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A Longitudinal Examination of Personality at Work: Examining the Relationship Between Variability in Personality and Job Performance and Turnover Intentions

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Abstract

The present study examined the relationship between variability in personality and important organizational outcomes, including multi-faceted job performance and turnover intentions. Furthermore, this study tested the mediating effects of self-esteem, anxiety, leader-member exchange, and job satisfaction. Finally, various situational contingencies were examined as a potential source of Big Five personality states. Experience sampling methodology was used to repeatedly measure working participants' state personality over the course of two weeks. Self and other (i.e., coworker or supervisor) performance ratings were collected.

Results showed that variability in a general factor of personality had statistically significant relationships with anxiety, leader-member exchange, job satisfaction, and self-rated counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs). Furthermore, results showed statistically significant indirect paths from variability in personality to self-rated CWBs, through job satisfaction and anxiety. These results were not seen for other-ratings of CWBs. Additional models were tested on the individual facets of the Big Five, with conscientiousness and neuroticism showing statistically significant relationships to multiple mediators and outcomes. Finally, the situational contingency results showed a statistically significant relationship from friendliness of interactions to state extraversion and state agreeableness. These findings have important theoretical and practical implications as the field begins to move past static conceptualizations of personality.

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between Variability in Personality and Job Performance and Turnover Intentions

Personality research, as it applies to organizations, has gone through a number of

changes in the past 40 years. An implicit assumption of this research has been that

personality constructs are stable enough to be useful as predictors of important outcome

variables, such as performance and turnover. Much effort has been devoted to defining

and measuring such constructs, but the question as to their stability on a daily basis

generally has been neglected. A primary focus of the present research was therefore to

contribute to our knowledge regarding the issue of stability of personality and how such

stability, or a lack thereof, may relate to outcomes.

Personality Research: Taxonomies and Faking

Early organizational research on personality seemed to conclude that human

behavior was so complicated that numerous different constructs would be needed to

adequately explain personality (see Chernyshenko, Stark, & Drasgow, 2011 for a

review). There were literally hundreds of studies that examined many similar, but

slightly distinct, constructs (e.g., the 16PF; Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970). This

resulted in a variety of different findings, which made it hard to conclude much of

anything about the impact of personality on organizational outcomes. An influential

review article by Guion and Gottier (1965) argued that there was little evidence of the

validity of personality constructs, and as a result there was an extended period during

which relatively little research was conducted on personality in organizations.

Fortunately, researchers were not content, and several more recent review articles found

that all personality constructs could be organized into a relatively parsimonious

taxonomy of conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, and openness

to experience (Costa & McCrae 1988; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990). These Big Five

personality traits helped rejuvenate research on personality in organizations as they

presented a comprehensible and organized way to study personality.

Research has shown that the Big Five personality constructs are predictive of a

wide variety of important organizational outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Oswald &

Hough, 2011). Emerging as most important in an organizational context is

conscientiousness. Although definitions of conscientiousness tend to vary (see Roberts,

Chernyshenko, Stark & Goldberg, 2005), the construct is most often associated with

thorough, careful, and detail-oriented thoughts, behaviors, and feelings.

Conscientiousness has been shown to be a moderately strong predictor of future task

performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki, & Cortina, 2006),

organizational citizenship behaviors (Borman, Penner, Allen & Motowidlo, 2001; Organ

& Ryan, 1995), counterproductive work behaviors (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), team

processes and outcomes (Barrick, Mount, & Judge; 2001; Peeters, Van Tuijl, Rutte, &

Reymen, 2006), employee attitudes (Christian, Garza, Slaughter, 2011; Judge, Heller, &

Mount, 2002), and leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004), among other organizational

outcomes. The rest of the Big Five, particularly agreeableness, extraversion, and

neuroticism, are seen by many as "niche" predictors that are related to some

organizational outcomes, but certainly not all. For example, agreeableness has been

found to be the number one predictor of team processes (Barrick et al., 2001), while

openness is the number one predictor of training outcomes (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Many criticize the usefulness of personality in organizational settings, often citing low criterion-related validity. For example, some of the experts featured in Morgeson et al. (2007) argued that the use of personality tests in selection should cease until the field can strengthen the predictive validity of these selection methods. While a decade has passed since this article was published, many of the problems they discuss still persist. For example, Morgeson et al. (2007) noted that the broad nature of the Big Five has led to relatively modest criterion-related validity in that even the best measures of personality rarely explain more than 15% of the variance in performance. They also noted that this predictive ability could be improved by looking at narrow personality constructs that are tailored to a specific situation. Some researchers have found success pursuing this exact idea. Hough and Oswald (2008) argued that mid-level personality constructs are the key to developing useful personality measures, and studies have supported these arguments. Dudley et al. (2006) conducted a meta-analysis and found that lower level facets of conscientiousness could often predict various criteria better than a global measure. An additional meta-analysis by Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon, and Crawford (2013) took it a step further by looking at lower level facets of each of the Big Five, and found that combinations of the narrow facets were more predictive of overall job performance, task performance, and contextual performance than were broad traits. Today, many researchers agree that personality traits should be viewed as a hierarchy, with large constructs like the Big Five resting at the top, and more engrained constructs residing at the bottom (Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon & Crawford, 2013; Hough & Oswald, 2011).

