

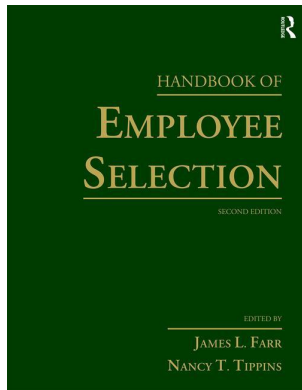
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ADAPTIVE AND CITIZENSHIP-RELATED BEHAVIORS AT WORK

DAVID W. DORSEY, JOSE M. CORTINA, MATTHEW T. ALLEN,
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CONCEPTUALIZATION

Macro-level trends such as globalization, technology, demographic shifts, and alternative work structures have led researchers and practitioners to challenge traditional definitions of individual work performance (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999). Two major ways in which these definitions have shifted include performing in interdependent and uncertain work contexts (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). In this chapter, we explore such expanded definitions of work performance by considering what we know (and what we do not know) about adaptive and organizational citizenship-related behaviors and how this knowledge might be used to inform selection.

Implicit in our effort to highlight adaptive and citizenship behavior is the assumption that such behaviors are in some ways unique from traditional task performance. Although we argue in various ways throughout this chapter that this is true, we acknowledge that the boundaries among such performance components are fuzzy. It has been argued that neither adaptive nor citizenship performance is mutually exclusive from task performance, and some conceptual and empirical overlap should be expected (Griffin et al., 2007; Johnson, 2003; Schmitt, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that differences in specific job requirements can drive the relative importance (and profile) of various performance components (Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, & Plamondon, 2000). For the purposes of a selection volume, it is sufficient to observe that one of the reasons for distinguishing adaptive performance and citizenship performance from task performance is that they have different determinants.

ADAPTIVE BEHAVIOR DEFINED

Recent work in the area of performance adaptation (e.g., Baard, Rench, & Kozlowski, 2013) has sought to summarize and clarify the extant literature on the basis of various theoretical approaches, namely: a performance construct, an individual difference construct, a change in performance, and a process. We agree that additional clarity and specificity regarding the relevant approach can lead to greater clarity in interpreting the literature. Because this volume focuses on selection, multiple approaches are relevant for the current review.

Adaptability refers to an individual difference or a predictor (either as a separate construct, compound trait) that has different relationships with facets of adaptive performance. This view typically includes an individual's ability, skill, disposition, willingness, and/or motivation to respond to change (e.g., Ployhart & Bliese, 2006).

Adaptation refers to a process that includes recognizing demands of a situation, identifying implications, and taking needed actions, or more broadly, the process of achieving fit between new demands and individual behaviors (e.g., Chan, 2000). The theoretical perspective that views adaptation as a process is relevant to identifying mediators that may be important in predicting adaptive performance.

Adaptive performance is the criterion of interest—it is a change in response to an altered situation (cf., Dorsey, Cortina, & Luchman, 2010) or the behavioral outcome of the adaptation process (Schmitt & Chan, 2014). Like other definitions of performance, adaptive performance must be considered in relation to the goals of the organization to be able to determine the relevance and effectiveness of the response (Campbell, 2012). We subsume the final theoretical perspective, adaptation as a change in performance, identified by Baard et al. (2014), within our treatment of the measurement of adaptive performance. We also at times use the term *adaptive transfer* to refer to behavior in a training setting, which we view as a context-specific instantiation of adaptive performance.

As noted by Baard et al. (2014), each of these perspectives is relevant at multiple organizational levels (e.g., individual, team, unit, organization). Again, due to our focus on selection, we will generally display a bias toward the individual level of analysis. However, we believe multi-level issues are critical to investigate, and we recognize that team or higher-level effects are often not simply aggregations of individual-level results (e.g., Stajkovic et al., 2009).

Minimal advances have been made in the definition of adaptive performance in recent years. Taxonomic work done by Pulakos, Arad, Donovan, and Plamondon (2000) remains the most rigorous and comprehensive study of adaptive performance. The eight dimensions of adaptive performance identified by Pulakos et al. include:

1. Handling emergencies or crisis situations
2. Learning work tasks, technologies, and procedures
3. Handling work stress
4. Demonstrating personal adaptability
5. Displaying cultural adaptability
6. Solving problems creatively
7. Dealing effectively with unpredictable or changing work situations
8. Demonstrating physically oriented adaptability

This definition includes both reactive and proactive responses to change (e.g., Huang et al., 2014; Shoss, Witt, & Vera, 2012) and has mental, interpersonal, and physically oriented dimensions (White et al., 2005). Further treatment of the relationship between proactive and adaptive performance is outside of the scope of this chapter but is reviewed in detail elsewhere (cf. Zhu, Frese, & Li, 2014). As is true for general models of job performance (e.g., Campbell, 2012), differences of specific job requirements drive the relative importance of various performance components (Pulakos et al., 2000).

Controversy remains regarding the factor structure and viability of alternate frameworks; however, little empirical research has been done within recent years to further evaluate the Pulakos et al. (2000) model. Some authors continue to argue that adaptive performance is not truly distinct from other types of performance (e.g., Campbell, 2012; Johnson, 2001; Ployhart & Bliese, 2006); however, there is agreement that performance requirements change and that the ability and proficiency of individuals to anticipate and meet those changes varies. Pulakos and colleagues (Pulakos, Dorsey, & White, 2006) noted that adaptive performance is not independent of task and contextual performance and that it may or may not be needed to perform those duties. Regardless, given the increasingly dynamic nature of work and the need to better understand and predict effective responses to change, separate and specific attention to adaptive performance seems warranted to ensure good criterion measurement.

CITIZENSHIP DEFINED

Citizenship performance traces its conceptual lineage back to Barnard (1938), Katz (1964), and more recently, Organ and colleagues, who first coined the term “organizational citizenship behavior” or OCB (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Since its introduction, more than 30 potential variants of OCB have arisen (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), including a host of umbrella terms (e.g., “contextual performance”).

Although most studies of citizenship refer to citizenship behavior, we prefer the term *citizenship performance* because it emphasizes the notion that there is an aspect of quality and that some citizenship behaviors are more successful than others. The notion of quality in citizenship is necessary for the recognition of the importance of knowledge and skill in the prediction of citizenship.

Consistent with Borman and Motowidlo (1993), we define citizenship performance as activities that support the broader environment in which an organization’s technical core must function. Citizenship performance has many subdimensions, and there have been varied attempts to identify them (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Smith et al., 1983; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In this chapter, we use the most detailed of these models—that of Borman et al. (2001a). We made this choice, recognizing that there is considerable overlap among some of the

TABLE 21.1

Model Facets of Citizenship Behavior

| Personal Support | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Helping | Helping others by offering suggestions about their work, showing them how to accomplish difficult tasks, teaching them useful knowledge or skills, directly performing some of their tasks, and providing emotional support for personal problems |
| Cooperating | Cooperating with others by accepting their suggestions, following their lead, putting team objectives over personal interests, and informing others of events or requirements that are likely to affect them |
| Courtesy | Showing consideration, courtesy, and tact in relations with others |
| Motivating | Motivating others by applauding their achievements and successes, cheering them on in times of adversity, showing confidence in their ability to succeed, and helping them overcome setbacks |
| Organizational Support | |
| Representing | Representing one’s organization favorably to outsiders by defending it when others criticize, promoting its achievements and positive attributes, and expressing own satisfaction with organization |
| Loyalty | Showing loyalty by staying with one’s organization despite temporary hardships, tolerating occasional difficulties, handling adversity cheerfully and without complaining, and publicly endorsing and supporting the organization’s mission and objectives |
| Compliance | Complying with organizational rules and procedures, encouraging others to comply with organizational rules and procedures, and suggesting procedural, administrative, or organizational improvements |
| Conscientious Initiative | |
| Self-development | Developing own knowledge and skills by taking courses on own time, volunteering for training and development opportunities offered within the organization, and trying to learn new knowledge and skills on the job from others or through new job assignments |
| Initiative | Taking the initiative to do all that is necessary to accomplish team or organizational objectives even if not typically a part of own duties, correcting nonstandard conditions whenever encountered, and finding additional work to perform when own duties are completed |
| Persistence | Persisting with extra effort despite difficult conditions and setbacks, accomplishing goals that are more difficult and challenging than normal, completing work on time despite unusually short deadlines, and performing at a level of excellence that is significantly beyond normal expectations |

Source: Adapted from Borman, W. C. Buck et al., An examination of the comparative reliability, validity, and accuracy of performance ratings made using computerized adaptive rating scales, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 965–973, 2001.

subdimensions in this model. The Borman et al. (2001b) model contained three subdimensions of citizenship performance, each of which can be further broken down into facets. Table 21.1 contains detailed definitions of the facets of the model.

