about why an actor engages in beneficial behaviors is expected to play a critical role in determining whether coworker affective responses are positive or negative. Helping others can be perceived as positive behavior in the eyes of others, but the impression management literature also suggests that such behavior may sometimes be perceived as suspect. For example, Eastman (1994) found that raters presented with the same behavior sometimes labeled the motives for these behaviors as altruistic and other times

labeled them as instrumental. Furthermore, recent research (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1996; Eastman, 1994; Ferris et al., 1991; Gordon, 1996; Johnson et al., 2002; Nguyen, Seer, & Hartman, 2008; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Tepper et al., 2004) has found that attributions about the underlying motive for behavior influence the effects of OCB on rater evaluation.

The research on OCB suggests that since organizational citizenship behaviors are voluntary and prosocial by nature (Organ, 1990) and people respond positively to others with prosocial motives (Allen & Rush, 1998), raters are likely to respond positively to behaviors they consider prosocial, but devalue behaviors they consider self-serving (Podsakoff et al., 1993). Similarly, the IM literature also supports these ideas. For instance, individuals normally have negative attitudes toward and dislike people they see as ingratiators (Gurevitch, 1985; Jones & Wortman, 1973). Thus, when raters perceive an employee's OCBs as having prosocial motives, they should like and trust this person more, but when they perceive this behavior as having self-serving, impression management motives, they should like and trust this person less.

Despite the fact that both the impression management and OCB literature support such a view, past research has not explored the important influence attributions about motives can have on the affective responses to observing coworkers engaging in OCBs. Instead, most empirical studies have focused on supervisors' evaluation of performance and decisions about reward allocation. For example, Eastman (1994) asked subjects to act as supervisors and decide the amount of reward that should be allocated to subordinates based on their behavior described in the vignettes. Results showed that when subordinates were perceived as engaging in ingratiation they received lower bonuses than when they were labeled as engaging in genuine OCBs. Allen and Rush (1996) found that raters exhibited higher liking and evaluated others as better performers when they attributed their behavior to altruistic motives. Similarly, Johnson et al. (2002) found that raters allocated more rewards to ratees whose behavior they viewed as sincere.

Despite the theoretical support for this position, only a few studies have explored coworker attributions about motives for behavior as a moderator of the relationship between OCBs and affective responses (e.g., liking, trust). Nguyen et al. (2008) conducted a study with a sample of students and tested whether motives perceived by the teammates moderated the relationship between impression management behaviors (i.e., ingratiation, self-promotion) and liking. Students were grouped into teams, assigned a team project, and asked to evaluate other teammates on IM, OCB, the perceived motives underlying behaviors, and liking. Although motive was not found to be a moderator, perceived motive was directly related to liking, such that those perceived to have sincere motives were liked more than those perceived to have insincere motives.

On the other hand, in a field study of actual employees, Tepper et al. (2004) found that coworkers had more positive job attitudes when their coworkers performed high levels of OCB and these behaviors were attributed to prosocial motives. In contrast, when the coworkers' citizenship behaviors were attributed to self-serving motives, job satisfaction decreased as OCBs increased. Indeed, Tepper et al. (2002)'s study is supportive of the moderating role of motives in the relationship between OCBs and affective responses. Inconsistent findings in past studies may be due to the different study settings (school vs. work place), samples (students vs. employees), or the different scales used to assess attributed motives.

Further support for the moderating role of perceived motives can be found in the IM literature. Jones and Wortman (1973) argued that the effect of ingratiation will not always be positive. Specifically, they suggest that transparency, or the degree to which ingratiation is perceived as ingratiation by the target, has an important influence on how it is perceived. That is, when behavior is perceived as ingratiation, it can have a negative effect on affective responses and evaluations of performance. In contrast, if an actor engages in very low levels of ingratiation that go un-noticed, it should have no effect at all on affect. For this reason, it has been suggested that the effect of ingratiation will be maximized at moderate levels – since at

very high levels ingratiation is more transparent and thus, leads to negative reactions, and at low levels is it inconsequential. This proposition was empirically supported by a meta-analysis conducted by Gordon (1996). Another interpretation of this proposition is that when a target perceives beneficial behaviors as having impression management intentions or self-serving motives, he or she will negatively respond to it, but if behaviors are perceived as prosocial and labeled with no suspicion, the target's response will be positive.

However, the majority of studies used in this meta-analysis were experiments. As discussed previously, experimental studies lack true interactions among supervisors, actors, and coworkers. In a real workplace, coworkers can observe impression management targeted at a supervisor and also be direct recipients of impression management. For instance, Nguyen et al. (2008) explored peers' responses in student teams without supervisors. The same behaviors that were considered pleasant in student teams may be perceived differently when a supervisor might observe team and individual behavior. Therefore, ignoring one of these positions (i.e., coworker as a recipient of IM and as an observer of IM toward supervisors) in a study may result in limited understanding of the relations between IM, OCB, and underlying motives perceived by coworkers. Therefore, further examination of the moderating effects of motives on the relationship between OCBs and affective outcomes using employees of real organizations is warranted.

Hypothesis 9a: Coworker's attribution of motives underlying beneficial behaviors toward coworkers will moderate the relationships between the frequency of OCBs and affective responses (liking, interpersonal trust). The relationship between beneficial behaviors toward coworkers and affective responses will be positive when the motive is believed to be prosocial and negative when the motive is believed to be self-serving.

Hypothesis 9b: Coworker's attribution of motives underlying beneficial behaviors toward organization will moderate the relationships between the frequency of OCBs and affective responses (liking, interpersonal trust). The relationship between beneficial behaviors toward

organization and affective responses will be positive when the motive is believed to be prosocial and negative when the motive is believed to be self-serving.

2.5.5. Affective Responses to Performance Evaluation

Even though performance evaluation is conceptualized as a cognitive process, performance evaluation also is influenced by affect toward the employee in addition to cognitive information (Zajonc, 1980). Cognitive information processing theory acknowledges the effect of non-cognitive factors such as affect, attitude, and emotions, in the performance appraisal process (Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; DeNish & Williams, 1988; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983). This line of research argues that positive affect influences a rater's observation and storage of behaviors in memory as well as its retrieval. Therefore, liking leads raters to recall more positive information regarding performance-related behaviors, generalizing positive judgments to all cases. Many studies have found that when a supervisor has more positive affect (i.e., liking) toward a subordinate, the supervisor evaluates that subordinate more positively and allocates more rewards (Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino et al., 2006; Cardy & Dobbins, 1994; Johnson et al., 2002; Judge & Ferris, 1993; Tsui & Barry, 1986; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

While most research findings were based on supervisor ratings, there have been limited efforts to examine how affective responses influence performance evaluation by other raters such as coworkers. However, research on multisource ratings in performance appraisal reported lower inter-rater reliabilities among different rating sources (Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1996), suggesting the importance of distinct perspectives. Coworkers may have close interpersonal relationships with each other, resulting in significant affect toward each other. Cognitive information processing theory suggests that affect should influence coworker evaluation in the same way as supervisor evaluations by influencing retrieval of more favorable information in the performance appraisal process when affect is positive (Cardy & Dobbins,

1994; DeNish & Williams, 1988; Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983). Accordingly, liking should lead to more favorable performance evaluation by coworkers.

Since interpersonal trust reflects the affective bonds between individuals (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985), trust is expected to influence performance judgments as does liking. Several studies have reported that trustworthiness-related constructs (e.g., ratee dependability, ratee conscientiousness) are significant correlates of positive performance evaluation (Borman, White, Pulakos, & Oppler, 1991; Gilbert & Whiteside, 1988; Barrick, Mount, & Strauss, 1993). Although trust and liking are related (Nicholson, Compeau, & Sethi, 2001) trust may have a unique relationship with performance evaluation as well. For instance, Borman, White, and Dorsey (1995) found that trustworthiness significantly positively affected peer performance evaluation while ratee friendliness and likability had little association with it.

Hypothesis 10a: Liking will positively related to evaluations of performance.

Hypothesis 10b: Interpersonal trust will positively related to evaluations of performance.

2.5.6. Affective Responses to Coworker Preference

As team-focused activities are increasingly common in today's organizations, employees are required to interact more with other members in their task environment to share resources to achieve collective goals, and, therefore, employees are increasingly interdependent (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Thompson, 1967). Acknowledging this, group research argues that individual attitudes and behaviors are profoundly influenced by relations with others (Kidwell, Mossholder, & Bennett, 1997). In the current study, coworker preference is defined as a desire to work with the target coworker in a collaborative fashion on a task. However, others also have defined it as the extent to which an employee enjoys working with a particular coworker, or is attracted to that person in a work setting (Burnett, 2004). Due to its attraction foundation, in some cases, coworker preference is considered a positive attitude toward or liking of a coworker (Byrne, 1961). However, the current study conceptualizes coworker preference as having implications for performance-related interpersonal interactions

(i.e., preference for collaboration which may be based in coworker competence and perceptions of dependability in addition to liking) in the organization and thus, explores it as a vital work-related outcome.

There has been little empirical research on coworker preference (Burnett, 2004). However, understanding of coworker preference can be drawn from literature on groups. Studies have found that group cohesiveness is related to enhanced group performance processes that include planning, coordination, communication, and information change (e.g., Lott & Lott, 1961; Zaccaro, 1991). Related to this, Kidwell et al. (1997) reported that group cohesiveness increases group members' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors. This suggests that good relationships among team members may facilitate task activities to flow nicely. Even though these findings are at the group level, it is expected that the same positive effect of good group relations should occur within a dyad as well. Thus, having good interpersonal relations with a coworker may have important implications for organization performance. Employees should be more willing to cooperate and engage in behaviors which facilitate the performance of coworkers they prefer as opposed to those they do not prefer.

Past research has found that people are likely to assess the trustworthiness of coworkers based on knowledge they have gained through past interactions (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985) and that this assessment of trustworthiness is crucial in determining their willingness to work with this person (Jones & George, 1998). Similarly, Kiffin-Peterson and Cordery (2003) found that employees who have high trust in coworkers prefer to work in teams with them. Glaman, Jones, and Rozelle (1996) found that that liking and coworker preference were highly correlated, and this relationship increased and became stronger over time. Taken together, these findings suggest positive affective responses to coworkers should be related to increased coworker preference to work together in the future.

Hypothesis 11a: *Liking will be positively related to coworker preference.*

Hypothesis 11b: *Interpersonal trust will be positively related to coworker preference.*

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Procedure

The data were collected from respondents who were working for companies in the southwest United States. A total of 243 graduate students enrolled in part time evening graduate programs who were working adults were recruited to complete an online survey and to report their biographical information and provide their coworkers' names and email addresses. Ninety nine graduate students among those reported their coworkers' contact information. Links to complete these online surveys were sent by the principal researcher to these coworkers who were asked to evaluate the focal employee (i.e., the graduate student). Coworkers entered a code number that represented the focal employee to be evaluated, and the order of survey items was randomized to minimize response bias.