As previous studies have shown, there are ways to improve the validity of personality tests by matching lower level constructs to specific criteria. However, a

number of other recommendations have been presented to strengthen the criterion-related validity of personality tests. For example, many believe that faking hurts validity (Dwight & Donovan, 2003; Fan, Gao, Carroll, Lopez, Tian, & Meng, 2012; Lammers, Macan, Hirtz, & Kim, 2014; van Hooft & Born, 2012). Those who believe faking is a concern often note that personality tests should theoretically predict future job performance because individuals with an appropriate level of a personality trait (as determined by a job analysis) will perform better on a job than individuals without that same level of the personality trait. Thus, if an individual without a certain level of a trait fakes a test and receives the position, he or she could be displacing a person who had a more appropriate level of the personality trait and would have performed better had he or she received the job offer. Researchers have created a number of different ways to combat personality test faking, including warnings (Dwight & Donovan, 2003; Lammers et al., 2014), social desirability scales, bogus items, the use of other reports (Oh, Wang, & Mount, 2011), and eye tracking software (van Hooft & Born, 2012). Although some of these methods have been effective in reducing applicant faking (Dwight & Donovan, 2003; Lammers et al., 2014), evidence shows that even when respondents should have absolutely no motivation to fake, such as when the tests are taken for research purposes, the relationship between personality and future job performance is still modest at best (Schmidt & Ryan, 1992). Thus, it seems there is a need for a fundamental change in the way the field thinks about personality testing in order for research to truly obtain progress.

Whole Trait Theory

Fleeson (2012) created Whole Trait Theory (WTT) with the ultimate goal of improving our field's understanding of the influence of personality on behavior. WTT combines trait-based and cognitive-based theories into a meta-theory that not only describes what behavior associated with a certain personality trait looks like (as a trait-based approach would), but also the cognitions and motivations that lead to such behavior. According to Fleeson (2012), pure trait based approaches, such as the Big Five, are deficient on several aspects. Trait-based approaches describe features of individuals' behavior, thoughts, and feelings, and attempt to explain how individuals differ from each other based on these features. However, there is no one trait-based approach that is able to explain all of human behavior.

Even the Big Five, the best-accepted taxonomy of personality in the literature today, has many critics (Ashton & Lee, 2001; Digman, 1997; Dudley et al., 2006; Hough & Oswald, 2008). Some argue that an honesty/humility factor should be added (Ashton & Lee, 2001), while others think a two factor model of personality is more appropriate (Digman, 1997). Without an established and tested model that encapsulates all human behavior, a trait-based approach will always be incomplete in some way. Furthermore, perhaps the main weakness of trait-based approaches is that they fail to acknowledge the manner in which traits influence behavior. Even advocates of trait-based approaches would likely not argue that the influence of traits on behavior is purely direct. Instead, most would agree that traits also influence behavior through the effects of individual's thoughts, feelings, and motivations. These mediators are rarely tested when studying personality from a trait-based approach.

Therefore, although trait-based approaches have led to many important findings in the field of personality, it is time to move past these fragmented theories into a more comprehensive and complete view of human behavior. The field needs a more integrative approach that allows us to understand the causes underlying behavior, as opposed to just describing the behavior itself. WTT answers this call (Fleeson, 2012). WTT compensates for the deficiencies of trait-based approaches by allowing us to incorporate the explanatory mechanisms that lead to behavior. The theory acknowledges that descriptions of behavior are important, but insufficient. They are insufficient because trait descriptions are only concerned with the influence of the person, and ignore the influence of the situation.

The person-situation debate has been around for many years (Kenrick & Funder, 1988). Those who advocate for the person's influence on behavior argue that consistency is the key to studying traits. These researchers posit that if an individual's behavior is different from one situation to the next then we cannot reliably provide a trait label for this individual. Although these arguments have merit, they ignore the fact that no one acts exactly the same from one situation to the next (Mischel & Shoda, 1995). For example, it would be hard to find someone who exhibits the same behavior at their own wedding as they would at the funeral for a beloved family member. If there was no influence of the environment then popular situation-based theories like Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model would have discredited long ago. Furthermore, the entire field of social psychology would have very little to contribute if human behavior was simply driven by trait characteristics.

Thus, it seems clear that the situation does influence behavior, but to what degree? There is a tendency for people to interpret and react to situations in a relatively consistent way. Mischel and Shoda (1995) noted that individuals will interpret disparate situations differently, but these interpretations tend to be reliable over time.

According to WTT (Fleeson, 2007; 2012), it is not the situation itself that is the determinant of one's behavior, but instead one's *interpretation* of this situation determines behavior. For example, the job of professor may be seen by some as autonomous and motivating, whereas others may view it as ambiguous and frustrating. Thus, in this case, it is not a personality trait that directly determines an individual's motivation, but instead motivation is determined by the more proximal interpretation of the situation. If we can explain and predict these interpretations we can build measures with higher validity than if we were to rely on traditional trait-based approaches. The idea that the person and situation are both important and interact with each other is the contemporary response to the "person-situation debate", and is also the key strength of WTT (Fleeson, 2007; Fleeson, 2012).

WTT combines trait and cognitive approaches by examining trait-like behavior at a state level. *Personality states*, as described by Fleeson (2009 p. 1099), have "the same affective, behavioral, and cognitive content as a corresponding trait (Pytlik Zillig et al., 2002), but as applying for a shorter duration." Personality states allow for a more proximal view of behavior because they allow researchers to examine how trait-like behavior is impacted by the situation on a daily basis. Although traditional trait-based approaches would argue that behavior is relatively stable from one situation to the next, Fleeson (2001) showed that, on average, the variability in one individual's behavior over

the course of two weeks was similar to the amount of between-person variability in the entire sample. Thus, for example, the typical individual was both very extraverted and introverted over the course of the study. However, this study also found that an individual's average trait level for one week was highly correlated with that same individual's average trait level for another week. In other words, individuals showed a wide range of behaviors in any given week, but the average of these behaviors was relatively consistent from one week to the next. This idea, called the "density distributions approach", is a key aspect of WTT (Fleeson, 2012). Traditional trait based approaches would focus solely on this mean, and ignore the variability around that mean. This is unfortunate because human behavior is rarely in line with the mean. That is, most individuals would likely fall on one side of the mean versus the other at any given time. Solely relying on a trait-based approach would provide us a best-guess estimate at an individual's behavior over the course of time, but it prevents us from developing more engrained, accurate predictions about how individuals will act in certain situations. WTT shifts the focus from variability between individuals to variability within individuals.