Clearly, there is overlap among these facets. Indeed, a meta-analysis by Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, and Woehr (2007) suggested that the citizenship domain is best characterized as a single higher-order factor. On the other hand, these dimensions seem to be conceptually distinct (see Table 21.1). For example, Machiavellianism often involves being courteous without being helpful or cooperative. These facets can be further distinguished by the fact that they have different consequences. Most important for our purposes is the fact that they have different individual and situational determinants. It remains to be seen if the covariance between subdimensions suggested by Hoffman et al. (2007) results from halo or common method effects or from the true nature of citizenship dimensions as reflections of a higher order (see also LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Before discussing determinants and consequences, a discussion of the nature of citizenship is in order.

Most empirical studies of citizenship, and of performance generally, assign a single score to each participant in the same way that studies of cognitive ability assign a single ability score. The implication is that a single value can represent the standing of a person on the stable construct, citizenship. Ilies, Scott, and Judge (2006) used event sampling to generate daily reports of job attitudes and citizenship and found that much of the variance in citizenship was within-person. As will be explained later, these authors found that this within-person variance was explained by other within-person factors. For the moment, we merely wish to point out that the Ilies et al. (2006) findings may cast doubt on the practice of using a single value to represent citizenship and on the conceptualization that this practice implies.

Predictors of performance often do not have simple cause-effect relationships with performance. Rather, some predictors can place “boundary conditions” on their relationships with citizenship or can exercise influence through other variables. These two conditions are known as “moderation” (boundary condition) and “mediation” (acting through). We discuss potential mediators and moderators in later sections.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE PREDICTORS

There are many potential predictors of adaptability and citizenship. Rather than attempt a comprehensive review, we offer those predictors that have been most prominent in the recent literature. Table 21.2 summarizes the predictors on which we focus.

Distal Individual Differences—Adaptability

For the purposes of discussing antecedents of adaptive performance, we distinguish between proximal and distal predictors. We conceptualize distal predictors as abilities and other characteristics (e.g., personality traits) inherent to the individual, which tend to be less closely related to outcomes of interest and are generally appropriate for selection contexts. Importantly, distal predictors are not direct causes of performance but may predispose individuals to behaviors that increase performance. Proximal predictors by contrast are characteristics that tend to be more trainable or influenced by the environment, such as knowledge and skills, and thus may or may not be appropriate for selection purposes depending on the specific position. For a more detailed treatment of the relationship between various antecedents and adaptive performance, see Jundt, Shoss, and Huang (2015).

Cognitive Ability

As with meta-analytic estimates of job and training performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), most studies examining the link between general cognitive ability and adaptive performance

TABLE 21.2
Predictors of Adaptability and Citizenship

| Predictor | Explanation | Primary Source(s) |
|--|---|---|
| | <i>Adaptability: Distal predictors</i> | |
| Cognitive ability | High-g people have more cognitive resources to devote to adaptive situations, allowing them to determine appropriate courses of action. | Pulakos et al. (2002) |
| Conscientiousness/Resiliency | High-conscientiousness people are prepared to struggle through uncertainty to achieve. They are more likely to engage in task pursuit. On the other hand, they may be less willing to revise their approach. | LePine et al. (2000); Pulakos et al. (2002); Stewart & Nandkeolyar (2006) |
| Openness to experience | High-openness people are better prepared to revise initial approaches on the basis of experience. On the other hand, they may be less inclined to pursue formal objectives in the first place. | LePine et al. (2000); Pulakos et al. (2002); Stewart & Nandkeolyar (2006) |
| Age | The role of age is unclear. Although physical adaptability may be more difficult for older workers, their experience may help them to appreciate the need for other kinds of adaptability. | DeArmond et al. (2006) |
| | Citizenship: Distal predictors | |
| Conscientiousness | High-conscientiousness people are more likely to recognize the need for and follow through on citizenship behaviors. "Duty" is positively related to "taking charge," whereas achievement striving is negatively related. | Borman et al. (2001b); Moon et al. (2008); Organ & Ryan (1995) |
| Prosocial personality | Prosocial people are more empathic and more interested in engaging in activities that benefit others or the organization. | Borman et al. (2001b) |
| Collectivism | People high in collectivism feel shared fate with their groups and are more concerned with group outcomes. | Jackson et al. (2006) |
| Narcissism | Causes one to engage in less citizenship and to inflate self-ratings of citizenship. | Judge et al. (2006) |
| Motives | Prosocial value motives and empathy predict OCB-I, whereas organizational concern motives and reciprocation wariness predict OCB-O. | Kamdar et al. (2006); Korsgaard et al. (2010); Rioux & Penner (2001) |
| Concern over future consequences (CFC) | People high in CFC are less likely to engage in OCB if term of employment is unclear. | Joireman et al. (2006) |
| Social networks | Relational ties, direct and indirect, lead to OCB. The structure and degree of ties is also relevant. | Bowler & Brass (2006); Venkatramani & Dalal (2007) |

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| Informational privacy Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) | Privacy of personal information leads to empowerment, which increases OCB. Although individual differences may moderate, perceptions of CSR are positively related to OCB. | Alge et al. (2006) Rupp et al. (2013) |
| Adaptability: Proximal predictors | | |
| Situational knowledge | Because adaptability is situational, practical intelligence in the form of situational knowledge should increase it. | Schmitt & Chan (2006) |
| Regulatory processes | Motivational components (e.g., goal choice and goal striving) and other processes (e.g., strategy selection) transmit the effects of abilities and traits. | Chen et al. (2005); Mitchell & Daniels (2003); Ployhart & Bliese (2006) |
| Citizenship: Proximal predictors | | |
| Attitudes Affect | Satisfaction, commitment, gratitude, engagement, and other attitudes explain between-person and within-person variance in OCB. PA, NA, mood, and other affective variables are related to OCB. | Ilies et al. (2006); Organ & Ryan (1995); Rich et al. (2010); Spence et al. (2014) Dalal et al. (2009); Glomb et al. (2011) |
| Knowledge and skill | Various person and organization-related forms of knowledge and skill influence the success of OCB attempts. | Dudley & Cortina (2008); Motowidlo et al. (1997); Munyon et al. (2015) |
| Leadership | Leader guidance, mentoring, abuse, and LMX have been linked to OCB-I, although job characteristics may mediate these relationships. | Dineen et al. (2006); Eby et al. (2015); Ilies et al. (2007); Martin et al. (2015); Piccolo & Colquitt (2006) |
| Social exchange | Climate for feedback and complementarity lead to positive social exchange, which engenders OCB. Social exchange theory also links leadership to OCB. | Glomb & Welsh (2005); Rosen et al. (2006); Kirkman et al. (2009) |

have found a positive, statistically significant relationship. Conceptually, cognitive ability should be related to adaptive performance, particularly cognitively oriented dimensions such as learning new tasks or technologies. With some exceptions (notably Allworth & Hesketh, 1999), field studies relying on performance ratings have generally found small-magnitude effects (less than .20 uncorrected; e.g., Bartram, 2005; Pulakos et al., 2002), whereas lab studies relying on objective performance measures have generally found larger effects (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2008; LePine, 2005; LePine, Colquitt, & Erez, 2000). Furthermore, lab studies examining adaptive transfer of training suggest that cognitive ability is predictive of mediating variables, such as declarative knowledge and practice behaviors, ultimately related to adaptive performance (e.g., Hughes et al., 2013).