A total of 309 coworkers were contacted and 245 responses were obtained, yielding a response rate of 79.29%. However, responses with missing data greater than 20% were removed. As a result, 222 (72%) valid responses were used in the current study ($N=222$). These coworker responses were clustered around 90 focal employees (number of groups = 90), which indicated that on average each focal employee was evaluated by 2.47 coworkers. Coworkers were 51% female with an average age of 36.17 years ($SD=10.77$). Most were Caucasian (66%) followed by Hispanic (10%), African-American (10%), and Asian (10%). Forty five per cent had an undergraduate degree, 19% had some college, 7% had a technical (two-year) degree, 23% held a Master's degree, and 2% had a Doctorate or Professional degree (Ph.D., M.D., J.D.). On average subjects worked 43 hours per week ($SD=8.28$), were employed with their organization for 6 years ($SD=6.78$), and had 14 years ($SD=13.22$) of work experience. Eighty nine percent were full time permanent workers. As for job type, 43% worked in

professional positions, 20% worked in managerial positions, 13% were in clerical/administrative positions, and the remaining worked in other jobs such as sales, technicians, and transportation operatives. With respect to industry, 25% worked in service, 25% in manufacturing, 16% in transportation, 16% in finance/insurance or real estate, 5% in public administration, 4% in retail, 5% in construction, and 44% in other.

3.2 Measures

3.2.1. Impression Management Tactics

In order to measure attribution cues such as distinctiveness and consistency, items reflecting ingratiation and exemplification were adapted from Bolino and Turnley (1999). The original scales were developed to measure self-reported impression management behaviors. In order to measure observation of focal employees' behaviors, the subject "I" was replaced with "this coworker." Original items also were modified to remove the inferred motives for the behaviors which clearly defined the item as motivated by impression management (rather than OCB). The examples of these inferred intentions are "to show ... that I am friendly," "so ... will consider me as a nice person." These inferred intentions state the motive underlying the behavior, and because the goal in the current study was to explore how such motives are inferred by observers, the motives were removed so that we could examine what inferences participants made about underlying motives.

Ingratiation is often supervisor-focused (e.g., Wayne & Liden, 1995) but Bolino and Turnley's (1999) scale assesses ingratiation toward others in general. In the current study the word "others" was replaced with "supervisor" in order to measure supervisor-focused ingratiation, and replaced with "coworkers" to measure coworker-focused ingratiation. Items for exemplification were modified to reflect two conditions: (1) "when the supervisor is present" and (2) "when the supervisor is absent" to capture variability in employee behavior in the presence and absence of the supervisor. For instance, an original ingratiation item "I take an interest in my colleagues' personal lives to show them that I am friendly" was modified into "This coworker

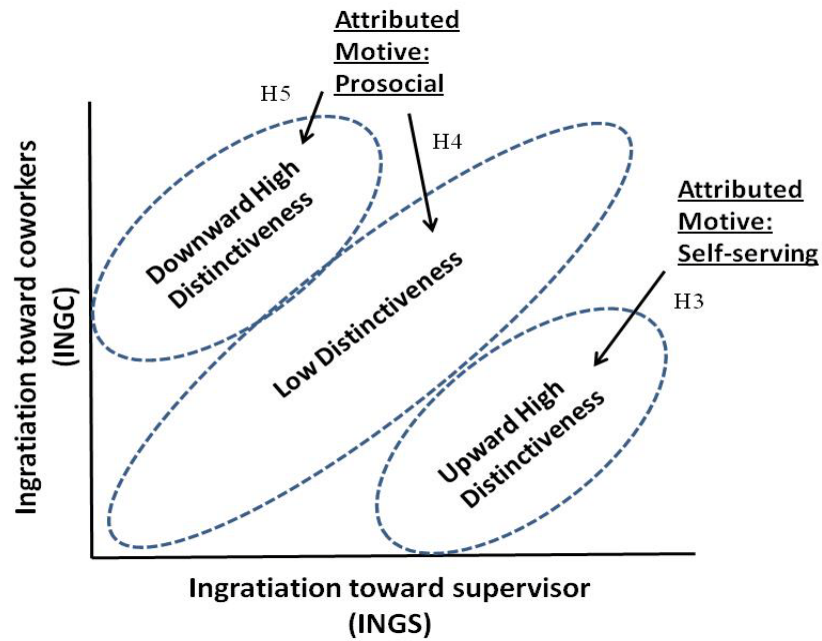
takes an interest in *his/her supervisor's* personal life" (supervisor-focused ingratiation) and "This coworker takes an interest in *coworkers'* personal lives" (coworker-focused ingratiation). An exemplification item was modified by changing "I try to appear like a hard-working, dedicated employee" to "This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee *when the supervisor is around*" (exemplification in the presence of the supervisor) and "This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is *not* around" (exemplification in the absence of the supervisor). All items asked respondents to report how frequently their focal employee engaged in each behavior on a 7-point likert scale ranging from never (1) to always (7). Distinctiveness was measured by the congruence between frequencies of ingratiation behavior targeted at supervisor and coworkers. Consistency was assessed by the congruence between the frequencies of two forms of exemplification (when supervisor is present, when supervisor is absent). Figure 3 presents the variations in ingratiation congruence and exemplification congruence along with what motives are hypothesized in which condition. Cronbach alphas were .90, .87, .91, and .87 for ingratiation toward supervisor (INGS), ingratiation toward coworkers (INGC), exemplification in presence of supervisor (EXEP), and exemplification in absence of supervisor (EXEA), respectively.

3.2.2. *Organizational Citizenship Behavior*

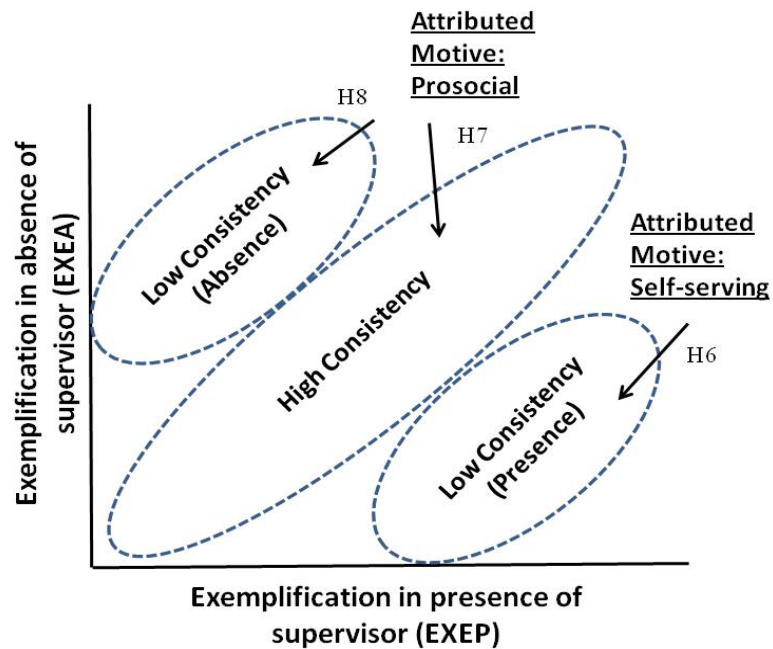
The focal employees' citizenship behaviors were measured using Lee and Allen's (2002) 16-item scale. This scale is comprised of two subscales – OCB-I and OCB-O and each subscale consists of 8 items. Participants were asked to indicate how often they observed the focal employee engage in the behaviors depicted in the statement using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = never to 7 = always). Reliability was .92 for OCB-I and .94 for OCB-O.

3.2.3. *Attributed Motives for OCB-I and OCB-O*

The scale for attributed motive was adapted from Tepper et al. (2004). Respondents were asked to indicate why the focal employee performed specific behaviors on a 7-point



A



B

Figure 3. Two Dimensional Display of the Relationship between Information Cues and Attributed Motives: A. Distinctiveness and Attributed Motives toward OCB-I (MOCBI), B. Consistency and Attributed Motives toward OCB-O (MOCBO)

Likert scale reflecting self-serving to pro-social motives (1=to benefit themselves; to make themselves look good; 7 = to benefit the organization and his/her coworkers). The items for the specific behaviors were drawn from Lee and Allen's (2002) OCB scale. Therefore, two 8-item scales to measure attributed motives were created (1) attributed motive for OCB-I (MOCBI) and (2) attributed motive for OCB-O (MOCBO), with higher scores reflecting pro-social motives and lower scores reflecting self-serving motives. Reliability for MOCBI was .96 and reliability for MOCBO was .96.

3.2.4. Coworker Liking

Liking was measured with a 3-item scale. First two items were adopted from Wayne and Liden (1995) and the third item was adopted from Nicholson et al. (2001). The items were rephrased to fit to this study. A sample item is "I like this coworker very much as a person." The participant responded to the items based on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The responses on the three items were averaged to create the measure. Reliability was .95.

3.2.5. Interpersonal Trust

Interpersonal trust was measured using a 5-item scale developed by McAllister (1995). This scale was developed to assess affect-based trust that is a form of emotional bond between two parties. McAllister (1995) argued that trust has two foundations, cognition and emotion, and developed a measure that represents these two types of trust. He found that cognition-based trust relates to affect-based trust, and affect-based trust was directly influenced by organizational citizenship behaviors while cognition-based trust was directly influenced by knowledge of the focal employee's task performance and competency. Affect-based trust was considered most pertinent to the current study since the independent variable of this study is organizational citizenship behavior. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement on these items using 7 point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Reliability was .95.

3.2.6. Coworker Performance

The measure for coworker performance was adapted from a seven-item scale taken from Wayne and Liden (1995). Since the original scale was developed to assess subordinates' performance, items were rephrased to assess coworker performance. For instance, the term 'subordinate(s)' in each item was replaced with 'coworker(s)'. Participants were asked to evaluate their coworker's performance on a 7-point Likert scale. A sample item is "The overall level of performance that I observe for this coworker is: (1 = unacceptable to 7 = outstanding)." Reliability was .90.

3.2.7. Coworker Preference

Coworker preference was measured with items adapted from Burnett (2004). Burnett (2004) developed a 10-item scale to assess three types of coworker preference - productivity-based coworker preference, likeability-based coworker preference, and a desire to work with the coworker in the future. Items for likeability-based coworker preference are similar to those to assess liking, and items for productivity-based preference were based on the one-time team tasks given in that study. Therefore, only the four items which reflect desire to work with coworker in the future were used in the current study. Since the original scale was developed to assess teammate preference in the team task setting, items were adapted for the current study replacing the word 'teammate' with 'this coworker'. Each participant indicated his/her agreement with each statement regarding preference for working with the focal employee using a scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Cronbach alpha was .95.

3.2.8. Control Variables

The similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) suggests that people who share similar demographic and attitudinal characteristics tend to perceive one another as more attractive than those who are less similar. Several previous studies demonstrated that demographic similarity between rater and ratee is associated with evaluation not only between supervisors and

subordinates (Judge & Ferris, 1993; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Turban & Jones, 1988; Wayne & Liden, 1995), but also between coworkers (Bates, 2002; Glaman et al., 1996).