WTT improves upon traditional trait-based theories because it investigates behavior longitudinally. According to WTT, we must look at multiple personality states in order to truly understand the influence of personality on behavior. Contemporary organizational researchers are beginning to recognize that many of the phenomena that have traditionally been studied in a between-person nature should more appropriately be studied from a within-person perspective. For example, Bandura's social-cognitive theory posits that an individual's level of self-efficacy should influence future job performance (Bandura, 1997). This relationship has traditionally been studied by cross-

sectional, between-person designs, but Vancouver (Vancouver, 2012; Vancouver et al., 2001) found that within-person analyses showed the relationship between past performance and future self-efficacy is stronger than the relationship between past self-efficacy and future performance. Thus, without a longitudinal examination of this relationship one could easily have reached the wrong conclusions.

According to Dalal, Bhave, and Fiset (2014, p. 1399), "many, and perhaps even most, research questions in psychology and micro-organizational behavior are in reality within-person questions." In personality research, as applied to I-O psychology, research questions are mostly investigated in between-persons designs, with questions that look something like, "Does a person with a higher level of X have better job performance than a person with a lower level of X?" This type of study has led to much of what we know about personality in organizations to this day. However, wouldn't another important question look something like, "In what ways does an individual's personality interact with the environment, and how can we use this information to better determine whether this individual will perform adequately in this position?" This is a within-persons question. Only by looking at an individual's behavior multiple times, and in different situations, can we begin to determine how he or she will behave in the future. As mentioned in Cervone et al. (2006):

> …one is rarely interested in the average level of, for example, extraverted behavior that will be displayed by candidates for a sales representative position. One wants to know if the candidate has the capacity and tendency to be extraverted in those situations he or she might encounter in that specific job. (p. 370)

Through the lens of WTT, we can begin to examine the interaction between the person and situation in an attempt to bring our understanding of personality in organizations to a whole new level.

Situational Contingencies

Explaining the variability in personality is a key tenet of WTT, and through the lens of WTT we are not only interested in the amount of within-person variability in personality, but also why that variability exists. Central to WTT is the idea that individuals have situational contingencies that influence the way in which they react to certain environmental cues, and these lead to differential personality states. A contingency is most commonly defined as the consistent association between a situation and a personality state (Fleeson, 2007). Grounded in Mischel and Shoda's (1995) cognitive-affective personality system (CAPS) model, contingencies can also be thought of as "if-then" statements. Individuals differ in these contingencies, but they do so reliably (Fleeson, 2007). In other words, two *different* individuals with the same level of trait conscientiousness may react differently to being presented with an overly difficult task, but it is likely that the *same* person would react similarly to this task if they were presented with it again at a later time. Situational features can either be nominal or psychological (Minbashian et al., 2010). Nominal features are the specific details of a situation. For example, writing code for a webpage could be considered a nominal situation. As one can imagine, there are literally thousands, if not millions, of nominal features that workers encounter on a daily basis. Because of this, it would be next to impossible to create a taxonomy of nominal features that can be linked to personality states. Fortunately, contingencies can also be thought of in terms of their psychological

features (Minbashian et al., 2010), which explain the ways in which individuals interpret

various situations. For example, the level of ambiguity or complexity are psychological

features that can be applied to almost any objective, or nominal, situation.

These psychological contingencies have intrigued researchers for quite some

time, but to this date there is no well-accepted taxonomy of situational contingencies.

However, multiple studies have successfully linked situational contingencies to various

personality states. That is, there are workplace situations that seem to consistently elicit

specific personality states in individuals. For example, Fleeson (2007) found that

anonymity and friendliness of a situation were positively related to state extraversion, and

task orientation was positively related to state conscientiousness. Furthermore, Heppner

et al. (2007) found that daily autonomy, daily competence, and daily relatedness were all

uniquely and positively related to daily self-esteem, and Huang and Ryan (2011) found

that task focus was positively related to state conscientiousness, and friendliness of an

interaction was positively related to state extraversion. Finally, Minbashian et al. (2010)

found that task demand was positively related to state conscientiousness.

Among the situational contingencies previously studied in the literature, two

broad categories seem to emerge; contingencies related to the task and contingencies

related to the social environment in which one is embedded. Among contingencies

related to the task, two previously studied contingencies should relate to personality in a

workplace setting. Those two contingencies are task focus and task complexity. Task

focus concerns meeting a pressing deadline while under some type of supervisory

evaluation or observation (Huang & Ryan, 2011). Task focus may lead to

conscientiousness because individuals close to a deadline will have more motivation to be

organized and thorough, as they know their immediate behaviors will have a big impact on their ability to meet the deadline. Indeed, Huang and Ryan (2011) found that task focus was positively related to conscientiousness.

Hypothesis 1 – Task focus will be positively related to state conscientiousness.

Task complexity can be defined by the degree of novel actions and information processing that must occur in order for a task to completed (Wood, 1986). Occupations that feature dynamic environments are often quite complex due to the fact that individuals in these occupations are presented with new problems and challenges on a frequent basis. Task complexity may lead to conscientiousness because individuals who are presented with complex tasks will need to exert more cognitive resources and energy in order to accomplish this task. It is likely that individuals who are presented with a complex task will "buckle down" and become more orderly and efficient (Huang & Ryan, 2011; Minbashian et al., 2010).