Research into narrow dimensions of cognitive ability is rare (Jundt et al., 2015), despite evidence that these can be more predictive than measures of general cognitive ability (Lang, Kersting, Hulsheger, & Lang, 2010). One exception is Allworth and Hesketh (1999), who found strong correlations between three measures of cognitive ability (Abstract Reasoning, Clerical Speed and Accuracy, and Numerical Reasoning) and ratings of adaptive performance, with Abstract Reasoning being the most predictive. Other narrow dimensions of cognitive ability, such as divergent thinking, may be closely linked with certain facets of adaptive performance, such as solving problems creatively (Hunter, Cushenbery, & Friedrich, 2012).

Recent research suggests that the relationship between general cognitive ability and adaptive performance may be more complex than originally thought. Lang and Bleise (2009) found that individuals with higher cognitive ability showed larger declines in performance after a change (transition adaptation) and no advantage in their rate of regaining previous performance levels (reacquisition adaptation). Beier and Oswald (2012) suggest that this may be evidence that cognitive ability can be a hindrance in certain situations, though stressing the need for more research.

Personality

Research into the relationship between global dimensions of personality (e.g., the Big Five) and adaptive performance has yielded inconsistent results. For example, LePine and colleagues (2000) asked undergraduates to complete a complex simulation task and measured their performance before and after a task change. The authors found that conscientiousness was negatively related to post-change (i.e., adaptive) performance, whereas openness to experience was positively related to post-change performance. Stewart and Nandkeolyar (2006) examined how well sales associates adapt to environmental changes in the form of referrals. They found that conscientiousness was positively related to taking advantage of these environmental factors, whereas openness to experience was negatively related. How can two studies both nominally studying the personality-adaptive performance link come to completely different conclusions?

Researchers seeking to disentangle the antecedents of adaptive performance appear to be coalescing around two conclusions. First, examining personality at the facet level is more meaningful than examining personality at the dimension level when predicting adaptive performance. Second, the context of adaptive performance matters—certain jobs and tasks require different types of adaptive performance, driving the predictive relationships (Jundt et al., 2015; Pulakos et al., 2000; Pulakos et al., 2006). Exploring personality at the facet level allows better alignment with relevant dimensions of adaptive performance, adding nuance that helps to resolve discrepancies in earlier research. With respect to conscientiousness and openness to experience—the two personality dimensions most frequently associated with adaptive performance—the research becomes clearer at the facet level.

For example, in the LePine et al. (2000) study referenced above, the negative relationship between conscientiousness and adaptive performance appears to be driven by facets associated with dependability and not by facets associated with achievement striving. This is in line with the broader literature. While the extant literature has found mixed results for global conscientiousness as a predictor of adaptive performance, researchers have consistently found facets such as “achievement striving” to be positively related to adaptive performance, while

“cautious/dutifulness” facets are negatively or unrelated to adaptive performance (Griffin & Hesketh, 2005; Pulakos et al., 2002). With respect to openness to experience, despite its appeal as a construct related to creativity and open-mindedness, most studies have found little evidence of a significant positive relationship with adaptive performance (Allworth & Hesketh, 1999; Griffin & Hesketh, 2005; Huang, Ryan, Zabel, & Palmer, 2014; Pulakos et al., 2002; Stokes et al., 2010; Woo, Chernyshenko, Stark, & Conz, 2014). Although there are exceptions (e.g., LePine et al., 2000; Shoss, Witt, & Vera, 2012), where there are positive relationships, they tend to be small in magnitude and found for particular facets related to creativity (e.g., “ingenuity,” Woo et al., 2014; see also Huang et al., 2014) or contextualized to adaptive situations (e.g., “openness to change”; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). More evidence of a positive correlation between adaptive performance and openness to experience might be found at the facet levels on both the predictor (e.g., creativity facets) and criterion (e.g., solving problems creatively) (Hunter et al., 2012).

Other dimensions of the Big Five—emotional stability/neuroticism, extraversion, and agreeableness—have been examined less frequently in relation to adaptive performance. As with conscientiousness, the results examining the relationship between emotional stability and adaptive performance have been mixed, with some studies showing a small, positive, statistically significant relationship (e.g., Bartram, 2005; Huang et al., 2014; Pulakos et al., 2002) and others showing no relationship (e.g., Allworth & Hesketh, 1999; Shoss et al., 2012). Researchers have generally found no relationship between adaptive performance and global extraversion (e.g., Shoss et al., 2012, but see Blickle et al., 2011 for an exception). However, a study by Huang and colleagues (2014) sheds additional light on the relationship between emotional stability and extraversion with adaptive performance by examining the personality constructs at the facet level and distinguishing between proactive and reactive forms of adaptive performance. The authors found that “ambition” and “adjustment” (facets of extraversion and emotional stability, respectively) were positively correlated with adaptive performance, whereas sociability (another facet of extraversion) was unrelated. Furthermore, the magnitude of the relationships changed depending on the form of adaptive performance.

Finally, to our knowledge, agreeableness has only been included in a few studies examining the personality-adaptive performance relationship, with results suggesting a nonsignificant relationship (e.g., Allworth & Hesketh, 1999; Shoss et al., 2012). However, as Ployhart and Turner (2014) suggest, dimensions such as agreeableness may be critical for team or organizational adaptability, and thus should not be discounted in future research.

Motivations, Interests, and Previous Experience

Individual trait motivation is often assessed using the concept of goal orientation first proposed by Dweck (1986; Elliott & Dweck, 1988). Although there are different frameworks (e.g., Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; VandeWalle, 1997), most studies that have examined the linkage between goal orientation and adaptive performance distinguish between learning/mastery and performance orientations. The role of goal orientation in learning outcomes has been well-established (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000) but has rarely been studied in relation to adaptive performance in a field setting. One study from Goad and Jaramillo (2014) found that mastery orientation was strongly related to “adaptive selling” techniques (performance orientation was not related). Marques-Quinteiro and Curral (2012) also found mastery orientation to be related to both self-reported proactive and adaptive performance in a corporate setting. Goal orientation has been much more frequently examined in the skill acquisition literature, where the positive effects of mastery performance on learning are well-established, often as a distal predictor mediated by self-efficacy or other proximal variables (e.g., Kozlowski et al., 2001; see Jundt et al., 2015). These results suggest that goal orientation holds promise for predicting adaptive performance in a selection context.

Researchers have also examined the role of interests and experience in predicting adaptive performance, although less frequently. Pulakos and colleagues (2002) developed a measure of interests in adaptive activities and experience with adaptive situations. They found both measures to be positively related to supervisor ratings of adaptive performance, though only the

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experience measure predicted incrementally beyond cognitive ability and personality. This is consistent with Allworth and Hesketh (1999), who found a nonlinear relationship between an “experience with change” measure and adaptive performance that was incrementally predictive beyond cognitive ability. As summarized by Baard, Rench, and Kozlowski (2014), these studies, as well as the model of individual adaptability proposed by Ployhart and Bleise (2006), represent adaptability as an individual difference construct that requires additional theoretical explication and empirical study.

Other Individual Differences

Pulakos and colleagues (2006) propose that individual differences can impact adaptive performance in two ways: (a) through stress mitigation and (b) through effective coping strategies. They go on to propose a number of individual difference constructs that may be linked to various aspects of adaptive performance. A few of the individual differences proposed that have received less attention in the research literature include practical intelligence, social intelligence, and originality.

As outlined in Lievens and Chan (2010), practical, social, and emotional intelligence hold promise for predicting key criteria when theoretically aligned to the predictor construct. Pulakos et al.’s (2006) analysis suggests that practical intelligence is conceptually linked to the “handling emergencies/crises” and “solving problems creatively” dimensions of adaptive performance, whereas social intelligence is linked to “demonstrating interpersonal adaptability” and “displaying cultural adaptability.” Similarly, Oliver and Lievens (2014) propose that ability-based emotional intelligence will predict interpersonal adaptability, which will in turn predict adaptive interpersonal performance. While one study (Mumford et al., 1993) provides some support for originality by demonstrating that those concerned with creative achievement are more likely to perform well on novel tasks, more research is needed to link other dimensions that are predictive of creative potential (e.g., divergent thinking, creative processing skills) to adaptive performance (Hunter et al., 2012).