Both the employee and their coworkers reported demographic information. This was used to create a demographic similarity index between each coworker and focal employee regarding age, sex, race, and education level following prior research (Glaman et al., 1996; Wayne & Liden, 1995). Age difference was measured by absolute difference in years. Difference in education level was calculated in absolute difference in level. Since participants were asked to report the highest degree achieved, a larger value in education indicated a greater difference in higher education. Sex and race differences were dummy-coded as 0 (the same) or 1 (different). When demographic information was not reported by either side of the dyad, the similarity index for that dyad was left as missing. The resulting difference scores were standardized and squared, summed, and then reversed-scored. Therefore, a larger similarity index score indicates greater demographic similarity. The average age difference at the dyadic level was 8.76 (SD = 8.37) and the average educational level difference was 3.44 (SD = 1.17). Forty four percent of dyads were of the same sex and 44% were of the same race.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations and correlations are depicted in Table 3. The control variable, similarity, was not significantly correlated with any of the mediators or dependent variables. However, it was significantly correlated with IM strategies. In general, the variables in the model were highly correlated. In particular, it was interesting that ingratiation toward coworkers (INGC) and exemplification in absence of supervisor (EXEA) were more correlated with coworker ratings of observed OCBs, affective responses and work-related outcomes than were ingratiation toward supervisor (INGS) and exemplification in presence of supervisor (EXEP), supporting the key idea in the current study that impression management tactics may be perceived differently depending on the context in which they are exhibited or who they are targeted at. Thus, the correlations suggest that coworkers may respond differently to impression management behavior depending on who it is targeted at. In addition, it was necessary to examine whether or not coworkers who witnessed the focal employee's IM/OCB behavior describe it in the same way. Therefore, I examined the appropriateness of aggregating the individual-level responses for INGS, INGC, EXEP, EXEA, OCB-I, and OCB-O. Conventional acceptable cut-off values to support for aggregation are .70 or above for median rwg(j), .05 and .70 or higher for ICC(1) and ICC(2), respectively (Bliese, 2000). ICC(2) values between .50 and .70 are marginally acceptable (James, 1982). As shown in Table 4, all ICC(1) values were above .05 and rwg(j) values were above .70. However, ICC(2) values were lower than .50 except OCB-O (ICC(2)=.52). Insufficient ICC(2) values indicated that group means cannot be

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables

| | N | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|-----------------------|------------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 Similarity | 215 | .32 | .14 | (-) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 INGS | 222 | 4.16 | 1.47 | .11 | (.90) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 INGC | 222 | 4.63 | 1.37 | .20** | .63** | (.87) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 EXEP | 222 | 4.37 | 1.61 | .18* | .55** | .45** | (.91) | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 EXEA | 222 | 4.99 | 1.46 | .09 | .47** | .44** | .57** | (.87) | | | | | | | | |
| 6 OCB-I | 222 | 5.67 | 1.02 | -.01 | .34** | .42** | .23** | .45** | (.92) | | | | | | | |
| 7 OCB-O | 222 | 5.67 | 1.10 | -.01 | .37** | .25** | .26** | .49** | .64** | (.94) | | | | | | |
| 8 MOCBI | 222 | 5.53 | 1.26 | -.04 | .29** | .37** | .21** | .43** | .66** | .55** | (.96) | | | | | |
| 9 MOCBO | 222 | 5.54 | 1.30 | .00 | .30** | .31** | .25** | .52** | .59** | .74** | .74** | (.96) | | | | |
| 10 Liking | 222 | 6.27 | 1.08 | -.14 | .18* | .29** | .12 | .20** | .37** | .27** | .35** | .31** | (.95) | | | |
| 11 Trust | 222 | 5.52 | 1.29 | .04 | .18* | .46** | .15* | .28** | .46** | .29** | .45** | .38** | .62** | (.95) | | |
| 12 Preference | 222 | 6.15 | 1.14 | -.09 | .19** | .28** | .21** | .30** | .47** | .36** | .50** | .43** | .75** | .54** | (.95) | |
| 13 Performance | 222 | 5.84 | 0.97 | -.06 | .23** | .26** | .16* | .44** | .61** | .50** | .54** | .53** | .44** | .44** | .61** | (.90) |

INGS = Ingratiation toward Supervisor; INGC = Ingratiation toward Coworkers; EXEP = Exemplification in presence of Supervisor; EXEA = Exemplification in absence of Supervisor; OCB-I = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors toward Individuals; OCB-O = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors toward Organization; MOCBI = attributed Motives for OCB-I; MOCBO = attributed Motives for OCB-O; Preference = coworker preference. ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

used to reliably differentiate between units for these variables. In fact, the ICC(2) values are affected by the group sample size (Bliese, 2000). Recalculation using the Spearman-Brown formula (Shrout & Feliss, 1979) showed that the ICC(2) estimate were over .70 for all variables if the group size were 7 instead of 2.47. According to previous studies (e.g., Williams, Scandura, & Gavin, 2009), aggregation of individual response is supported when ICC(1) and rwg values were above the conventional cut-off values. Therefore, in this study for testing the overall model, the responses were aggregated under the focal employee. However, the investigation of attribution process was focused on the individual attribution process mechanism, so that the individual responses were not aggregated for testing hypotheses 3 - 8.

Table 4. Examination on the Appropriateness of Aggregating Individual-level Responses for Each Variable

| Variables | ICC(1) | ICC(2) | $r_{wg(j)}$ |
|-----------|--------|--------|-------------|
| INGS | .14 | .28 | .86 |
| INGC | .16 | .32 | .85 |
| EXEP | .15 | .30 | .79 |
| EXEA | .23 | .42 | .89 |
| OCBI | .09 | .19 | .96 |
| OCBO | .31 | .53 | .96 |

INGS = Ingratiation toward supervisor, INGC = Ingratiation toward coworkers, EXEP = Exemplification in presence of supervisor, EXEA = Exemplification in absence of supervisor, OCB-I = Organizational citizenship behavior targeted at individuals, OCB-O = Organizational citizenship behavior targeted at organization; ICC(1) = an estimate of the reliability of an individual respondent's rating across groups, ICC(2) = an estimate of the reliability of mean differences across groups, $r_{wg(j)}$ = the within-group agreement coefficient on a given variable.

4.2 Test of Attribution Process

4.2.1. Validation of Impression Management Measurement

Exploratory factor analysis with oblique rotation was conducted to examine whether items loaded on hypothesized factors. The scree plot, eigenvalues greater than 1.0, and the interpretability of the solution were used to determine how many factors should be extracted.

Results suggested a four-factor solution with 64.98% of the variance explained. The structure of the extracted factors with factor loadings and proportion of variance explained are depicted in Table 5. Next, the factor matrix was carefully examined to identify possible candidates for deletion. As Hinkin (1995) recommended, items with factor loadings lower than .40 and those that crossloaded on more than two factors with factor loadings greater than or equal to .35 were considered candidates for deletion. As depicted in the table, all items loaded on the designated factors above .50 and did not cross-load with other factors greater than .35. Thus, factor analyses supported a priori expectations that the four new impression management measures reflect distinct constructs.

Table 5. Factor Structure of New Ingratiation and Exemplification Scales

| | Items | INGS | INGC | EXEA | EXEP |
|-------|--|-------|------|------|------|
| INGS5 | This coworker flatters his/her supervisor. | .85 | | | |
| INGS4 | This coworker does personal favors for hi/her supervisor. | .82 | | | |
| INGS3 | This coworker praises the supervisor for his/her accomplishments. | .68 | | | |
| INGS2 | This coworker takes an interest in his/her supervisor's personal life. | .65 | | | |
| INGS1 | This coworker compliments his/her supervisor. | .62 | | .30 | |
| INGC1 | This coworker praises his/her coworkers for accomplishments. | | -.86 | | |
| INGC3 | This coworker flatters his/her coworkers. | | -.82 | | |
| INGC2 | This coworker praises his/her coworkers for accomplishments. | | -.59 | | |
| INGC5 | This coworker takes an interest in his/her coworkers' personal life. | .34 | -.57 | | |
| INGC4 | This coworker flatters his/her coworkers. | .33 | -.53 | | |
| EXEA2 | This coworker stays at work late when the supervisor is not present. | | | .83 | |
| EXEA4 | This coworker arrives at work early when the supervisor is not present. | | | .73 | |
| EXEA5 | This coworker comes to the office at night or on weekends even when the supervisor does not notice it. | | | .70 | |
| EXEA3 | This coworker appears busy when the supervisor is absent, even at times when things are slower. | | | .58 | |
| EXEA1 | This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is not around. | | | .58 | |
| EXEP3 | This coworker appears busy when the supervisor is around, even at times when things are slower. | | | | .87 |
| EXEP1 | This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is around. | | | | .76 |
| EXEP2 | This coworker stays at work late when the supervisor is present. | | | | .70 |
| EXEP4 | This coworker arrives at work early when the supervisor is present. | | | | .63 |
| EXEP5 | This coworker comes to the office at night or on weekends when the supervisor notices it. | | | | .50 |
| | Eigenvalues | 8.92 | 2.27 | 1.82 | 1.33 |
| | Percentage of variance explained | 42.87 | 9.67 | 7.47 | 4.97 |

Factor loadings less than .30 were suppressed; IMIS = Ingratiation toward Supervisor; IMIC = Ingratiation toward Coworkers; IMES = Exemplification in presence of supervisor; IMEC = Exemplification in absence of supervisor

In addition, confirmatory factor analysis with Mplus 5.2 was conducted to verify that these four impression management tactics that are specified by targets are distinct (see Table 6). The initial analysis (see four factor model 1 in Table 2) did not support the four-factor structure ($\chi^2 = 961.90.46$, $df = 164$, $CFI = .77$, $TLI = .74$, $SRMR = .07$, $RMSEA = .15$). The potential reason for this misfit was that the statements in each IM scale shared the same wording. More specifically, a new ingratiation measure and a new exemplification measure were created by adapting the original items to specify the targets. Therefore, it was reasonable to assume high covariances among items that share the same wording. Therefore, another CFA was performed allowing the errors of the scale items that share the same wording (first-order model 2) to correlate, which provided a better fit ($\chi^2 = 523.44$, $df = 154$, $CFI = .89$, $TLI = .87$, $SRMR = .07$, $RMSEA = .10$). Also, the chi-square difference test suggested that the first-order model 2 was a better fit ($\Delta\chi^2 = 438.46$, $\Delta df = 10$, $p < .01$), suggesting that model with correlated errors was better and chosen. Typically, CFI higher than .95, TLI higher than .95, SRMR lower than .08, and RMSEA lower than .06 are considered indices of good fit between the hypothesized model and observed data (Hu & Bentler, 1999). According to these cut-off values, the hypothesized model of this study demonstrated poor fit. However, such cut-off criteria need be relaxed when examining a model with multiple factors and indicators (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; De Frias & Dixon, 2005). According to them, CFI and TLI over .90 and RMSEA value below .08 are considered acceptable as good fit, and even CFI and TLI can be relaxed down to .85. Based on these relaxed criteria, SRMR were acceptable but CFI, TLI and RMSEA were not considered acceptable. However, CFI and TLI values were close to .90, so that the four factor structure model was considered a fair fit to the data.

Also, a model that loads the four factors into two higher-order factors was examined as an alternative model. In this model, ingratiation toward the supervisor and ingratiation toward coworkers were assumed to be linked to a higher-order factor, ingratiation, and exemplification in presence of supervisor and exemplification in absence of supervisor were assumed to load

onto a higher-order factor, exemplification, because they shared the same wordings. The analysis did not provide better fit statistics ($\chi^2 = 527.31$, $df = 155$, $CFI = .89$, $TLI = .87$, $SRMR = .07$, $RMSEA = .10$). The chi-square difference test suggested that the first-order model 2 was a better fit than the model specifying two higher-order factors ($\Delta\chi^2 = 7.57$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .05$).