Hypothesis 2: Task complexity will be positively related to state conscientiousness.

While research has shown that task contingencies are related to personality, there are also contingencies associated with the social environment in which one is embedded. Fleeson (2007) and Huang and Ryan (2011) found that friendliness was positively related to state extraversion during personal interactions. Furthermore, studies have shown that social roles have a large impact on personality. Social roles are defined as, "a set of behavioral expectations attached to a position in an organized set of social relationships" (Styker, 2007, p. 1083). Studies have shown that the role one occupies at any given moment has an impact on behavior such that those in a friendship role are typically more

extraverted and agreeable than those in a student or coworker role (Bleidorn, 2009). At

work, most people have workplace friends, and it is likely that they are more extraverted

and agreeable when interacting with these friends than when interacting with others in the

office. Friendly and warm encounters are likely to lead to reduced anxiety, especially

among those who may be relatively uncomfortable in social settings.

> *Hypothesis 3:* Friendliness of interactions will be positively related to state
>
> extraversion.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Friendliness of interactions will be positively related to state
>
> agreeableness.

State Personality

The impact of the Big Five personality traits on workplace performance has been

widely studied over the past two decades. Multiple meta-analyses have shown that these

traits are related to performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001), and

selecting for traits like conscientiousness and extraversion can lead to increased

performance in an organization's workforce. Although these results are important,

research should also consider the impact of state personality on employee performance.

In one of the first studies to examine this relationship, Debusscher, Hofmans and De

Fruyt (2016) found that state neuroticism and state conscientiousness were significantly

related to self-rated momentary task performance. Fleeson (2001) argues that state

personality constructs have the same content as trait personality constructs, but states

occur in short periods whereas traits manifest themselves over the long term. Because of

this, state personality can be seen as the more proximal driver of behavior as compared to

trait personality (Fleeson, 2012). Although trait personality does have a relationship to

organizational outcomes (Barrick et al., 2001), the relationship is moderate at best. A

reason for this may be that trait personality is further removed from behavior than is state

personality; therefore investigating the impact of state personality on performance may

provide a more accurate picture of the relationship. Indeed, WTT posits that trait

personality leads to state personality through intervening mechanisms, such as goals and

perceptions (Fleeson, 2012).

Through the lens of WTT, the purpose of the present study is to investigate

within-person variability in personality, as captured through personality states, among

healthy functioning employees. Although there are clinical disorders characterized by

wild swings in behavior, the present study focused on within-person variability in

personality that occurs at a subclinical level; that is, the natural change in an individual's

personality over time. While long-term changes in personality may occur, the present

study focused specifically on short-term (i.e., daily) fluctuations in personality.

Traditionally, we consider an individual's mean level of a personality trait an individual

difference, but, according to Fleeson (2012), an individual's distribution around this

mean should also be considered a unique individual difference. Over time, an

individual's distribution of personality states will form a pattern that is distinctive to that

individual, and this pattern may be related to various outcomes.

It is hypothesized that task focus, task complexity, and friendliness of an

interaction will have unique relationships with state conscientiousness, extraversion, and

agreeableness. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that variability in the Big Five personality

states will be negatively related to self-esteem, and positively related to anxiety. In turn,

self-esteem will be positively related to job satisfaction, while anxiety will be negatively

related to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction and leader-member exchange are

hypothesized to positively relate to task performance and OCB, and negatively relate to

CWB and turnover.

Figure 1 – Hypothesized Model
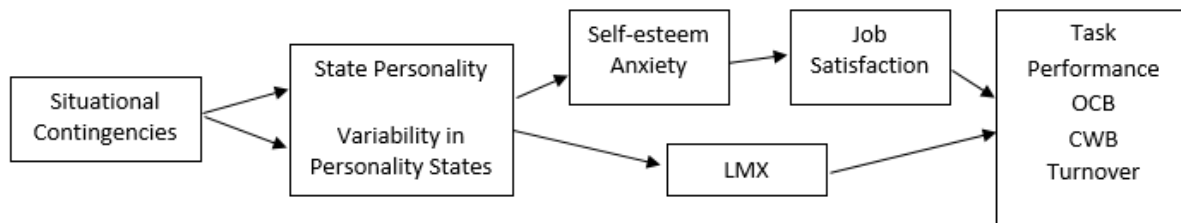
Variability in Personality

The conceptualization of state personality is a key aspect of WTT because it

allows us to move from a more stable view of personality to one that is more dynamic

(Fleeson, 2012). Indeed, by acknowledging the existence of personality states, and the

idea that these states are likely to vary within the average individual, we can begin to

explain the processes (e.g., interpretive, motivational) that lead to variability in

personality. Importantly, these processes contain inputs (i.e., external situations), which

are linked to intermediates (i.e. goals, environmental interpretations), and finally to

outputs (i.e., personality states, behavior; Fleeson, 2012). The strength of these links

varies in each individual, and this leads to individual differences in personality states.

For example, individuals who have a strong link between ambiguous situations and goals

of being productive are likely to be conscientious when presented with such situations.

Because of the differences in these links, individuals with similar trait levels, who are

presented with the similar situations, may display different distributions of behaviors.