Finally, although not appropriate for selection purposes, a couple of studies have examined adaptive performance in relation to demographic variables. In one small-sample study, Pattie and Parks (2011) found that U.S. ethnic minorities are better able than their Caucasian counterparts to adapt to expatriate experiences. Finally, Niessen, Swarowsky, and Leiz (2010) found age to be negatively related to performance and perceived organizational fit after an organizational change, suggesting a negative correlation between age and adaptive performance.

Distal Individual Differences—Citizenship

Previous research on distal citizenship performance predictors has focused almost entirely on motivational and dispositional variables. Organ and Ryan (1995) reviewed the research on dispositional predictors of OCB and found that conscientiousness was the strongest predictor. Borman et al. (2001b) found that conscientiousness and two dimensions of prosocial personality, other-oriented empathy and helpfulness, were the strongest predictors of citizenship performance. Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, and Zapata-Phlean (2006) decomposed the collectivism domain into five subdimensions, finding that the elements of “reliance” (feeling of shared fate with group) and “concern” (feelings of concern about outcomes for group members) related most strongly to within-group citizenship behavior in teams.

In a similar vein, Moon, Kamdar, Meyer, and Takeuchi (2008) sought to resolve inconsistent findings related to conscientiousness and “taking charge” citizenship or voluntary behaviors that are intended to affect functional organizational change. They decomposed the conscientiousness trait into “duty” and “achievement striving” and found that “duty” had a positive relationship with taking charge and “achievement striving” had a negative relationship. Moon et al. attributed this to the fact that duty is “other-oriented,” or centered on the benefit of others, whereas achievement striving is not.

Judge, LePine, and Rich (2006) found that narcissism or delusional beliefs about influence and personal specialness are related to inflated self-ratings of citizenship performance and to inhibited ratings of these same behaviors by others. Taken collectively, this research suggests that having a strong individual orientation can inhibit citizenship performance, particularly those dimensions of citizenship that are other-oriented.

Research has also investigated whether personal motives relate to citizenship performance (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Rioux and Penner (2001) found that prosocial values motives were most strongly associated with citizenship directed toward individuals, whereas organizational concern motives were most strongly related to citizenship directed toward the organization. Korsgaard, Meglino, Lester, and Jeong (2010) examined the interaction of motives and individual differences (other orientation) that predict OCB in situations in which OCB is unrewarded. Kamdar, McAllister, and Turban (2006) found that empathy (defined as empathetic concern and perspective taking) was a better predictor of individual-level citizenship behaviors, whereas reciprocation wariness was a better predictor of citizenship toward the organization. These latter findings reflect an effort to understand citizenship through motives related to social exchange theory (SET; Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In SET, an individual's motives are thought to be contingent upon relational obligations and duties formed through exchanges of resources with other individuals or groups. SET posits that two exchanging parties are likely to build high-quality relationships characterized by trust and commitment to one another. From this perspective, citizenship is a form of resource exchange with an organization or other individual. Accordingly, Kamdar et al. suggested that empathetic individuals tend to define their job role in terms of citizenship and are willing to exchange their citizenship with coworkers and the organization alike. In contrast, workers who are more concerned about reciprocation from their exchange partner will only exchange with the more powerful and resource-rich organization where there is a higher likelihood of reward. Similar reasoning can be used to explain the finding by Anand, Vidyarthi, Hoffman, and Sauer (2010) that those who negotiate nonstandard work arrangements (e.g., flexible work schedules) are more likely to engage in citizenship, and the finding that supervisor mentoring improves OCB-I but not OCB-O (Eby, Butts, Hoffman, and Sauer, 2015).

Also from a social exchange perspective, Joireman, Kamdar, Daniels, and Duell (2006) found that "concern over future consequences" (CFC) predicts citizenship. Because the benefits of engaging in citizenship behavior are longer term, individuals who are not concerned with their own benefits in the long term are more likely to engage in citizenship behavior irrespective of their expected length of tenure with an employer. Conversely, individuals who have higher CFC will withhold citizenship in cases where their expected tenure is short because of lack of perceived benefits. The importance of this finding for selection is that screening for citizenship will be ineffective for high-CFC applicants if term of employment is unclear or known to be short.

Bowler and Brass (2006) found that individuals were more likely to both give and receive OCB from those with whom they had a relational tie or were connected through a friend in a social network. Workers in powerful structural positions were also more likely to receive OCB from others. These findings were bolstered by a later study by Venkatramani and Dalal (2007), who found that having a direct or indirect (third party) positive affective tie led to increased instances of interpersonal helping. Taken together, these studies suggest that friendship, direct and indirect, can increase the likelihood of giving and receiving helping behavior from coworkers. In fostering a genial workplace, an organization may then reap the benefits of citizenship performance.

More recently, self-regulation has been used to explain citizenship relationships. In an experience sampling study of workday breaks, Hunter and Wu (2015) found that preferred breaks that occurred earlier in the work shift improved citizenship through resource recovery. Trougakos, Beal, Cheng, Hideg, and Zweig (2015) also tested a resource depletion model of daily OCB. Bolino, Hsuing, Harvey, and LePine (2015) drew upon some of the same notions to explain citizenship fatigue. These studies point toward the notion that situational characteristics that cause employees to expend regulatory resources reduce citizenship, while situational characteristics or interventions that conserve or replenish resources increase citizenship.

Immediate/Proximal Determinants—Adaptability

Consistent with Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager (1993) and process models of performance (e.g., Johnson, 2008; Van Iddekinge, Ferris, & Heffner, 2009), research into proximal predictors of adaptive performance tend to focus on motivational constructs, such as self-efficacy and job knowledge. Much of the adaptive performance model-building work comes out of lab studies conducted in the skill acquisition literature, rather than in field studies. However, one motivational construct, self-efficacy, has been studied in both settings with some regularity, although the construct is defined differently across studies.

Griffin et al. (2007) examined role breadth self-efficacy, which they found to be related to individual adaptive and proactive performance dimensions, with a particularly strong correlation with proactive performance. Pulakos et al. (2002) examined self-efficacy for adaptive performance and found it to be related to adaptive performance, but not incrementally over cognitive ability and personality predictors. Various laboratory studies have found self-efficacy to be related to adaptive transfer (Bell & Kozlowski, 2008), though its effect is often mediated by self-regulatory activities (Chen et al., 2005; see Jundt et al., 2015 and Chen & Firth, 2014 for more complete reviews).

The other proximal predictor frequently covered in the adaptive performance literature is job-specific knowledge and skills. In skill acquisition studies, researchers have consistently found declarative knowledge of the training topic to be a significant predictor of adaptive transfer (Bell & Kozlowski, 2008; Hughes et al., 2013; Kozlowski et al., 2001). Other knowledge and skill domains, such as general knowledge (Hunter et al., 2012), role knowledge and skill (Chen et al., 2005), and political skills (Blickle et al., 2011), have also been identified as predictive of adaptive performance dimensions. More research is needed to fully uncover the range of knowledge and skill structures that may be predictive of adaptive performance in organizations.

Immediate/Proximal Determinants—Citizenship

Although stable individual differences are clearly important for the prediction of citizenship performance, the better part of its variance remains unexplained. One likely reason for the modest correlations between stable characteristics and citizenship is that their influence is transmitted by more proximal variables. Three categories of predictors that hold great promise are attitudes, knowledge, and skills.

In their seminal meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that, with the exception of conscientiousness, attitudinal variables were stronger predictors than dispositional variables of OCB, with mean uncorrected correlations that were 5–15 points higher. More recently, Rich, LePine, and Crawford (2010) found that job engagement transmitted the effects of value congruence, perceived organizational support, and core self-evaluation on OCB. Several studies have examined within-person OCB effects. Ilies et al. (2006) found that within-person variance in citizenship could be explained by within-person variance in positive and negative affect and job satisfaction. Spence, Brown, Keeping, and Lian (2014) found that state gratitude explained within-person variance in citizenship beyond state positive affect. Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009) found the positive affect at the previous time point did not explain variance in OCB at the next time point when concurrent positive affect was included as a predictor.