Table 6. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Four Impression Management Tactics

| Model | χ^2 | df | CFI | TLI | SRMR | RMSEA |
|-----------------------------------|----------|-----|-----|-----|------|-------|
| 1. One second-order factor model | 534.88** | 156 | .89 | .87 | .07 | .10 |
| 2. Two second-order factors model | 527.31** | 155 | .89 | .87 | .07 | .10 |
| 1 vs. 2 | 7.57** | 1 | | | | |
| 3. First-order model 2 | 523.44** | 154 | .89 | .87 | .07 | .10 |
| 2 vs. 3 | 3.87* | 1 | | | | |
| 4. First-order model 1 | 961.90** | 164 | .77 | .74 | .07 | .15 |
| 3 vs. 4 | 438.46** | 10 | .77 | .74 | .07 | .15 |

Model 3 (first-order model 2) is the one with correlating error variances between the statements sharing the same wording. Model 4 (first-order model 1) is the one without correlating error variances between the statements sharing the same wording. CFI = Comparative Fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Lastly, one higher-order model, in which all four IM tactics were loaded onto a general impression management factor, was analyzed. This alternative model was considered since ingratiation and exemplification are part of the overarching construct, impression management. However, the difference test revealed that specifying one general higher-order factor in the model resulted in a significant decrement in fit compared to the four factor model ($\chi^2 = 11.34$, $\Delta df = 2$, $p < .05$). This result also suggested that the four latent variables are not totally a function of CMV.

4.2.2. Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis

By definition, the information cues should be assessed by the fit or congruence between two competing behaviors. For example, distinctiveness was assessed by comparing

the frequency of observed INGS (ingratiation toward supervisor) with that of INGC (ingratiation toward coworkers) and consistency was assessed by comparing the frequency of observed EXEP (exemplification in presence of supervisor) and that of EXEA(exemplification in absence of supervisor). Moreover, use of traditional single index measures of congruence (e.g., difference score) for the fit/congruence research was criticized for lack of information, conceptual ambiguity, and statistical constraints (Edwards, 1993). As an alternative, polynomial regression analysis is useful because it incorporates the competing variables. In addition, it allows researchers to generate three-dimensional surface graphs of the joint relationship between two competing independent variables and the dependent variables. This graph is very useful for precisely understanding the nature of the joint relationship (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998). Therefore, in order to test hypotheses 3 - 8, polynomial regression was used to examine how coworkers make attributions from information cues such as distinctiveness and consistency.

These two information cues were represented by the following equations, which depict the joint relationship between INGS and INGC and between EXEP and EXEA as related to coworker motive attribution of the focal employees' behavior using polynomial regression and response surface analysis (Edwards, 1993; Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Distinctiveness} &= b_0 + b_1\text{INGS} + b_2\text{INGC} + b_3 \text{INGS}^2 + b_4\text{INGS}*\text{INGC} + b_5\text{INGC}^2 + e \\ \text{Consistency} &= b_0 + b_1\text{EXEP} + b_2\text{EXEA} + b_3 \text{EXEP}^2 + b_4\text{EXEP}*\text{EXEA} + b_5\text{EXEA}^2 + e \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, attributed motives are considered a function of distinctiveness and consistency. However, Distinctiveness yields motive attributions about behavior targeted individuals and consistency yields attributions about behavior targeted at the organization, the equations can be rewritten as follows:

$$\text{Attributed Motives over OCB-I (MOCBI)} = \text{function of distinctiveness} = b_0 + b_1\text{INGS} + b_2\text{INGC} + b_3 \text{INGS}^2 + b_4\text{INGS}*\text{INGC} + b_5\text{INGC}^2 + e$$

$$\text{Attributed Motives over OCB-O (MOCBO)} = \text{function of consistency} = b_0 + b_1\text{EXEP} + b_2\text{EXEA} + b_3 \text{EXEP}^2 + b_4\text{EXEP*EXEA} + b_5\text{EXEA}^2 + e$$

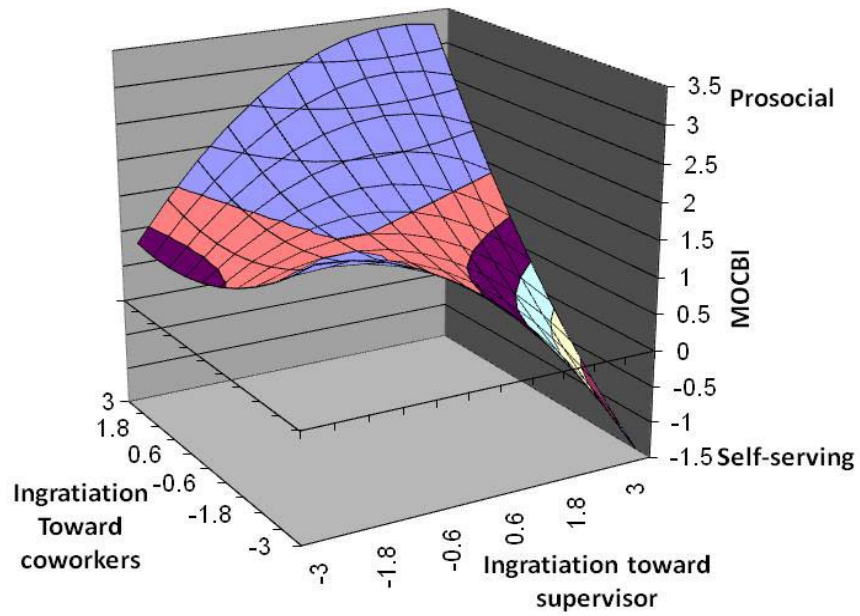
In order to estimate the coefficients of each term, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted in two steps. Prior to generating the hierarchical regression equations, the predictors (INGS, INGC, EXEP, EXEA) were centered about the mid-point value, which reduces multicollinearity. Dependent variables (MOCBI, MOCBO) also were centered because they were highly negatively skewed, which helped interpretation. In the first step, the control variable (similarity) and the linear terms (e.g., INGS, INGC) were entered. In the second step, quadratic terms (INGS², INGC², EXEP², EXEA²) and interactions (INGS*INGC, EXEP*EXEA) were entered. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 6. The congruence effects model was tested based on two criteria: First, the proportion of variance accounted for by the overall model (R² in Model 2) should be significant. Second, when adding the quadratic equations to the model the increment in variance explained (R² change in model 2) should be significant. Once these two conditions are met, slope and curvature of Y = X (fit line) and Y = -X (misfit line) should be interpreted.

In fact, interpretation of polynomial regression outcomes is much easier when visually projecting the joint relationships. Therefore, the coefficients of the equations from the analysis were used to present the data in a three-dimensional pattern (see Figure 4), which is called “response surface pattern” (Edwards, 1994). The slope and curvature of the congruence line and incongruence line represent the response surface pattern. The Y = X line (INGS = INGC and EXEP = EXEA) indicates the line of perfect congruence between predictor X and predictor Y, while Y = -X line (INGS = - INGC and EXEP = - EXEA) represent the line of perfect incongruence between two predictors. The slope of the line represents the extent to which (in)congruence between two predictors relate to the dependent variable (i.e., attributed

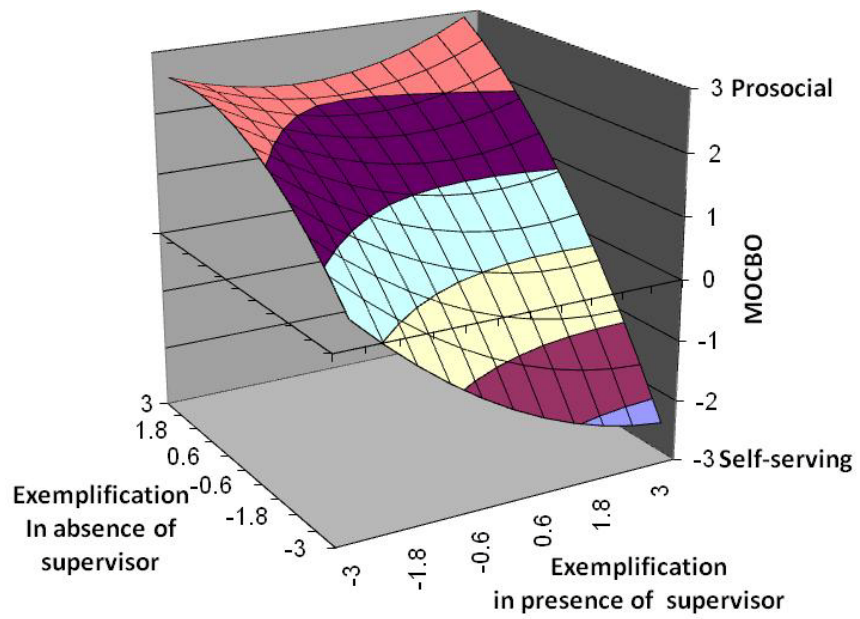
Table 7. Polynomial Regression - Response Surface Analysis Results

| Model 1 | | | | | | Model 2 | | | | | | | | Y = X line | | Y = -X line | | |
|---------|-----------|------------|------|-------|----------------|------------|------------|-------|-------|-------------------|-----------|-------------------|----------------|-----------------------|-------|-------------|--------|-----------|
| DV | Intercept | Similarity | INGS | INGC | R ² | Interecept | Similarity | INGS | INGC | INGS ² | INGS*INGC | INGC ² | R ² | R ² Change | Slope | Curvature | Slope | Curvature |
| MOCBI | 1.68** | -1.09 | .08 | .31** | .15** | 1.57** | -1.01 | -.07 | .28** | -.09* | .16** | .05 | .23** | .08** | .21** | .12** | -.35* | -.21** |
| Model 1 | | | | | | Model 2 | | | | | | | | Y = X line | | Y = -X line | | |
| DV | Intercept | Similarity | EXEP | EXEA | R ² | Interecept | Similarity | EXEP | EXEA | EXEP ² | EXEP*EXEA | EXEA ² | R ² | R ² Change | Slope | Curvature | Slope | Curvature |
| MOCBO | 1.19** | -.32 | -.05 | .49** | .27** | 1.00** | -.20 | -.20* | .61** | .06 | .09 | -.07 | .31** | .04** | .41** | .08* | -.81** | -.10 |

$N = 222$; 90 clusters; INGS = Ingratiation toward Supervisor (b_1); INGC = Ingratiation toward Coworkers (b_2); INGS² = squared INGS (b_3); INGS*INGC = the interaction term of INGS and INGC (b_4); INGC² = squared INGC (b_5); EXEP = Exemplification in presence of Supervisor (b_1); EXEA = Exemplification in absence of Supervisor (b_2); EXEP² = squared EXEP (b_3); EXEP*EXEA = the interaction term of EXEP and EXEA (b_4); EXEA² = squared EXEA (b_5); MOCBI = attributed Motives for OCB-I; MOCBO = attributed Motives for OCB-O; As for Y = X line, Slope = $b_1 + b_2$ and Curvature = $b_3 + b_4 + b_5$; As for Y = - X line, Slope = $b_1 - b_2$ and Curvature = $b_3 - b_4 + b_5$; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$



A



B

Figure 4. Predicting Attributed Motives from Two Information Cues: A. Predicting Attributed Motives Underlying OCB-I (MOCBI) from Distinctiveness (INGS and INGC), B. Predicting Attributed Motives Underlying OCB-O (MOCBO) from Consistency (EXEP and EXEA)

motives). For instance, if the slope along the Y=X line (INGC = INGS) is significant and positive, the level of MOCBI will increase, which means more prosocial, as the joint level of INGS and INGC increase in the same manner. If it is not significant, the response surface pattern will show the flat line along the perfect congruence line, which suggests that the level of the MOCBI is the same across varying levels on both INGS and INGC when levels of INGS and INGC are equivalent. On the other hand, the test of curvature of the line describes the shape of the relationship, which is linear or non-linear. The slope and curvature were calculated in terms of equations as shown below (see Edwards & Parry, 1993) and the significance tests on these parameters were conducted in terms of SPSS GLM CONTRAST statements.