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Although conceptualizing personality as states allows us to answer many novel research questions, to date the large majority of research has investigated personality in trait form, and found these traits to be predictive of future performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick et al., 2001). For example, conscientiousness describes the degree to which an individual is hardworking, careful, and diligent. Indeed, it is likely that employees who display these behaviors on a regular basis perform at a higher level than those who do not. Past measures of conscientiousness traditionally rely on an individual's mean level of this trait, and treat any variability around this mean as measurement error. There is reason to believe, however, that variability in conscientiousness, as well as other Big Five factors, could be related to employee performance. Recent studies have found that individuals who generally show a wide range of variability in personality have lower levels of many important psychological outcomes, including life satisfaction, self-esteem, well-being, affect, adjustment, and mental health (Bleidorn & Kodding, 2013; Block, 1961; Diehl & Hay, 2007; Donahue et al., 1993; Waugh, Thompson, & Gotlib, 2011). Thus, variability in personality is likely to relate to employee outcomes as well. The question then becomes, what is the nature of this relationship?

Intuitively, one might suspect that variability in the Big Five is positively related to performance. Individuals who display varying levels of these constructs may be more adaptive, and have an advantage over more stable individuals when presented with diverse situations. For example, Paulhus and Martin (1988) maintained that individuals with highly variable personalities are more comfortable displaying a wide range of behaviors, and are better able to display these behaviors in the appropriate circumstances.

Although there is logic in these arguments, the body of evidence suggests that variability in personality is likely detrimental to one's well-being (Bleidorn & Kodding, 2013). For example, research has found that self-concept clarity is positively related to self-esteem, and negatively related to anxiety and depression (Campbell et al., 1996). Self-concept clarity is the extent to which aspects of individual's self-concept are consistent, stable, and well-defined (Campbell et al., 1996). Another study by Clifton and Kuper (2011) asked individuals to report their personality when interacting with various members of their social network. Individuals who reported more variability in their personality across acquaintances were also more likely to score highly on several scales of interpersonal dysfunction. Furthermore, a meta-analysis by Bleidorn and Kodding (2013) looked at the relationships between self-concept differentiation (SCD) and various adjustment outcomes, including life satisfaction, self-esteem, depression, and anxiety. SCD, as defined by Bleidorn and Kodding (2013, p. 547), is, "the degree to which an individual's self-representation of personality varies across roles and situations." By combining the data from 54 independent studies, this meta-analysis found that SCD was negatively related to self-esteem and life satisfaction, and positively related to depression and anxiety. In other words, individuals who perceived their personality as fragmented or inconsistent were likely to have lower levels of positive psychological outcomes, and higher levels of negative psychological outcomes.

Self-Esteem

Among the positive psychological outcomes linked to high SCD, self-esteem has been found to be particularly important in organizational settings. Self-esteem is simply the extent to which one values one's self as a person (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Self-

esteem has been linked to depression (Kernis et al., 1998) and reduced motivation to pursue personal goals (Kernis, Paradise, Whitaker, Wheatman, & Goldman, 2000). According to Campbell, Assanand and Di Paula (2003), an implicit, overarching goal for individuals is to have a unified self-concept; thus, individuals who are unable to meet this goal are likely to have a lower evaluation of their worth. Because the meta-analysis by Bleidorn and Kodding (2013) found that SCD was negatively related to self-esteem, it is also likely that within-person variability in personality will be negatively related to self-esteem.

Hypothesis 5: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs will negatively relate to self-esteem.

Importantly, self-esteem has been found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction and job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001), as well as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Drawing from self-consistency theory (Korman, 1970), individuals with high self-esteem should have increased motivation to engage in behaviors that maintain their current state of high esteem. Therefore, these individuals will be more likely to dedicate increased effort towards behaviors valued by others in the organization, such as task performance and OCBs, and less likely to engage in behaviors that are detrimental to the organization, such as counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) and turnover. These relationships have been supported in prior research (Gardner & Pierce, 2001; Hsu & Kuo, 2003; Judge & Bono, 2001; Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Wei & Albright, 1998)

Hypothesis 6a: Self-esteem will positively relate to task performance.

Hypothesis 6b: Self-esteem will positively relate to OCBs.

Hypothesis 6c: Self-esteem will negatively relate to CWBs.

Hypothesis 6d: Self-esteem will negatively relate to turnover intentions.

Anxiety

In addition to self-esteem, Bleidorn and Kodding (2013) found that self-concept fragmentation was positively related to anxiety. Indeed, research suggests that we strive for a unified self-concept and individuals who are unable to obtain this are more likely to have lower levels of well-being (Campbell et al., 2003). According to cybernetic models of stress, individuals have a preferred state and an actual state, and any discrepancy between the two is likely to result in strain or anxiety (Cummings & Cooper, 1979). Because a unified self-concept is the preferred state for individuals (Campbell et al., 2003), those who do not have a unified self-concept (i.e. those with highly variable personalities) are likely to experience increased anxiety. Furthermore, a number of studies have found a relationship between anxiety and organizational performance, most likely due to its deleterious effects on energy, cognitive resources, sleep, and one's ability to connect with others (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986; Stewart & Barling, 1996; Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier & Finch, 2009). Because of the effects of anxiety on these outcomes, it is likely that anxiety would be positively related to withdrawal behaviors, like CWBs and turnover intentions, and negatively related to performance outcomes, such as task performance and OCBs.

Hypothesis 7: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs will positively relate to anxiety.

Hypothesis 8a: Anxiety will negatively relate to task performance.

Hypothesis 8b: Anxiety will negatively relate to OCBs.

Hypothesis 8c: Anxiety will positively relate to CWBs.

Hypothesis 8d: Anxiety will positively relate to turnover intentions.