Until recently, researchers had only hinted at knowledge and skills that might predict citizenship performance. For example, Motowidlo et al. (1997) provided general examples of citizenship performance knowledge and skills. In addition, much of the empirical work has asserted a particular knowledge and/or skill as relevant for effective performance in a specific domain (e.g., Bergman, Donovan, & Drasgow, 2001, interpersonal skill predicting leadership; Morgeson, Reider, & Campion, 2005, interpersonal and teamwork skills predicting team performance; Motowidlo, Brownless, & Schmit, 1998, and Schmit, Motowidlo, Degroot, Cross, & Kiker, 1996, customer service knowledge and skill predicting customer service performance). Other research has worked backward to determine knowledge and skills (e.g., Bess, 2001). For

example, a situational judgment test presents a participant with an interpersonal situation that may be encountered on the job for which they are applying, and then he or she must select the most effective response. Subject matter experts (SMEs) then decide which items measure overall job knowledge relevant to citizenship performance dimensions. Thus, no particular citizenship performance knowledge and skill is identified.

Dudley and Cortina (2008) developed a conceptual model linking specific knowledge and skill variables to the Personal Support facets of citizenship performance. Among the most prominent knowledge-based predictors were strategy richness, emotional knowledge, knowledge influence tactics, and organizational norm knowledge. Among the most prominent skill-based predictors were emotion support skills, emotion management skills, facework skills, behavioral flexibility, social perceptiveness, and perspective-taking skills. We refer the reader to Dudley and Cortina (2008) for the bases of the linkages. To our knowledge, only one study has examined specific knowledge in the prediction of citizenship performance. Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter (2001) found that two customer-knowledge antecedents explained unique variance in service-oriented OCBs after controlling for attitudinal and personality variables.

Regarding skill, there has been a good deal of research linking political skill to OCB. For example, Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, and Hochwarter (2008) and Liu, Ferris, Zinko, Perrewé, Weitz, and Xu (2007) found that political skill was positively related to OCB because those with political skill are better able to understand what is important to others and are therefore able to select more effective helping behaviors. Politically skilled individuals are also able to make their OCBs more salient to others. Munyon et al. (2015) found an uncorrected correlation between political skill and OCB of .33.

Indirect evidence has been found for the effect of interpersonal skills on the fostering of helping in creative tasks. Porath and Erez (2007) found that incidents of rudeness were related to decreased levels of helping toward the rude person and to unrelated others. This suggests that rudeness has wide-ranging effects in interdependent contexts, such as team performance, where helping can contribute substantially to performance.

Leader characteristics and practices have been found to be predictive of citizenship behavior consistent with social exchange. For instance, leaders who provide guidance to their followers on appropriate types of behaviors (i.e., citizenship), when bolstered by behavioral integrity (word-behavior consistency in leader), leads to follower OCB (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006). Abusive supervision has also been linked to lower perceptions of organizational justice, which acts as a mediator to predict levels of citizenship (Ayree, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007).

A good deal of work has linked positive leader-member exchange (LMX) to citizenship. Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007) found that LMX was related to OCB-I. Several papers have identified mediators of this relationship. Hu and Liden (2013) found self-efficacy to act as a mediator, and in a meta-analysis, Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, and Epitropaki (2015) found that trust, motivation, empowerment, satisfaction, and leadership trust transmitted the effects of LMX onto OCB.

Transformational leadership has also been linked to citizenship behaviors. However, a study found that Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory constructs mediated the transformational leadership-citizenship relation (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Specifically, transformational leadership was found to influence the "meaning" ascribed by employees to elements of their jobs (such as their perceptions of skill variety and identity). This in turn led to intrinsic motivation, which mediated the relation between job characteristics constructs and citizenship behavior. Others suggest that the transformational leadership-citizenship relation is mediated by LMX (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). In this case, transformational leadership is a cue to a follower that the leader is a trustworthy exchange partner. This leads to greater investment by the follower in the relationship and then stronger positive LMX perceptions.

Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, and Lowe (2009) used SET to argue that followers' fairness perceptions mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB. Although not examined from a SET perspective, Rosen, Levy, and Hall's (2006) study can be also understood from a social exchange point of view. Rosen et al. found that fostering a climate where feedback is provided reduces perceptions of organizational politics and increases employee morale. High feedback environments suggest that the outcomes enjoyed by individuals are determined in a

procedurally fair manner and are not based on political skill but on contributions to organizational success, which lead to citizenship. This suggests that resources devoted to selecting good citizens may not be well spent unless the environment is conducive to citizenship.

Additionally, complementarity in control-related personality characteristics (leader having more and subordinates having less controlling personalities) was posited to lead to positive social exchanges (Glomb & Welsh, 2005). The complementarity hypothesis was not supported. Rather, there was a main effect for subordinate control, suggesting that individuals need a sense of control over their work (consistent with some evidence outlined above) to exhibit OCB.

In closing, we should mention that most research conducted on predictors of citizenship and adaptive performance has used job incumbents as subjects of their research. To increase the confidence that the above predictors are in fact the causes of the observed effects on performance, predictive validity studies using applicant populations need to be conducted.

MEASUREMENT

Measuring Adaptive Performance

In considering methods for measuring individual adaptive performance, we must first return to our definition of adaptive performance as an effective behavioral response to an altered state. This definition suggests that as work situations change, individuals can be evaluated on their effectiveness in (a) recognizing and preparing for the change and (b) maintaining situational awareness and performing during the altered state (Penney, David, & Witt, 2011). Another important aspect of this definition is that adaptive performance is not independent of task and contextual performance (Pulakos et al., 2006). In the performance of technical duties, situations, such as emergencies or new requirements, may emerge that require adaptive performance. The central implication of this definition is that the best measures of adaptive performance will be contextualized to the job or jobs of interest.

With this definition as the backdrop, there are two central considerations in developing an adaptive performance measure: (a) the types of change likely to be encountered on the job and (b) the method of measurement. To the first consideration, there are numerous frameworks to draw from, although the eight dimensions first introduced by Pulakos and colleagues (2000) provide an empirically supported starting point (Baard et al., 2014). Bartram's (2005) "Adapting and Coping" competency provides a similar, though less fully operationalized framework (see Appendix, pp. 1202–1203). Baard and colleagues (2014) offer task complexity as a conceptual underpinning for change type (see Figure 2, p. 90). Other authors have suggested a higher-order dimensional structure to Pulakos and colleagues' (2000) eight factors, such as proactive versus reactive and cognitive versus noncognitive forms of adaptive performance (Allworth & Hesketh, 1999; Huang et al., 2014; White et al., 2005).

With respect to the second consideration, method of measurement, we distinguish among three approaches: maximal, typical, and transfer (see Baard et al., 2014 for a more complete treatment of this topic). Many dimensions of adaptive performance, such as handling emergencies or crisis situations, are for most jobs rare events, suggesting that maximal performance methods may be more appropriate than typical performance methods. However, given the dynamic environment of the modern workplace, typical performance measurement methods may be appropriate in many settings.

Maximal performance methods include high-fidelity simulations, such as assessment centers and training simulations, and low-fidelity simulations, such as situational judgment tests (SJTs). Certain jobs, such as pilots (Crognale & Krebs, 2011), firefighters (Joung, Hesketh, & Neal, 2006), and special forces officers (Raybourn, Deagle, Mendini, & Heneghan, 2005), routinely employ high-fidelity simulations that involve situations requiring adaptive behaviors to evaluate performance. However, adaptive performance dimensions could also be assessed with low-fidelity methods. For example, "solving problems creatively" could be assessed by asking participants to generate responses to novel problems and having experts rate the quality of those responses (e.g., Mumford, Baughman, Threlfall, Uhlman, & Costanza, 1993). Other studies have also used

SJT-like measurement methods to assess adaptability, which could also be applied to measuring adaptive performance (e.g., Oswald, Schmitt, Kim, Ramsay, & Gillespie, 2004).