Table 6 summarizes the results of the congruence test. In both the distinctiveness and consistency models, the main effects of INGC and EXEA were very strong, indicating that coworkers tend to attribute the perceived beneficial behaviors of focal employees to pro-social motives when focal employees engage in beneficial behaviors toward coworkers or exhibit such behavior even when the supervisor is not present. As for the congruence effect test, both models with overall equations were significant (see Table 6). The R^2 change was significant for distinctiveness ($\Delta R^2 = .08, p < .01$) and consistency ($\Delta R^2 = .04, p < .01$), indicating that the addition of the quadratic equations was significant.

Hypothesis 4 assumes that attributed motives will be prosocial (when ingratiation behavior is performed toward coworkers and supervisors with similar frequency) and that the level of attribution motive will be equivalent along this low distinctiveness line. If the predicted attributed motive is close to or below neutral motive level (MOCBI = 0), the hypothesis would not be supported. The response surface depicted in Figure 4a illustrates the relationship between INGS-INGC frequency congruence and coworkers' attributed motives (MOCBI), and Table 6 shows the results of the parameter significance tests. The slope and curvature of the surface along the Y=X line were significant (slope = .21, $p < .01$), which implies that coworkers attribute perceived beneficial behaviors targeted at peers to prosocial motives as the focal

employees exhibit those behaviors more frequently while also exhibiting those behavior consistently toward supervisors as well as peers. In addition, whether or not all levels of MOCBI along the $Y=X$ line were prosocial was examined. As depicted in the graph, the congruence line was concave (curvature = .12, $p < .01$). The shape of line indicates that MOCBI decreases slightly from where $INGS = INGC = -3$, became the lowest (predicted MOCBI=1.48) at the joint score -.86 point, and then picked up. The lowest MOCBI was neither close to nor below the neutral level. In sum, findings revealed that behaving in the same manner toward different targets as well as the frequency of showing such behaviors is important to coworkers' motive attributions. Specifically, focal employees who demonstrated IM-related behaviors less frequently were considered less prosocial than those who exhibited them more frequently, even when they displayed these behaviors equally toward supervisors and coworkers. In short, coworkers attributed more prosocial motives to focal employees when they exhibited IM behaviors toward different targets at the same frequency and when the overall frequency was high. Therefore, the hypothesis 4 was partially supported.

Hypotheses 3 and 5 were tested by investigating the shape of the incongruence line ($Y = -X$) that includes two high distinctiveness cases such as upward high distinctiveness ($INGS > INGC$) and downward high distinctiveness ($INGS < INGC$). More specifically, hypothesis 3 posited that an attribution of a self-serving motives would be made when there was upward high distinctiveness, while hypothesis 5 proposed that an attribution of a prosocial motives would be made when there is downward high distinctiveness. The slope along this line was significant and negative (slope = -.35, $p < .01$), so that hypotheses 3 and 5 seemed initially supported. However, the significance test of the curvature was also significant (curvature = -.21, $p < .01$). The surface of this model was saddle-shaped along $Y = -X$ line, such that there was a positive slope up to the joint mid-point but a downward slope after the joint mid-point. This indicates that a self-serving motive is attributed not only when $INGS > INGC$ but also when $INGC > INGS$. In order to determine whether MOCBI at the downward high distinctiveness case ($INGC > INGS$)

is significantly higher than at the upward high distinctiveness level ($INGS > INGC$), the predicted MOCBI scores were compared at two points. The two high distinctiveness points were calculated as the mean plus one standard deviation and the mean minus one standard deviation. Therefore, the downward high distinctiveness point was represented by $INGS = -1.32$ and $INGC = 1.62$ and upward high distinctiveness point was represented at $INGS = 2.00$ and $INGC = -0.74$. The difference test provided statistical evidence that motive attribution at the upward high distinctiveness (predicted MOCBI = .61) is significantly more self-serving than at the downward high distinctiveness (predicted MOCBI = 1.92, difference = 1.31, $p < .01$).

The pattern graph (see Figure 4a) also provides two more interesting pieces of information regarding the relationship between distinctiveness and attributed motives. First, it appears that motives are more likely to be attributed as self-serving in the incongruence line ($Y = -X$ or when $INGS \neq INGC$) than in the congruence line ($Y = X$ or when $INGS = INGC$). An additional significance test was conducted on the difference between the motive attribution score at the downward high distinctiveness level (1.36 at -1 SD from the midpoint) and those at the low point (-1 SD) and at the high point (+1 SD) along the low distinctiveness line (1.48 and 2.35, respectively). Results found that the MOCBI was higher, that is, more prosocial, across any levels along the low distinctiveness line than on the downward high distinctiveness line. In other words, when the frequency of $INGC$ and $INGS$ were similar, motives were likely to be perceived as prosocial. Second, the maximum value of MOCBI along this $Y = -X$ line is the joint point slightly shifted from the midpoint. This implies that a prosocial motive attribution is maximized when frequency of ingratiation toward coworker slightly exceeds frequency of ingratiation toward supervisor, rather than extremely exceeds it. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the focal employees' beneficial behaviors toward the organization will be attributed to prosocial motives in the high consistency situation where those behaviors are performed with similar frequency both when the supervisor is present and absent.

The slope should not be significant in order to support this hypothesis. The congruence line in the Figure 4b reveals that MOCBO is lowest at the bottom left (where levels of EXEP and EXEA were both low) but increases as the line reached the top right corner (where levels of EXEP and EXEA are both high) (slope = .41, $p < .05$), and thus, hypothesis 7 was not supported. The $Y = -X$ line also was examined to pertain to hypotheses 6 and 8, which both hypothesized low consistency. Hypothesis 6 posited that coworkers will make self-serving motive attributions in the low consistency - presence situation ($EXEP > EXEA$) and hypothesis 8 posited that coworkers will make pro-social motive attributions in the low consistency - absence situation ($EXEP < EXEA$). The slope of this incongruence line was significantly negative (slope = $-.81$, $p < .01$) but the shape was not significantly different from a straight line (curvature = $-.10$, $p > .05$). Therefore, hypotheses 6 and 8 were supported.

In short, the results of polynomial regression and response surface analysis revealed several interesting findings. First, the positive slope along the $Y = X$ line indicated that motive attributions became more prosocial as both INGS and INGC increased such that those who engage in high (as opposed to moderate) levels of ingratiation toward both supervisors and coworkers were perceived as very prosocial. Second, attributed motive was more self-serving when ingratiation behaviors were more frequently performed toward supervisors than toward coworkers, supporting Hypothesis 3. Third, coworkers perceived motives behind the focal employees' behavior as moderately prosocial when ingratiation toward coworkers was high but ingratiation toward supervisors was low, partially supporting hypothesis 5. However, the level of attributed prosocial motive when there was downward high distinctiveness ($INGC > INGS$) was not as large as that when there was low distinctiveness ($INGC = INGS$), but larger than when there was upward high distinctiveness ($INGS > INGC$).

As presented in Figure 4b, the slope of the high consistency line ($Y = X$) is positive indicating that attributed motives are highly prosocial in the high consistency condition ($EXEA = EXEP$), but the slope is largely negative along the low consistency line ($Y = -X$). This suggests

that a prosocial motive attribution increases as the frequency of observing exemplification in the presence of supervisor (EXEP) and frequency of observing exemplification in the absence of the supervisor (EXEA) jointly increase ($Y = X$ line). However, attributed motives were also prosocial when EXEP is low and EXEA is high, but attributed motives change to self-serving as EXEP increases while EXEA decreases. Thus, the responses surface analyses on the joint relationship between EXEP and EXEA on MOCBO supported Hypotheses 6 and 8 only. In short, the polynomial regression results are mostly consistent with the hypothesized role of consistency and distinctiveness of beneficial behavior in motive attributions.

4.3 Model Test

The hypothesized model (Figure 2) was tested with structural equation modeling (SEM) in terms of Mplus 5.2 (Muthen & Muthen, 1998-2007). Following Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the measurement model was tested first and then, the proposed structural model was tested. In addition, the test of the proposed moderated mediation model was conducted in two steps. More specifically, the test of the mediation model was conducted to examine multiple mediators in the proposed sequence before testing for the moderation effect. Since multiple coworkers evaluated the same focal employee, the responses in the data set were not completely independent. To ensure the independence of the responses, the focal employee (cluster) was controlled for and maximum likelihood with robust standard errors and chi-square (MLR) estimation was used.

4.3.1. Measurement Model

An additional CFA was conducted to examine the distinctive structure of ten measures that were used for hypothesis tests. In order to overcome the lack of sample size in the measurement model test, the scale items were randomly combined into parcels in accordance with the procedure suggested by the previous studies (e.g., Chen, 1998). Each latent variable had at least three parcels and parcels were not created when the number of items was less than five. The hypothesized measurement model was composed of ten latent variables that

were correlated. The alternative model was a one factor model where all scale items loaded onto one general factor. The one factor measurement model explored the existence of possible common factor variable. The hypothesized 10-factor model provided better fit (scaled $\chi^2 = 600.47$, $df = 389$, $CFI = .96$, $TLI = .95$, $SRMR = .03$, $RMSEA = .05$) than the one factor model (scaled $\chi^2 = 944.07$, $df = 433$, $CFI = .91$, $TLI = .90$, $SRMR = .11$, $RMSEA = .07$). Also, a Satorra-Bentler chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001) was significant ($\chi^2 = 285.51$, $\Delta df = 44$, $p < .01$), so that the hypothesized measurement model was considered a better fit. In order to examine the existence of a Common Method Variance (CMV) effect across measures, an alternative model was examined which specified the unmeasured CMV by loading all the scale items onto it and fixing the correlations between CMV and other latent variables to 0. This approach allows the model test even though CMV is not directly measured. However, the CMV model did not converge after multiple trials. In fact, the unmeasured CMV approach to detect the existence of CMV has been criticized since serious model identification problems occur during running this model (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In sum, results of the measurement model test suggested that the measures used in the current study are distinct, which allows one to proceed with the structural model tests.