Job Satisfaction

Self-esteem and anxiety are likely to influence organizational outcomes indirectly through the impact of mediators. For example, self-esteem and anxiety have been linked to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is, quite simply, a cognitive evaluation of one's job (Schleicher, Hansen, & Fox, 2011). Locke, McClear, and Knight (1996) argued that an individual with high self-esteem likely will be motivated by a challenging job, but an individual with low self-esteem will be intimidated by this same opportunity. Another study by Dodgson and Wood (1998) found that those with high self-esteem were more likely to stay optimistic after a failed endeavor. Furthermore, two separate meta-analyses found that self-esteem is positively related to job satisfaction (Bowling, 2007; Judge & Bono, 2001), and an additional meta-analysis by Bowling and Hammond (2008) found a small, negative relationship between anxiety and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been found to be an antecedent to job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton, 2001). Traditional wisdom has often suggested that more satisfied employees perform at higher levels than less satisfied employees. According to the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991), behavior is a function of three things; an individual's attitude toward the behavior, the subjective norm associated with performing the behavior, and the degree of perceived control over performing the behavior. Thus, according to TPB, job satisfaction is a major determinant of job-related behavior as long as people feel they have control over job-related behaviors, and the subjective norm associated with performing the behavior is relatively stable.

Furthermore, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) argued that an individual with a positive attitude towards an object will perform actions that support this object, therefore individuals with a positive attitude towards their job will behave in ways that support their job. A comprehensive and rigorous theoretically and empirical review by Judge et al. (2001) found that job satisfaction has a moderate positive relationship with job performance.

> *Hypothesis 9a:* Job satisfaction will positively relate to task performance, and mediate the relationship between self-esteem and task performance.

> *Hypothesis 9b:* Job satisfaction will positively relate to task performance, and mediate the relationship between anxiety and task performance.

In addition to task performance, research has also shown that job satisfaction is related to other forms of performance, such as organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. Organ (1988, p. 4) defined an OCB 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." Since Organ's original conceptualization, researchers have noted that behaviors can be recognized and rewarded, yet still be considered OCBs (Organ, 1997). While OCBs have many antecedents, much research has focused on attitudinal predictors, particularly job satisfaction. Through the lens of social exchange theory, research has suggested that individuals will engage in additional OCBs when they are satisfied with their supervisors' behaviors, pay, opportunity for advancement, and working conditions (Hanson & Borman, 2006; Williams & Anderson, 1991). That is, individuals who are more satisfied with these aspects will reciprocate by going above and beyond what is traditionally

expected of them as an employee. A review by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and

Bachrach (2000) found that job satisfaction has a moderate relationship with OCBs.

Hypothesis 10a: Job satisfaction will positively relate to OCBs, and mediate the

relationship between self-esteem and OCBs.

Hypothesis 10b: Job satisfaction will positively relate to OCBs, and mediate the

relationship between anxiety and OCBs.

Research has largely supported the theory that job satisfaction is a determinant of

voluntary, extra-role performance behaviors in the workplace, such as OCBs (Schleicher

et al., 2011). However, not all extra-role performance behaviors are positive in nature.

Many empirical studies have investigated the nature of negative workplace behaviors,

most commonly known as counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWBs). Spector and

Fox (2005, p. 151 – 152) defined CWB as, "volitional acts that harm or intend to harm

organizations and their stakeholders (for example, clients, co-workers, customers, and

supervisors)." Theory indicates that employees voluntarily engage in positive extra-role

behaviors when they are satisfied and also engage in negative extra-role behaviors when

they are dissatisfied (Dalal, 2005). According to social exchange theory, when presented

with dissatisfying circumstances, employees may react in ways that are not beneficial to

the well-being of the organization (Dalal, 2005). Meta-analyses by Bowling and

Hammond (2008) and Dalal (2005) found moderate, negative relationships between job

satisfaction and CWBs.

Hypothesis 11a: Job satisfaction will negatively relate to CWBs, and mediate the

relationship between self-esteem and CWBs.

Hypothesis 11b: Job satisfaction will negatively relate to CWBs, and mediate the

relationship between anxiety and CWBs.

Withdrawal behavior is usually featured as a component of counterproductive

work behavior (Atwater & Elkins, 2009), but extreme withdrawal tendencies can lead to

intention to turnover or leave the organization, which is typically studied as a separate

construct than CWB. Not surprisingly, intent to turnover is commonly seen as the

number one predictor of actual turnover behavior (Hom, 2011) and, due to the

methodological difficulties involved in measuring actual turnover, is often the main

criterion of interest in turnover research. Among the many antecedents of turnover

intentions, job satisfaction is often viewed as one of the most reliable and consistent

predictors (Bowling et al., 2008). Individuals who are dissatisfied with their jobs will be

more likely to investigate alternatives and eventually exit the organization. Meta-

analyses have found a strong, negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover

intentions (Bowling et al., 2008; Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Hypothesis 12a: Job satisfaction will negatively relate to turnover intentions, and

mediate the relationship between self-esteem and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 12b: Job satisfaction will negatively relate to turnover intentions, and

mediate the relationship between anxiety and turnover intentions.

Leader-Member Exchange

Although job satisfaction likely explains part of the relationship between

personality variability and performance, a portion of the relationship may depend on the

social aspects of the work environment. Specifically, it is likely harder to predict the

behavior of an individual who has a large amount of variability in his or her personality,

compared to someone more stable. Because of this, coworkers of individuals with more variable personalities may have a difficult time developing good working relationships with these individuals. Human, Biesanz, Finseth, Pierce, and Le (2014) argued that well-adjusted individuals are easier to judge than those who are less adjusted, which leads to higher relationship satisfaction. Furthermore, Human et al. (2014) argued that people are more likely to be fond of well-adjusted individuals because they exhibit consistency and confirm one's initial impressions.