Typical performance measurement methods usually involve behavioral ratings, most often by supervisors or peers. Multiple studies have developed and employed supervisory rating methods, often relying on the Pulakos et al. (2000) framework as a starting point. Other rating methods that involve more sources, such as 360-degree methods, have not seen significant use in the literature, but researchers should consider these and other alternative methods of measuring typical adaptive performance. Experience sampling may represent another viable measurement alternative (Baard et al., 2014). Stokes, Schneider, and Lyons (2010) found a correlation between a subjective and an objective measure of adaptive performance to be .43, suggesting that maximal and typical performance methods of measurement are likely to be positively correlated but nonoverlapping.

The final approach is the adaptive transfer method. Although similar to maximal methods, this approach is distinct because it grew out of the skill acquisition literature rather than the performance measurement literature (Baard et al., 2014). In this paradigm, adaptive performance is measured by examining how individuals perform immediately after changes are made while performing complex tasks. “Change” could be a content change, such as increased speed or accuracy, or a context change, such as change from one physical context to another (Barnett & Ceci, 2002). Lang and Bliese (2009) distinguish between two types of altered state performance: (a) transition adaptation, or the extent to which performance does not decrease after a change, and (b) reacquisition adaptation, or the speed with which previous levels of performance are regained after a change. Their research suggests that psychological variables, such as cognitive ability, may differentially predict these two types of adaptation.

Measuring Citizenship-Related Variables

In measuring citizenship performance, there are four major issues to consider. First, although citizenship is often measured with global indices, few jobs require equal amounts of all dimensions. Thus, global measures are contaminated for almost all settings. Organizations would do well to identify the citizenship dimensions in which they are particularly interested.

Second, measures of citizenship vary in the degree to which they reflect activity rather than performance. Self-report measures of citizenship invariably emphasize activity (e.g., “I often help my coworkers when they have personal problems”) or attempt (e.g., “I often try to help my coworkers when they have personal problems”) rather than emphasizing the degree to which activities and attempts are successful. Measures from external sources such as supervisors are much more likely to reflect success. For this reason, external evaluation of citizenship is even more important than it is for other factors. Another way of characterizing this difference is to say that it is likely that a different model is tested if a self-report measure of citizenship is used rather than an external measure. This is not to say that supervisors cannot be asked about citizenship activity as opposed to citizenship performance. Rather, whereas an external source might be expected to produce an unbiased evaluation of citizenship quality, it is not reasonable to expect an unbiased evaluation of quality from the subject him/herself. Even if one focuses only on quantity, it is not always obvious what is being quantified. For example, Podsakoff, Maynes, Whiting, and Podsakoff (2015) found that item referent (group vs. individual) influenced the measurement of voice such that individual referents led raters to focus on frequency of voice behaviors, whereas group referents led them to focus on proportion of group members who exhibit voice.

To address the third issue, we return to the Ilies et al. (2006) study. These authors showed that there was tremendous within-person variability in citizenship such that the level of citizenship varied considerably from one day to the next. This finding might suggest either that citizenship is not a stable construct or that the extent to which a person has opportunities to display citizenship behaviors varies within and across workdays. More research is needed to clarify these issues. Episodic measurement of citizenship affords two types of citizenship measurement. In addition to treating episodic measurements separately, they can also be averaged. The values based on

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the individual episodes can be used to test within-person models such as that tested in Ilies et al. (2006), Judge et al. (2006), and Dalal et al. (2009). The averages of these episodic measurements are conceptually similar to the single-shot measures that are typical of citizenship research and can be used to test individual difference models.

Fourth, in describing the model of citizenship on which we would rely in this chapter, we mentioned that a good deal of conceptual overlap exist among the various facets of citizenship. This overlap creates serious measurement problems. For example, in writing items to measure the Personal Support facets helping and cooperation, Dudley and Cortina (2008) found that despite careful item distinctions, a group of SMEs had difficulty in categorizing items accurately. This is consistent with the Hoffman et al. (2007) finding that raters typically have difficulty in discriminating among subdimensions without the aid of “frame-of-reference” training.

It should also be mentioned that, just as there are unique difficulties in the measurement of citizenship, there are unique difficulties in the measurement of the knowledge and skills that predict citizenship. We mentioned in the previous paragraph that dimensions of citizenship are difficult to measure, in part because they are difficult to distinguish from the knowledge and skills that predict them. This problem cuts both ways in that knowledge and skills are difficult to measure because they are difficult to distinguish from the dimension that they are intended to predict.

MODERATORS AND MEDIATORS—ADAPTABILITY

As noted elsewhere, adaptive performance is not independent of task and contextual performance. One implication is that general models of performance are likely to apply to adaptive performance and may be useful in providing a conceptual framework for identifying relevant mediators and moderators of adaptive performance. For example, Campbell’s model (1993) of job performance specifies that differences in performance are a result of the interactive effects of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and motivation. Differences in declarative and procedural knowledge are related to much of what is captured in the individual difference approach to adaptability (e.g., ability, personality, skill, interest, experience). Differences in motivation can result from goal orientation (e.g., Elliott & Dweck, 1988), self-efficacy, situational appraisal, self-regulation, and so on (see Chan & Firth, 2014 for a thorough description of the motivational underpinnings of adaptive performance). These distinctions map onto the “can do” and “will do” components emphasized elsewhere (e.g., Schmitt & Chan, 2014).

Baard et al. (2014) stressed the need to specify the performance requirements that changed and described how those changes required adaptation and of what kind. That call is very much in line with the Pulakos et al. (2000) model of adaptive performance, which essentially defines categories of situations and responses. Dorsey, Cortina, and Luchman (2010) noted the importance of the characteristics of the task domain, such as complexity, in moderating the relationship between determinants and adaptive performance. Kozlowski and colleagues (e.g., Bell & Kozlowski, 2002, 2008; Kozlowski et al., 2001) have used Wood’s (1986) taxonomy to describe the nature of the complexity within the task domain. Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) highlight the role of the degree of uncertainty and interdependence, whereas others have emphasized interdependence (cf., Reis, 2008). These task or situational features are likely to be particularly important in examining cross-level effects. For example, the degree of task interdependence may affect the importance of team structure (e.g., coordination, communication and assisting processes) when team adaptive performance is of interest (e.g., Hollenbeck et al., 2011). Frameworks such as McGrath’s (1984) Group Task Circumplex may serve as a useful organizing structure in thinking through task characteristics that may affect observed relationships. Tett and Burnett (2003) divide situational demands into task demands, social demands, and organizational demands. All three are likely to moderate the relationship between determinants and adaptive performance.

Situational or environmental characteristics can also have an impact. For example, compensation systems can either reward or suppress proactive and adaptive responses. Organizational norms, cultures, and climates may be implicated in the amount of adaptive performance

observed at the individual or team level (e.g., Ployhart & Turner, 2014). In a training context, interventions such as manipulations of state goal orientation and error management training can enhance adaptive transfer (Bell & Kozlowski, 2008; Jundt et al., 2015; Kozlowski et al., 2001). These results suggest that the mechanisms contributing to team and organizational culture and climate (e.g., processes, leadership) should be aligned to facilitate adaptive performance.

MODERATORS AND MEDIATORS—CITIZENSHIP

Various environmental variables might act as moderators in the prediction of citizenship. Much can be learned from research on other criteria. Barrick and Mount (1993) found that autonomy moderated the degree to which job performance was predicted by conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness. Because citizenship is more susceptible than job performance to individual choices, it seems likely that autonomy would moderate the relationship between most predictors and citizenship. Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick (2004) found that perceptions of the developmental environment and perceived organizational support moderated the relationship between personality and workplace deviance. This is consistent with the Ilies et al. (2006) finding that attitudes and personality interact to predict citizenship. Although citizenship can be predicted by factors such as personality traits (e.g., conscientiousness) and job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction), research is beginning to show that focusing only on factors predictive of task performance may result in a decreased ability to explain citizenship.