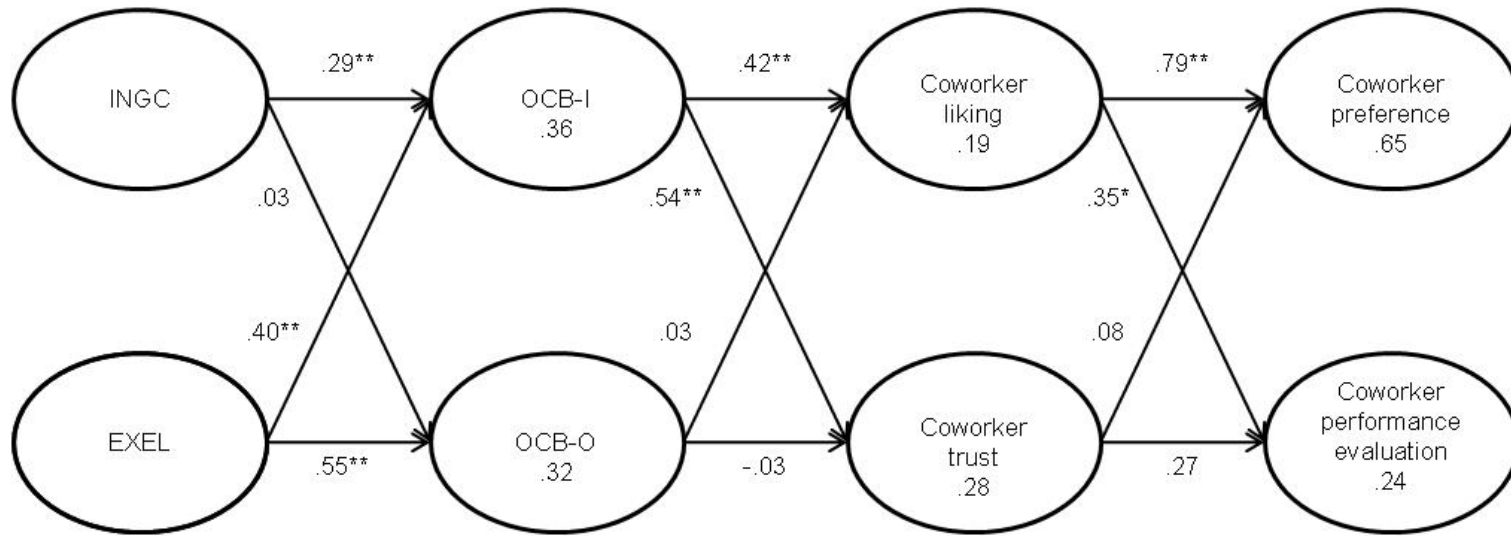
4.3.2. Structural Model: Mediation and Moderation

As shown in Figure 2, the model proposed a three-path mediated effect model, where the effect of employees' impression management behaviors on coworker preference and performance evaluation would be fully mediated by coworkers' perceived OCBs and affective responses. There have been a number of studies to introduce the methods to examine the mediation model (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007; Sobel, 1982), but they were limited to a single-mediator case. In addition, it is unknown whether the method to test a single-mediator model is applicable when there is a longer mediation chain (Taylor, MacKinnon, & Tein, 2008). Therefore, alternative models such as partially mediated models were estimated and compared with the fully mediated model that was hypothesized in

this study (Kelloway, 1998). In addition, a product-of-coefficient test (Taylor et al., 2008) was conducted to examine the three-path mediated effects.

The full mediation model provided acceptable fit to the observed data ($\chi^2 = 612.54$, $df = 262$, $CFI = .91$, $TLI = .89$, $SRMR = .16$, $RMSEA = .08$). Next, an alternative model (partially mediated model) was created by adding the direct paths from IM behaviors to affective responses (coworker liking, coworker trust) and distal work-related outcomes (coworker preference, coworker rating of performance), and from OCBs to distal work-related outcomes. This alternative model showed reasonably acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 607.01$, $df = 254$, $CFI = .91$, $TLI = .89$, $SRMR = .22$, $RMSEA = .08$). Then, this alternative model was compared with the full mediation model. Comparison of the nested models with a Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test (Satorra & Bentler, 2001) suggested that there is no difference between these two models ($\Delta\chi^2 = 3.37$, $\Delta df = 8$, $p > .05$). Therefore, following the parsimony principle, a fully mediated model was retained for testing a moderation model.

Standardized parameter estimates for the full mediation model are displayed in Figure 5. OCB-I was predicted by INGC ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$) and EXEA ($\beta = .40$, $p < .01$). OCB-O was predicted by EXEA ($\beta = .55$, $p < .01$) only. Thus, hypothesis 1 and 2 were supported. Interestingly, exemplification was more strongly related to both OCB-I and OCB-O. However, liking and trust were predicted by OCB-I only ($\beta = .42$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = .54$, $p < .01$, respectively). The Sobel (1982) tests also showed the indirect relationship through OCB-I between INGC and liking ($z = 2.62$, $p < .01$), INGC and trust ($z = 2.74$, $p < .01$), EXEA and liking ($z = 2.89$, $p < .01$), and EXEA and trust ($z = 3.05$, $p < .01$), but did not support the indirect relationship through OCB-O. Coworker preference and coworker performance evaluation were predicted by liking only ($\beta = .79$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = .35$, $p < .01$, respectively). In fact, a Sobel test revealed a significant indirect relationship through liking between OCB-I and coworker preference ($z = 4.37$, $p < .01$) and OCB-I and coworker ratings of performance ($z = 1.89$, p (one-tailed) $< .01$). Thus, hypotheses 10a and 11a were supported, but hypotheses 10b and 11b were



Numbers indicated within the variable label ellipses represent R^2 . INGC = ingratiation toward coworkers; EXEA = exemplification in absence of supervisor. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Figure 5. Standardized Parameters for the Full Mediation Model.

not. Overall, IM and OCB explained 19% of the variance in liking, 28% of the variance in trust, and 65% of the variance in coworker preference. Also, 24% of the variance in coworker performance evaluation was accounted for by the aggregate of IM, OCB, and affect.

In addition to the structural model test, the three-path mediating effects were examined with a product-of-coefficient test (Taylor et al., 2008). The product-of-coefficient test was conducted by building a 95% confidence interval around the mediated effects with 1.96 times the estimated standard error. The standard error of the mediated effect was estimated by an unbiased standard error formula (see Taylor et al., 2008). If the confidence interval does not include zero, the three-path chain model is supported. The results provided only three significant mediation chains. They were (1) INGC → OCB-I → liking → coworker preference, (2) EXEA → OCB-I → liking → coworker preference, and (3) EXEA → OCB-I → liking → coworker rating of performance. These findings confirmed the results from the above Sobel tests, and eventually, supported two-stage mediation model of coworkers' perceived OCBs and affects as mediators that link the focal employee's IM behaviors and coworker performance evaluation.

The moderation effect was tested with the fully mediated model. The moderator hypotheses H9a and H9b were tested using the unconstrained approach following Marsh, Wen, and Hau (2004). Interaction product indicators were created by using matched combinations of indicators from OCB-I and MOCBI and from OCB-O and MOCBO instead of all possible combinations of indicators. The results indicated that the moderator model did not provide good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1602.90$, $df = 619$, $CFI = .85$, $TLI = .84$, $SRMR = .15$, $RMSEA = .09$). In addition, none of the interaction products (OCB-I×MOCBI and OCB-O×MOCBO) were significant: $-.02$ ($p > .05$) and $.07$ ($p > .05$), respectively, for liking and $-.05$ ($p > .05$) and $.18$ ($p > .05$), respectively, for trust, and the main effect only from MOCBI to trust was significant ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$). Thus, H9a and H9b were not supported and interpretation of hypotheses tests was drawn from the full mediation model.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION
5.1 Summary

The purpose of the current study was of two fold. First, drawing from attribution theory, I examined how individuals form attributions about the motives underlying perceived beneficial behaviors of their coworkers. Following Kelly (1967) and Eastman (1994), I hypothesized that individuals' attribution about their coworkers' motives for observed behaviors were formed on the basis of two information cues: distinctiveness and consistency. Distinctiveness was measured by the joint relationship of ingratiation toward supervisor and ingratiation toward coworkers. Consistency was measured by the congruence between exemplification in presence of the supervisor and exemplification in absence of the supervisor. To understand these multi-dimensional relationships, polynomial regression response surface analysis was conducted. The moderating effect of the attributed motives on how coworkers respond to employees' beneficial behaviors such as impression management and OCBs also was examined.

Overall, results of analysis revealed that the joint relationship of the two competing IM behaviors supported the hypothesized attributed motives in most situations. As expected, when beneficial behavior was consistent across targets and not distinctive (both in the absence and presence of the supervisor), a prosocial attribution occurred but a self-serving attribution occurred when there was upward high distinctiveness (supervisor-focused ingratiation was higher than coworker-focused ingratiation) or low consistency such that exemplification occurred more in the supervisor's presence than absence, consistent with hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. Also, the analysis produced evidence to support the three-path mediation effect model

in which impression management indirectly affected distal work-related outcomes via organizational citizenship behaviors (as perceived by coworkers) and coworker affect. Ingratiation was related to OCB-I but not to OCB-O, and exemplification was more strongly related to OCB-O than OCB-I, consistent with hypothesis 1 and 2. In addition, the Sobel (1982) test and the product-of coefficient test (Taylor et al., 2008) indicated that IM and distal work-related outcomes were indirectly related via an OCB-I - liking chain, supporting hypotheses 10a and 10b.

The response surface analysis results provided strong support for the hypothesized attribution process. Variance in attributed motives accounted for by the overall polynomial regression model was significant in both models: distinctiveness and consistency. The quadratic terms predicted an increment of 8% in the variance for the distinctiveness model and 4% of the variance for the consistency model. Thus, they contributed significantly to the variance explained, although to a lesser extent than the main effects with 16% of the explained variance for the distinctiveness model and 27% for the consistency model. More interestingly, the main effects of INGS and EXEP were not significant, but became meaningful when considering their influence on the attributed motives jointly with INGC and EXEA.

There were three situations in which information cues (distinctiveness and consistency) did not influence attributed motives as hypothesized. A non-significant slope was expected along the low distinctiveness and high consistency situations, indicating that employees would attribute prosocial motives to observed beneficial behaviors based on distinctiveness or consistency regardless of the frequency of behavior. However, results showed that the slopes for both situations were significant and positive, which indicated that the more frequently impression management behaviors are observed, the higher the prosocial motive attribution. Nonetheless, attributed motives did not fall below a medium level (neither highly prosocial or self-serving) at the low joint frequency cases. This indicates that coworkers did not attribute self-

serving motives in the low distinctiveness and high consistency situations, as expected, but instead made more neutral motive attributions.

When there was downward high distinctiveness (INGC higher than INGS), results were also not consistent with hypotheses. Counter to hypotheses, when there were higher levels of ingratiation toward coworkers than toward supervisors, motives were not seen as self-serving but again as neutral. Thus, results suggest that coworkers highly endorse prosocial motives when focal employees are perceived as performing ingratiation behaviors both toward the supervisor and coworkers with equal frequency, but they had neutral perceptions when focal employees exhibited ingratiation behavior toward coworkers more frequently than toward the supervisor. According to Rosenfeld et al. (1995), a certain level of impression management is beneficial to the organization. More specifically, good impression management may foster interpersonal relationships and harmony among members, which eventually helps the organization function well and achieve its goals. In support of this, Bozeman and Kacmar (1998) also found that people who engaged in more IM received better performance evaluations. They argued that IM may be informative to employees by providing information about who is important and how to behave in the organization. In line with these arguments, the current study also shows that coworkers' reactions to employees' IM behaviors are influenced by whether they behave differently with different targets and when the supervisor is/is not present. Results suggest coworkers may perceive IM behavior from employees in a positive light as long as they exhibit this behavior consistently with different targets and in different contexts.