Thus, those with less variable personalities are more likely to be liked by others in the workplace. Liking is a key piece of Leader-Member exchange theory (LMX). LMX is a leadership theory that focuses on the quality of dyadic relationship between a leader and subordinate (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Research has generally shown that high LMX (e.g. the quality of the relationship between leader and subordinate is high) is likely to lead to positive outcomes. For example, Gerstner and Day (1997) found that LMX had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and negative relationship with role conflict, among other constructs. However, variability in personality should theoretically relate to LMX through the effects of liking. Individuals tend to favor and form relationships with others that they like. Thus, leaders who have increased positive affect towards a subordinate will be more likely to form a high-quality relationship with this subordinate. Indeed, a meta-analysis by Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, and Ferris (2012) found that affect or liking was a strong antecedent to LMX.

LMX likely influences the task performance of subordinates through the effects of social exchange theory, enhanced by trust and respect (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). For

example, subordinates with high levels of LMX are likely to enjoy special treatment from

these leaders, such as special work tasks and increased autonomy (Wang, Law, Hackett,

Wang, & Chen, 2005). Subordinates will then feel obligated to reciprocate in the form of

increased effort allocation towards task duties. Meta-analyses by Gerstner and Day

(1997) and Dulebohn et al. (2012) found moderate, positive relationships between LMX

and subordinate performance.

Hypothesis 13: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs

will negatively relate to LMX.

Hypothesis 14: LMX will positively relate to task performance, and partially

mediate the relationship between within-person variability in the Big Five

personality constructs and task performance.

In addition to task performance, it is likely that LMX is related to extra-role

performance as well. High LMX is defined by many of the same attributes featured in

social exchange theory, specifically, trust, support, and commitment. Because of this,

individuals who have high quality relationships with their supervisors will be more likely

to reciprocate by engaging in additional OCBs. Indeed, social exchange theory is

commonly cited as a main driver of OCBs (Hanson & Borman, 2006; Wayne, Shore,

Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). A meta-analysis by Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007)

found a moderate, positive relationship between LMX and OCBs.

Social exchange theory is not limited to positive outcomes, however. Individuals

who have poor relationships with their supervisors may be more likely to reciprocate in

negative ways, and engage in additional CWBs. That is, research suggests that

employees may commit CWBs as a form of "revenge" on their organization because of

poor treatment from their supervisors (Townsend, Phillips, & Elkins, 2000; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, and Zagenczyk, 2013). Furthermore, many of the outcomes of LMX found in the literature (i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational justice) have been found to be antecedents to CWBs (Dalal, 2005; Dulebohn et al., 2012). The limited research in this area has found a negative relationship between LMX and subordinate CWBs (Johnson & Saboe, 2011; Townsend et al., 2000).

Hypothesis 15: LMX will positively relate to OCBs, and partially mediate the relationship between within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs and OCBs.

Hypothesis 16: LMX will negatively relate to CWBs, and partially mediate the relationship between within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs and CWBs.

Because of the relationship between LMX and CWB, it's not hard to imagine that the quality of the relationship between a supervisor and subordinate may have an impact on the turnover intentions of this subordinate as well. Indeed, individuals who have poor relationships with their supervisors will be more likely to pursue alternatives, whereas individuals who have high quality relationships with their supervisors will be less likely to look for other jobs. Gerstner and Day (1997) found a moderate, negative relationship between LMX and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 17: LMX will negatively relate to turnover intentions, and partially mediate the relationship between within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs and turnover intentions.

Overall, because individuals with variable personalities or self-concepts have been shown to have lower levels of self-esteem and life satisfaction, and higher levels of depression and anxiety (Bleidorn & Kodding, 2013), it is likely that this variability is also indirectly linked to important workplace outcomes. For example, a meta-analysis by Judge and Bono (2001) found that self-esteem was positively related to job performance. Job performance was defined broadly in the present study, and included both organizational citizenship behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. Additionally, a variety of negative organizational outcomes have been linked to increased anxiety, including poor performance and withdrawal behaviors (see Griffin & Clarke, 2011, for a review). Furthermore, evidence suggests that self-esteem and anxiety are linked to job satisfaction (Bowling & Hammond, 2008), which has been shown to be predictive of performance as well (Judge et al., 2001). Thus, it is likely that variability in personality is indirectly linked to performance through its relationships with these mediators.

Hypothesis 18: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs will negatively relate to task performance through the indirect effects of self-esteem, anxiety, LMX, and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 19: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs will negatively relate to OCBs through the indirect effects of self-esteem, anxiety, LMX, and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 20: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs will positively relate to CWBs through the indirect effects of self-esteem, anxiety, LMX, and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 21: Within-person variability in the Big Five personality constructs will positively relate to turnover intentions through the indirect effects of self-esteem, anxiety, LMX, and job satisfaction.

The present study represents the first look at the relationship between variability in personality and a broad set of important organizational outcomes. Debusscher et al. (2016) found a relationship between state personality and self-rated momentary task performance. Within-person variability in conscientiousness moderated this relationship such that individuals with less within-person variability in conscientiousness showed a stronger link between momentary conscientiousness and momentary task performance. The present study builds on Debusscher et al. (2016) in several important ways. First, the present study expands the criterion domain to OCB, CWB, and turnover intentions, while also looking at task performance. Additionally, the present study investigates both self and other ratings of job performance. Finally, the present study investigates the relationship between variability in personality and other important organizational constructs, such as self-esteem, anxiety, LMX, and job satisfaction.