Citizenship is highly interpersonal in nature and, as was outlined above, is beginning to be understood from an SET perspective. Accounting for personality and SET on citizenship performance, Kamdar and Van Dyne (2007) used conscientiousness, agreeableness, LMX, and TMX (team-member exchange) to predict citizenship. Consistent with prior research, both personality traits predicted citizenship toward supervisors and coworkers. However, LMX and TMX were also able to predict citizenship above and beyond personality (for supervisors and coworkers, respectively). Furthermore, agreeableness was found to moderate the relationship between quality of LMX and citizenship such that individuals with high levels of agreeableness do not need high-quality exchanges to engage in citizenship behavior.

In sum, Kamdar and Van Dyne's (2007) findings suggested that when we fail to account for nontraditional predictors such as exchange relationship quality, our ability to predict citizenship is diminished, and agreeableness appears to have a more consistent relationship with citizenship than it really does (in reality, it appears to change depending on exchange relationship quality).

The organizational justice literature has begun to explore the role of moderators in the relationship between justice and citizenship. For instance, Kamdar et al. (2006) found that job role mediates the relationship between procedural justice and citizenship. Thus, individuals who define their job role as involving citizenship will engage in these behaviors irrespective of whether they experience procedural justice at work or not. Those who do not will essentially "withhold" citizenship when not treated fairly. Procedural justice has also been found to be more strongly related to "taking charge" citizenship when perceived discretion over the demonstration of these behaviors is low (i.e., they are role prescribed; McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007). Interestingly, this same study found that altruistic/interpersonal citizenship had a stronger relationship with high perceived discretion of citizenship when procedural justice was low (McAllister et al., 2007). This finding is consistent with research by Halbesleben and Bowler (2007), in which interpersonal citizenship was found to be used as a social support coping mechanism when conditions at work are stressful.

Findings related to procedural justice climate (PJC) are consistent with some of the research outlined above. For instance, Yang, Mossholder, and Peng (2007) found that average group levels of "power distance," or the extent to which individuals defer to decisions of powerful individuals and accept power imbalances, moderates the relationship between PJC and citizenship. Groups with high average levels of power distance will not "withhold" citizenship toward the organization when faced with unfair treatment at the group level because they do not feel that arbitrary decisions made by leaders justify such a reaction. Other instances of multilevel research suggest that attitude targets moderate relationships across levels. Thus, group-level

justice perceptions are more strongly related to “higher-level” recipients of citizenship (e.g., Liao & Rupp, 2005, Redman & Snape, 2005).

Other leader characteristics and practices have been found to moderate relations between personality and contextual variables and citizenship behavior. For instance, charismatic leadership has been found to interact with feelings of follower belongingness such that charisma is less important in cases in which follower belongingness is high (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Keegan, 2007). Leader influence tactics on subordinate’s citizenship performance has also been found to be contingent upon the quality of the relationship between leader and follower (i.e., LMX). For instance, inspirational techniques are negatively related to citizenship for followers with poor-quality LMX because these appeals reinforce value incongruence between the leader and the follower (Sparrowe, Soetjito, & Kraimer, 2006). However, those higher in LMX were encouraged to engage in more citizenship by using exchange appeals in which resources are exchanged between leader and subordinate. This was likely construed as “just another exchange” of many already positive exchanges between the leader and follower (Sparrowe et al., 2006). As a whole, the justice and SET-related research above suggests that to the extent that some other individual difference predictor is not making an employee engage in citizenship, being treated well by the organization can compensate. Thus, high levels of certain individual differences bound justice and SET’s prediction of citizenship.

In addition to SET as an explanation of citizenship behavior, researchers are beginning to recognize the role of self-enhancement as a motive for citizenship (e.g., Bowler & Brass, 2006; Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007). Research has shown that in cases where an employee’s role is ambiguous, employees will engage in more citizenship performance toward the organization to make up for their inability to determine which behaviors are valued (Yun et al., 2007). This relationship only holds for employees who are perceived as having high levels of affective organizational commitment, otherwise their citizenship motives are transparent and recognized as being self-interested (Yun et al., 2007). Of particular interest here is a study by Grant and Mayer (2009) showing that prosocial and impression management motives interact to predict citizenship such that impression management is less predictive for those high in prosocial motives. Other studies have found a similar role played by time management (Rapp, Bachrach, & Rapp, 2013) and job ambivalence (Ziegler, Schlett, Casel, & Diehl, 2012).

One study has suggested that commitment may be less predictive than the configurations of differing types of commitment (Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, & Wright, 2005). The purpose of this study was to tease apart how different profiles or levels of affective and continuance commitment within persons predicted citizenship performance between persons. “Devoted” (high affective, continuance commitment) employees were found to have consistently higher citizenship than other profiles, and “free agents” (moderate continuance, low affective) were found to have consistently low citizenship.

Recent work has also uncovered curvilinear citizenship relationships. Rubin, Deirdorff, and Bachrach (2013) found that the relationship between citizenship and task performance weakens as citizenship increases. MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Podsakoff (2011) found an inverted U relationship between group-level OCBs and task performance. Both studies identified moderators of these curvilinear relationships as well, such as autonomy and accountability.

Finally, we return once again to Ilies et al. (2006) and Dalal et al. (2009). These authors first demonstrated that there is meaningful within-person variance in citizenship. Using an event sampling approach, these authors showed that a sizable percentage of the total variance in citizenship was within-person variance. These studies then showed that within-person citizenship variance had a good deal of overlap with within-person variance in job attitudes such as job satisfaction and positive affect. Finally, Ilies et al. found that stable individual difference variables such as agreeableness moderated this within-person relationship. By treating citizenship as a within-person variable, Ilies et al. and Dalal et al. offer a different perspective on the topic and point to a need to better understand the fundamental stability and drivers of stability/instability of this construct and its measures.

In short, some task and organizational variables suppress adaptability or citizenship, change their components, muffle the influence of determinants, or transmit the effects of those determinants. If one is to maximize the utility of an adaptability-based or citizenship-based selection system, then these variables and this impact must be recognized.

IMPACT ON ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES

Impact of Adaptability

How can selecting individuals who are more likely to engage in adaptive behavior and adaptive performance impact organizational bottom-line results? One answer to this question is to posit that having more adaptive individuals makes for more adaptive organizations. This line of thinking views organizational adaptability as an emergent phenomenon driven by the adaptive capabilities of organizational members (Kozlowski, Watola, Nowakowski, Kim, & Botero, 2008). Still, one can ask what such adaptability looks like at the level of organizational outcomes. Reviewing the existing literature on all of the ways in which organizations adapt to become more effective is well beyond the scope of this chapter [see Ployhart and Turner (2014) for a more complete treatment of internal and external firm adaptation]. Here, we propose (based on educated speculation) three ways in which individual-level adaptive performance might aggregate to affect or link to organizational outcomes; namely, (a) managing change, (b) increasing organizational learning, and (c) maintaining customer focus.

The first of these items suggests that organizations with higher levels of individual adaptive capacity might manage change better. As suggested earlier, modern organizations merge, grow, shrink, or expand (often globally), thus requiring adaptation on the part of their members. If members are better able to tolerate, manage, and leverage such changes, organizations are likely to be more effective. Research literature supports the contention that variables such as openness to change serve as moderators of important organizational outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, turnover; Wanberg & Banas, 2000).

In addition, constant change from technologies, globalization, restructuring, etc. require organizational members at various levels of aggregation (individual, teams/units, entire organizations) to learn new skills, tasks, and technologies. Thus, the popular notion of a “learning organization” may depend largely on the adaptive capacity of its constituent members (Redding, 1997). Lastly, as markets, environments, and missions change, organizations and their members must refocus on what customers want, value, and need. Thus, we highlight maintaining a focus on customers as a final potential organizational outcome related to adaptive performance. As individual performers seek to adaptively sense and respond to customer demands, organizational effectiveness is likely enhanced.