It is noteworthy that the main effects of ingratiation toward the supervisor and exemplification in the presence of the supervisor were not significant predictors of attributed motives in the polynomial regression equations. This is surprising since it is contrary to past IM research. Given opportunistic behaviors, defined as IM tactics or OCB, can be used for manipulating impressions to maximize self-interest (Bolino, 1999; Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000), it is

often assumed that employees exhibit such behaviors when supervisors are present because they can be noticed by the supervisors and receive a better performance evaluation (Ferris et al., 1994; Bolino, 1999; Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). However, when specifying targets and the context under which the behavior occurred as in this study, the main effects of IM behaviors targeted at supervisors was not significantly related to motive attribution. Instead, ingratiation toward coworkers and exemplification in the absence of supervisor were strong predictors of attributed motives. Specifically, those who exhibited high ingratiation toward coworkers were perceived as highly prosocial, as were those who exhibited exemplification in the absence of the supervisor. This indicates that the context in which the behavior is exhibited (toward whom, in the presence of whom) may be very important in understanding how observers form motive attributions. That is, how I perceive your behavior toward the boss depends on how you behave toward me and others, and when the boss is not around.

This study found that INGC was significantly related to OCB-I but not OCB-O, while EXEA was related to both OCB-I and OCB-O, partially supporting the construct similarity perspective. The unexpected result was that the relationship between EXEA and OCB-I was larger than the relationship between INGC and OCB-I. This unexpected finding could be explained by a measurement issue. When Bolino and Turnley (1999) developed their IM scale which was adapted for this study, they developed items that are distinct from OCB by choosing only typical IM behaviors and excluding citizenship-like behaviors. As a result, the items in their ingratiation scale are quite different to those in OCB-I, and the items in exemplification, while still similar to those in OCB-O, are distinct from OCB-O with the inferred IM-related intention expressions. However, in this study, inferred motives were removed in order to purely assess the observation frequency and examine how attributed motives are formed. Thus, the actual scale items were more similar to OCB items. As a result, the relationship of INGC with OCB-I was smaller in magnitude compared to the relationship of EXEA with OCB-I and OCB-O. EXEA

is very similar to OCB-O. However, the relationship between EXEA and OCB-I may reflect the typical relationship between OCB-I and OCB-O. A meta-analysis by Dalal (2005) found a relationship between OCB-I and OCB-O of .64 when correcting for unreliability and .49 when not correcting for it, supporting the above argument.

Results showed that OCB-O and trust did not mediate the relationships of perceived beneficial behaviors with affective or work-related outcome variables. The absence of these mediating effects raises a critical question with regard to the paths from IM to affective responses and to work-related outcomes. Interestingly, one finding from previous research was that self-focused IM tactics that are similar to exemplification (i.e., OCB-O), were not significantly related to liking (Wayne & Liden, 1995). If OCBs mediate the effect of IM behaviors on other variables as Bolino et al. (2006) suggest, findings of the current study may suggest why self-focused IM behavior did not predict liking. More specifically, this study suggests that exemplification, similar to self-focused IM tactics, is directly linked to OCB-O, but OCB-O is not related to affective responses (i.e., liking or trust). Therefore, in order to understand what type of IM tactics are effective or not effective and how they work, multi-dimensional OCB constructs should be incorporated in the future IM research.

Although the moderating effect of motive attributions on the relationship between IM tactic use and outcomes was found in another study (Tepper et al., 2004), this study did not find evidence of this moderating effect. A possible explanation for this finding is the way data were collected. Previous studies that examined the effects of attributed motives either placed the attribution scale immediately after the OCB scale (Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson et al., 2002) or asked the respondents to indicate OCB and attribution at the same time (Tepper et al., 2004). However, the current study randomized presence of the measures in order to minimize response bias, so that respondents may have provided consistent responses to both measures since the OCB and attribution measure have the same items but use different response scales.

5.2 Implications for Research

The current study provides several theoretical implications regarding the relationship between impression management and/or OCB and work outcomes (e.g., performance), and the attributions about motives underlying behavior. With the exception of a few studies (Eastman, 1994; Snell & Wong, 2007), few empirical studies have explored the process by which individuals make motive attributions about observed behavior. Instead, past research has typically assumed that individuals make attributions when they observe others' beneficial behaviors directly, without exploration of how such attributions are formed (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1996; Ferris et al., 1991; Gordon, 1996; Johnson et al., 2002; Nguyen, Seer, & Hartman, 2008; Tepper et al., 2004). This may reflect the absence of valid scales to enable direct investigation of attribution processes in field studies (Snell & Wong, 2007). This study adapted scales specifying the targets and situations to use a congruence approach to examine the attribution process involved when observing beneficial behavior.

The similarity in frequency of IM behaviors with different targets or in different contexts resulted in attribution information cues which were related to different attributed motives, as expected. For example, the joint relationship between ingratiation toward the supervisor and coworkers led to three types of distinctiveness: low distinctiveness where levels of ingratiation targeted at coworkers and supervisors were similar, downward high distinctiveness, in which ingratiation targeted at coworkers was higher than ingratiation focused on supervisors, and upward high distinctiveness, in which ingratiation targeted at supervisors was higher than ingratiation focused on coworkers. Consistency, measured by examining frequency of exemplification when the supervisor was and was not around, also contained three types of information cues: low consistency where exemplification is higher with supervisor's presence, high consistency in exemplification, and low consistency with exemplification more frequent in the absence of a supervisor. Low distinctiveness in ingratiation, high consistency in exemplification, and one form of low consistency (exemplification in the absence of a supervisor

more than in the presence of a supervisor) led to attributions of prosocial motives. In contrast, upward high distinctiveness (when supervisor focused ingratiation was more frequent than coworker focused ingratiation) resulted in self-serving motive attributions, and downward high distinctiveness (when coworker focused ingratiation is more frequent than supervisor focused ingratiation) resulted in moderately prosocial motive attributions. Finally, when exemplification was greater in the presence of a supervisor than in the absence of a supervisor, self-serving motive attributions also were formed. Thus, multiple perspectives on the conditions under which behavior is observed are needed from a multitude of situations to form attributions about the motives underlying a particular behavior.

Even though the current study did not find supporting evidence, one question that should continue to be explored in future research is whether attributed motives are important moderators. Tepper et al. (2004) found a strong support for motive attribution as a moderator, but the current study failed to support it. Several previous studies (Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson et al., 2002) conceptualized attributed motive as a mediator variable. These studies assert that individuals form an attribution about motives (either impression management or altruistic) from observed helping behaviors, and that those attributed motives are directly related to distal outcomes such as liking, reward allocation, and performance evaluation. More specifically, these studies posited altruistic motives would relate to positive outcomes and instrumental motives would relate to negative outcomes. However, both studies found only an effect of altruistic motives, but not impression management motives, on outcomes such as performance evaluation and reward allocation. Therefore, it is worthwhile to examine whether or not work effort perceived as motivated by impression management may lead to a smaller positive effect on reward allocation and performance evaluation than work effort perceived as motivated by altruistic concerns.

Perhaps differences in results between past studies and this study reflect the scales used to measure key variables. The current study adapted a motive scale from Tepper et al.

(2004) that asks respondents to indicate motives for each behavior on a single continuum. However, other studies (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson et al, 2002) measured the attributed motives in terms of two separate constructs: altruistic motives and impression management motives. It may be that the single-continuum based measure (Tepper et al., 2004) is suitable for testing a moderating role of attributed motives, while the two-independent-construct-based measure (Allen & Rush, 1998; Johnson et al., 2002) is better for testing motive as a mediator. Surely, more investigation and discussion of alternative ways to measure and conceptualize motives is needed to understand the motive attribution process and the influence of attributed motives on distal work-related outcomes such as performance evaluation.

Another contribution of this study focuses on measurement of key constructs in the IM and OCB literature. Given the conceptual overlap between the behaviors that comprise IM and OCB, investigations into whether these constructs are distinct is warranted. Results of the current study suggest that IM and OCB appear to be distinct but related constructs. According to the interpersonal communication framework of IM (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997) and the target specificity model (Lavelle et al., 2007), certain IM tactics and OCB dimensions are more similar and thus, should be more interrelated, and partial support for this notion was found in the current study. Specifically, the current study found that INGC was related to OCB-I but not to OCB-O, and EXEA was related to both OCB-I and OCB-O. Therefore, future studies should take into consideration the multi-dimensional aspects of both IM and OCB and investigate the diverse paths (mediators) that link IM to supervisor evaluations.

5.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although participants in the current study were from different industries and had diverse jobs, the sample may not fully represent the true diversity of employees' relationships with their coworkers due to manner in which participant recruitment occurred. During the recruitment process, the respondents (coworkers) were selected by graduate students (focal coworkers) who asked them to participate. Thus, they might have asked close colleagues with whom they

have positive relationships because they are easier to ask for participation favor than people with whom they have less favorable relationships. As a result, responses might be more positively than would be expected from the population at large. In fact, the means of the IM measures were negatively skewed; that is, most of the responses were clustered in the upper ranges of the IM measures. Thus, restriction of range may weaken the congruence tests at all value levels and combinations and attenuate relationships.

Another limitation could be sample size. The conventional minimum sample size required for structural equation modeling is five times of the number of parameters estimated. Accordingly, the ideal (but still minimally required) sample size was 440 for the full mediation model because the number of parameters estimated was 88. However, some researchers argued that sample size larger than 200 is acceptable when using SEM (cf. Marsh & Hau, 1999; Marsh, Hau, Balla, & Grayson, 1998). According to them, when NI/NF (number of indicators / number of factors) ratio is 3 or 4, $N = 100$ is acceptable but $N > 200$ is safer to having a model-data convergence. In the current study, NI/NF ratio was 3, so the sample size 222 was considered acceptable. However, it should be acknowledged that larger N is still needed to have better results and interpretation.

Also, this study used a cross-sectional design, and therefore, causal relationships among variables cannot be inferred. The current model proposes a two stage causal chain of four latent constructs (IM, OCBs, affect, work-related outcomes), which could be directly examined in future research using a longitudinal design. In addition, data were collected solely based on self-report measures so common method variance is possible. In fact, the correlation matrix demonstrates that the variables of this study are highly correlated. In order to statistically examine the degree of susceptibility to CMV, an additional measurement model with a single unmeasured CMV construct was tested (Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989), but it failed to converge with the data. However, confirmatory factor analysis suggested the presence of distinct constructs. Moreover, previous studies with supervisor's ratings reported

interrelationships among OCBs, liking, and performance appraisal (e.g., Allen & Rush, 1998; Bolino et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Similarly, this study reported similar substantive relationships among variables, suggesting that the high interrelationship between these variables that were found in the previous studies does exist in the coworker rating context. Taken with findings from the CFA, this suggests findings of the current study are likely due not to a CMV effect but to genuine relationships between variables.