Impact of Citizenship

Citizenship performance does indeed contribute to organizational effectiveness (e.g., George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Karambayya, 1990, as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000; Koys, 2001; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2000). This is especially true in cases in which work tasks are interdependent (Bachrach, Powell, Collins, & Richey, 2006b). Other research has confirmed that fostering citizenship leads to positive organizational outcomes. Specifically, service-related citizenship partially mediated the relationship between social exchange-informed HR practices and organizational productivity and turnover (Sun, Ayree, & Law, 2007). Li, Zhao, Walter, and Zhang (2015) found that an “extra miler” in a team (i.e., a team member exhibiting citizenship behaviors) improves team functioning to the degree that the person occupies a central position in the network. Payne and Webber (2006) found that service-oriented citizenship (i.e., toward customers) is related to customer attitudes such as satisfaction, loyalty intentions, relationship tenure, positive word-of-mouth, and reduced complaining. Similar to Sun et al. (2007), these results suggested that positive social exchanges predict citizenship.

Research has demonstrated that citizenship performance is important in supervisory ratings of performance (Borman et al., 1995; Conway, 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Werner, 1994). Group task interdependence has been found to moderate the effects of OCB on performance appraisals (Bachrach, Powell, Bendoly, & Richey, 2006a).

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Although supervisors may typically ignore or deemphasize the centrality of OCB to overall job performance, when tasks are highly interdependent, the need for cooperation and helping is more difficult to disregard. Thus, with higher levels of interdependence, the influence of citizenship on performance appraisal is more pronounced. However, other research suggests that the influence of citizenship on performance appraisal is affected by social comparison. If an employee's workgroup exhibits high average levels of citizenship, then any given employee's levels are comparatively lower and tend to have weaker associations with appraisal outcomes than employees who are in workgroups with lower average levels of citizenship (Bommer, Dierdorff, & Rubin, 2007).

Whiting, Podsakoff, and Pierce (2008) decomposed the citizenship domain into "helping" or altruistic citizenship, "voice" (similar to "taking charge"), and "loyalty" to gauge their independent effects on performance appraisal outcomes. This study found that independent of task performance, all three citizenship dimensions predicted appraisals, with loyalty having the strongest association. Interestingly, a three-way interaction was found such that when helping is low and task performance high, voice loses its association with positive appraisals. Because voice is more confrontational than the other forms of citizenship, when employees are not contributing in other areas of their job, their challenges to organizational routine are undervalued.

Ferrin, Dirks, and Shah (2006) found that OCB-Is or interpersonal citizenship behaviors were predictive of ratings of interpersonal trust, especially in cases where the social networks of the rater and ratee were similar. This is because interpersonal citizenship behaviors are explicitly altruistic in nature and are therefore taken to indicate the trustworthiness of the person engaging in it.

TOO MUCH OF A GOOD THING?

Too Much Adaptability?

In some performance environments, the study of excessive, unpredictable, and/or ineffective changes in response to perceptions of altered situations may prove useful. For example, in military settings, it may be important to research the nature of shifts between following standard operating procedures (e.g., doctrine) and engaging in nonroutine acts of adaptive performance. It is possible that an overemphasis on adaptability can lead to individuals, teams, or organizations that are out of control or fail to institutionalize effective practices. Although we are not aware of research that directly addresses the boundary conditions under which adaptive performance becomes too adaptive, it should be one consideration in studying adaptive performance. In addition, there is little extant evidence regarding subgroup differences in adaptive performance. Future research should address this gap.

Too Much Citizenship?

Research has shown that there are smaller subgroup differences on citizenship than on technical performance (Hattrup, Rock, & Scalia, 1997; Murphy & Shiarella, 1997; Ployhart & Holtz, 2008). This would suggest that a criterion space that comprises a larger percentage of citizenship should yield smaller differences among demographic subgroups. The story is not so simple. Heilman and Chen (2005) found that there are gender differences in expectations regarding the ratio of technical to citizenship performance, such that women are expected to engage in more and better citizenship than are men. Specifically, they found that the positive effects of engaging in altruistic OCB were observed in the performance appraisals of men but not of women. Conversely, women were penalized by raters for not engaging in citizenship. The authors attributed this to gender differences in role expectations. When women do not engage in altruistic citizenship, they are seen as failing to fulfill their roles. When men do engage in citizenship,

they are rewarded because their behavior is seen as “extra-role.” This creates various problems for selection. First, it may skew validation results by introducing criterion inflation or deflation depending on the incumbent’s gender. Second, it creates a need for different weighting schemes for selection tests depending on gender—a need that cannot legally be met.

Citizenship has also been linked to employee race. Jones and Schaubroek (2004) found that relative to White employees, non-White employees tended to have lower self- and supervisor-reported OCB. However, this relationship was partially mediated by job satisfaction, negative affectivity, and coworker social support. Furthermore, citizenship has been found to be related to employee age. In a meta-analysis by Ng and Feldman (2009), age was found to have several nonzero correlations with self- and supervisor-rated dimensions of citizenship.

Citizenship behavior has also been linked to increased amounts of work-family conflict and stress/strain, especially when an employee’s individual initiative is high. If individuals strive not only to do their job well but also to be good organizational citizens, then they are likely to experience role conflict with their family life, an effect that is especially strong for working women (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Finally, as was mentioned earlier, the findings of Rubin et al. (2013) and MacKenzie et al. (2011) suggest that opportunity costs are associated with citizenship. A lack of citizenship is bad for the group and the organization. On the other hand, citizenship can come at the cost of task performance, and there appears to be a happy medium such that either more or less citizenship can be detrimental.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to review recent research on two performance dimensions that represent departures from traditional job performance models: adaptive performance and citizenship performance. For each of these dimensions, we began by offering definitions that clarify their nature and their distinctiveness. We then reviewed research on distal and proximal predictors of these dimensions and discussed variables that might moderate the relationships between these dimensions and other variables. Finally, we discussed the consequences of these dimensions.

A wide array of research has been conducted on predictors of adaptive and citizenship performance. For both criteria, further research at the facet level may be fruitful to help disentangle weak or mixed findings and better understand potential tradeoffs across criteria. For example, the findings regarding the relationship between conscientiousness and adaptive performance have been mixed; however, facet-level relationships may be driving the mixed results, such that achievement striving is positively related to adaptive performance, whereas duty is negatively correlated. On the other hand, researchers have found duty to be positively related to “taking charge” citizenship and achievement striving to be negatively related.

With regard to mediators, situational knowledge, self-efficacy, and regulatory processes mediate relationships with adaptive performance, whereas attitudes and affect facilitate relationships with citizenship performance. Moreover, specific performance requirements and situational characteristics moderate individual difference–performance relationships. Important performance requirements include complexity, uncertainty, interdependence, and autonomy. Situational characteristics include compensation, norms, culture, climate, exchange relationship quality, and leader characteristics.

This chapter should make clear that adaptive and citizenship performance are important and complex. One reason that they are important is that they relate to variables that are of great interest to organizations, such as performance appraisal, group effectiveness, change management, and stressors. Another reason is that they are distinct from alternative dimensions, conceptually and nomologically. If, as seems to be the case, these dimensions are underrepresented in performance appraisals, then the weighting of dimensions in those systems is suboptimal. In addition to the obvious consequences for organizational productivity, this would also result in

discrimination against protected groups to the degree that these dimensions create smaller subgroup differences than do the dimensions that are commonly included in appraisal instruments.

If these dimensions are important, then more work must be done to determine how important they are (i.e., optimal weighting) and how relative importance varies with situational or organizational characteristics. More research must also be done to identify the determinants of these dimensions. Because many of these determinants are malleable (e.g., skills, leader behaviors), research must also evaluate interventions designed to increase adaptive performance and citizenship through the improvement of these determinants. One important issue to note is that uncertainty in work roles is sometimes the subject of labor–management conflicts. Organizations may need to balance incorporating adaptive performance into performance conceptualizations with union concerns regarding uncertainty in job roles.

In closing, we would point out that there is no reason to stop here. If performance is to be understood, then adaptive performance and citizenship must receive specific attention. However, there are bound to be other dimensions of performance that should also be added to the mix. If it can be demonstrated that a new dimension is conceptually distinct from existing dimensions, has important consequences, and has a set of determinants that differ from those of other dimensions, then that new dimension should also be added to our models of performance.

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