This study did not examine one of the information cues introduced by Kelly and Eastman (1994)- consensus, or the relative frequency of employee behavior compared to their peers. By definition, consensus only can be defined by averaging an employee's self-reported impression management as compared with other coworker's self-reports, and therefore, can be assessed only when gathering data from an entire organization. In this study, data were collected from employees working in different organizations and industries, so it was not possible to examine how individuals used consensus information for their attribution process. Future studies might attempt to collect data from one organization and examine the relationship between consensus and attributed motives on top of distinctiveness and consistency. Examining consensus in future studies will enhance our understanding of the attribution process regarding motives of the focal employees' beneficial behaviors.

5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, despite the limitations and several unsupported hypotheses, this study makes an important contribution to the IM and OCB literatures. This study quantitatively demonstrated how coworkers form attributions about motives for a focal employee's behavior. In particular, results indicate that coworkers distinguish the beneficial behaviors demonstrated by focal employees by different targets and in different situations, and use this information when distinguishing good soldiers from good actors. Past studies show that supervisors who are the primary targets of impression management consistently provide favorable evaluations for employees who frequently use impression management (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Judge &

Bretz, 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Yet, beneficial behavior directed at coworkers is more likely to reflect genuine citizenship behavior (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000; Lee & Allen, 2002; Moorman, 1991) and observers are better than targets in identifying the sincerity of actor behavior (Risen & Gilovich, 2007; Vonk, 2002). Thus, findings of the current study suggest that supervisors might consider how coworkers evaluate each other given they are likely to have different views than supervisors which may more closely align with the actual motives underlying employee behavior. Even though attributed motive was not found to moderate the relationship between beneficial behavior and coworker evaluations in this study, further research should continue to examine how the attribution process and the extent to which coworker evaluations are similar to/different from supervisor's evaluations.

APPENDIX A
MEASURS OF CURRENT STUDY

Ratings of the Coworker's Ingratiation Targeted at Supervisor and Coworkers

Use the following 7-point scale to indicate **how often** this coworker engages in each of the following behaviors in the spaced provided. Keep in mind that **“coworkers” refer to fellow employees** at similar level in the organization that are not your supervisor.

| | Never | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Usually | Almost always | Always | |
|-----|-------|--------|-----------|-------|---------|------------------|--------|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 1. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker compliments his/her supervisor. |
| 2. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker takes an interest in his/her supervisor's personal life. |
| 3. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker praises the supervisor for his/her accomplishments. |
| 4. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker does personal favors for his/her supervisor. |
| 5. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker flatters his/her supervisor. |
| 6. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker compliments me. |
| 7. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker takes an interest in my personal life. |
| 8. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker praises me for my accomplishments. |
| 9. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker does personal favors for me. |
| 10. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker flatters me. |
| 11. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker compliments his/her coworkers. |
| 12. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker takes an interest in his/her coworkers' personal life. |
| 13. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker praises his/her coworkers for accomplishments. |
| 14. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker does personal favors for his/her coworkers. |
| 15. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker flatters his/her coworkers. |

Ratings of the Coworker’s Exemplification in Presence/Absence of Supervisor

Use the following 7-point scale to indicate **how often** this coworker engages in each of the following behaviors in the spaced provided. Keep in mind that **“coworkers” refer to fellow employees** at similar level in the organization that are not your supervisor.

| | Never 1 | Rarely 2 | Sometimes 3 | Often 4 | Usually 5 | Almost always 6 | Always 7 |
|-----|------------|-------------|----------------|------------|--------------|-----------------------|--|
| 1. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is around. |
| 2. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker stays at work late when the supervisor is present. |
| 3. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker appears busy when the supervisor is around, even at times when things are slower. |
| 4. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker arrives at work early when the supervisor is present. |
| 5. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker comes to the office at night or on weekends when the supervisor notices it. |
| 6. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is not around. |
| 7. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker stays at work late when the supervisor is not present. |
| 8. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker appears busy when the supervisor is absent, even at times when things are slower. |
| 9. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker arrives at work early when the supervisor is not present. |
| 10. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker comes to the office at night or on weekends even when the supervisor does not notice it. |

Motive Attributions for the Coworker's Ingratiation

Use the following 7-point scale, indicate the reason for or the cause of this coworker's actions on occasions when he/she exhibits behaviors listed below. Use the following 7-point scale to record your response. Keep in mind that "coworkers" refer to fellow employees at a similar level in the organization that are not your supervisor.

| To benefit themselves; to make themselves look good | | | | To benefit the organization and their coworkers | | |
|--|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1. _____ This coworker compliments his/her supervisor.
2. _____ This coworker takes an interest in his/her supervisor's personal life.
3. _____ This coworker praises the supervisor for his/her accomplishments.
4. _____ This coworker does personal favors for his/her supervisor.
5. _____ This coworker flatters his/her supervisor.
6. _____ This coworker compliments coworkers.
7. _____ This coworker takes an interest in coworkers' personal life.
8. _____ This coworker praises me for coworkers' accomplishments.
9. _____ This coworker does personal favors for coworkers.
10. _____ This coworker flatters coworkers.

Motive Attributions for the Coworker's Exemplification

Use the following 7-point scale, indicate the reason for or the cause of this coworker's actions on occasions when he/she exhibits behaviors listed below. Use the following 7-point scale to record your response. Keep in mind that "coworkers" refer to fellow employees at a similar level in the organization that are not your supervisor.

To benefit themselves;
to make themselves look good

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

To benefit the organization
and their coworkers

1. _____ This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is around.
2. _____ This coworker stays at work late when the supervisor is present.
3. _____ This coworker appears busy when the supervisor is around, even at times when things are slower.
4. _____ This coworker arrives at work early when the supervisor is present.
5. _____ This coworker comes to the office at night or on weekends when the supervisor notices it.
6. _____ This coworker appears like a hard-working, dedicated employee when the supervisor is not around.
7. _____ This coworker stays at work late when the supervisor is not present.
8. _____ This coworker appears busy when the supervisor is absent, even at times when things are slower.
9. _____ This coworker arrives at work early when the supervisor is not present.
10. _____ This coworker comes to the office at night or on weekends even when the supervisor does not notice it.

Ratings of Coworker's Beneficial Behaviors

Use the following 7-point scale to indicate **how often** this coworker engages in each of the following behaviors in the spaced provided. Keep in mind that **“coworkers” refer to fellow employees** at similar level in the organization that are not your supervisor.

| | Never 1 | Rarely 2 | Sometimes 3 | Often 4 | Usually 5 | Almost always 6 | Always 7 |
|-----|------------|-------------|----------------|------------|--------------|-----------------------|--|
| 1. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker helps others who have been absent. |
| 2. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems. |
| 3. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker adjusts his/hr work schedule to accommodate others' requests for time off. |
| 4. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. |
| 5. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. |
| 6. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker gives up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems. |
| 7. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker assists others with their duties. |
| 8. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker shares personal property with others to help their work. |
| 9. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational images. |
| 10. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker keeps up with developments in the organization. |
| 11. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker defends the organization when other employees criticize it. |
| 12. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker shows pride when representing the organization in public. |
| 13. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization. |
| 14. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | The coworker expresses loyalty toward the organization. |
| 15. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker takes action to protect the organization from potential problems. |
| 16. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | This coworker demonstrates concern about the image of the organization. |

Motive Attributions for Coworker's Beneficial Behaviors

Use the following 7-point scale, indicate the reason for or the cause of this coworker's actions on occasions when he/she exhibits behaviors listed below. Use the following 7-point scale to record your response. Keep in mind that "coworkers" refer to fellow employees at a similar level in the organization that are not your supervisor.

| | To benefit themselves; to make themselves look good | | | To benefit the organization and their coworkers | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|--|---|---|---|--|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| 1. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker helps others who have been absent. |
| 2. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems. |
| 3. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker adjusts his/hr work schedule to accommodate others' requests for time off. |
| 4. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group. |
| 5. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations. |
| 6. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker gives up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems. |
| 7. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker assists others with their duties. |
| 8. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker shares personal property with others to help their work. |
| 9. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational images. |
| 10. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker keeps up with developments in the organization. |
| 11. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker defends the organization when other employees criticize it. |
| 12. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker shows pride when representing the organization in public. |
| 13. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization. |
| 14. | _____ | | | | | | | The coworker expresses loyalty toward the organization. |
| 15. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker takes action to protect the organization from potential problems. |
| 16. | _____ | | | | | | | This coworker demonstrates concern about the image of the organization. |

Rating of Coworker Performance

Use the following 7-point scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement below in the spaced provided.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------------------|
| | Strongly disagree | | | | | | Strongly agree |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1. _____ This coworker is superior (so far) to other coworkers that I've worked with before.

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|---------------------|----------|-------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| | Unacceptable | | Poor | Below average | Average | Above average | Excellent | Outstanding |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

2. _____ Rate the overall level of performance that you observe for this coworker.

| | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------------------|
| | Very ineffective | | | | | | Very effective |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

3. _____ What is your personal view of this coworker in terms of his or her overall effectiveness?

| | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-------------------------|
| | Not very ineffectively | | | | | | Very effectively |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

4. _____ Overall, to what extent do you feel this coworker has been effectively fulfilling his or her roles and responsibilities?

| | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-----------------|
| | Not at all | | | | | | Entirely |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

5. _____ Overall, to what extent do you feel this coworker is performing his or her job the way you would like it to be performed?

6. _____ To what extent has this coworker met your own expectations in his or her roles and responsibilities?

7. _____ If you entirely had your way, to what extent would you change the manner in which this coworker is doing his/her job?

Coworker Preference

Use the following 7-point scale to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements below.

- | | Strongly
disagree | | | | | | Strongly
agree |
|----|------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|---------------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 1. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| 2. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| 3. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| 4. | _____ | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |

Biographical Information

What is your age? _____

What is your gender? Male () Female ()

What is your ethnicity?

White () Black () Hispanic ()

Asian () American-Indian () Others: _____

What is the highest education level you have completed?

Less than High School ()

High school diploma/GED ()

Some college ()

Vocational or technical college (two year) degree ()

Undergraduate University degree ()

Masters degree ()

Doctorate or Professional degree (Ph.D., MD, J.D.) ()

Is English your first language? Yes () No ()

** Cultural factors sometimes influence how people view the people they work with. For this reason, we are interested in knowing whether you are American, or are from a different country.

Please, answer the following questions.

Are you a U.S. citizen? Yes () No ()

If no, what country are you a citizen of? _____

If no, how long have you been in the U.S.? _____ Years _____ Months

What industry do you work in? _____

Are you a permanent worker () or contract worker ()?

What is your job title? _____

What is your organizational level?

Executive or Department head ()

Professional management position ()

Professional non-management position ()

First level supervisor ()

Hourly worker ()

Other: _____

How many hours do typically you work per week? _____ Hrs

How many years of work experience do you have? _____ Years _____ Months

How long have you worked at your current company? _____ Years _____ Months

How long have you worked with the coworker you completed this survey about? _____

Years _____ Months

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

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