Method

Participants

Participants were 252 students from two Midwestern universities. In order to qualify for the study, participants had to be at least 18 years of age, and have a job in which they worked at least 15 hours a week and two separate days in a week. Due to a data collection error, demographic data was only collected on the final 58% of the sample (146 participants). 57.5% of these participants were female and the average age was 23.7 years ($SD = 5.7$). 67.6% of participants were Caucasian, 15.8% were African-American,

6.9% were Asian, 4.8% were Hispanic or Latin-American and 4.8% identified as

"Other". These proportions closely match the demographics of the universities from

which this data was drawn, so there is little reason to believe the missing demographic

data damages the external validity of the study. Participants received class credit in

exchange for participation.

Procedure

The entire study was completed online. After signing up for the study individuals

received an e-mail with a survey link. Upon entering the survey the individuals received

an informed consent form, and after providing informed consent individuals were

presented with a series of screening questions. The screening questions asked about

employment status and the amount of hours and days they worked each week on average.

Once the participants had met these minimum criteria they viewed a video that explained

the purpose and unique complexities of the study. The video emphasized that there were

multiple aspects to the study, and that a voluntary bonus aspect of the study was that

participants were being asked to provide the contact information for a coworker and

supervisor in exchange for entry into a raffle for a $50 Amazon gift card. This aspect of

the study was not explicitly required to gain full credit for participation. Once the video

was complete the participants received the self-esteem, anxiety, job satisfaction, leader-

member exchange, job performance, and turnover intention measures. Following this,

the participants filled out their work schedule for the subsequent two weeks. These

schedules were used to send out the experience sampling measures. Finally, supervisor

or coworker contact information was collected for those who chose to participate in this

aspect of the study, and demographic information was collected.

The within-person measures (daily work surveys) were collected using experience sampling methodology (ESM). ESM is a technique that samples participants repeatedly, most commonly over the course of multiple weeks, and often on a daily to semi-daily basis. ESM is most effectively used to assess within-person variation in state constructs, such as happiness (Csikszentmihalyi & Hunter, 2003) or daily mood (Miner, Glomb & Hulin, 2005). ESM has also been the most common technique when studying within-person fluctuations in personality (Debusscher et al., 2016; Fleeson, 2001; Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009; Huang & Ryan, 2011; Minbashian et al., 2010). Over the course of two weeks individuals received an e-mail or text message containing a survey link at the end of targeted workdays. Each participant received four of these daily surveys, two each week. They were asked to complete the survey as soon as it was possible to safely do so. Although the surveys could be completed on a mobile device, participants were be urged not to complete the survey while driving a vehicle. Participants were asked to complete the surveys within three hours of the end of their shift, and any surveys that fell outside of this window were discarded. The daily links contained a short survey that featured the state personality scales and situational contingency questions.

Supervisors or coworkers, if identified by the focal participant, received an e-mail with a survey link. The e-mail contained information about the study, and explained that the supervisor or coworker would be entered into a raffle for a $50 Amazon gift card contingent upon completion. Upon entering the survey, the supervisor or coworker was presented with an informed consent sheet that provided additional details about the study. Following the informed consent page, the supervisor/coworker participants were given the student employee's task performance, OCB, and CWB measures.

Between-person Measures

Self-esteem. Self-esteem was measured by Rosenberg's (1965) 10-item scale. Items were rated on a seven point Likert-type scale, ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (7) (see APPENDIX A for the items for all measures).

Anxiety. Anxiety was assessed by the GAD-7 (Spitzer, Kroenke, Williams, & Lowe, 2006). The scale featured the stem question, "Over the last two weeks, how often have you been bothered by the following problems?" The scale then featured seven indicators of anxiety ranging from, "Feeling nervous, anxious or on edge" to "Feeling afraid as if something awful might happen." Response options range from *Not at all* (1) to *Nearly every day* (4).

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire – Short Form (MSQ-SF; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). The MSQ- SF is a 20-item measure that taps both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Hirschfeld, 2000). Respondents were asked to consider each item and ask themselves how satisfied (dissatisfied) they were with this aspect of their job. Example items include, "The chance to work alone on the job" and "The chance to do different things from time to time." Items were rated on a five-point scale ranging from *Very Dissatisfied* (1) to *Very Satisfied* (5).

Leader-member exchange. Leader-member exchange was measured by the LMX-7 (Graen, Novak, Sommerkamp, 1982). The LMX-7 is a 7-item questionnaire that asks subordinates to rate the quality of the relationship with his or her leader. Example items include, "My leader understands my job's problems and needs" or "My leader

recognizes my potential." Items were rated on a five point scale ranging from *Strongly*

Disagree (1) to *Strongly Agree* (7).

Task Performance. Any measure of job performance should be based on a

thorough job analysis whenever possible. However, participants from the present study

worked in a variety of different jobs, rendering a traditional job analysis unfeasible.

Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager (1993) identified core task proficiency as a

dimension that should apply to every job, thus, a general questionnaire measuring an

employee's ability to complete the duties that are core to his or her job served as an

appropriate measure of task performance across all jobs. Three items were created to

measure task performance: "This employee consistently meets the requirements listed on

the job description; This employee performs the core duties of the job successfully; This

employee is unable to adequately perform the core responsibilities for this job." The

items were adapted for self-ratings. Items were rated on a seven point Likert-type scale

ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (7).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. OCBs were measured by the OCB-C

(Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, & Kessler, 2012). The OCB-C is a 20-item measure

designed to assess the frequency with which various citizenship behaviors are performed

by employees (Fox et al., 2012). Example items include, "Volunteered for extra work

assignments" and "Offered suggestion for improving the work environment." Items were

rated on a five point scale ranging from *Never* (1) to *Every Day* (5).

Counterproductive Work Behaviors. CWBs were measured by the CWB-C

(Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). The CWB-C is a 10-item measure designed to assess the

frequency with which various deviant behaviors are performed by employees (Spector et

al., 2010). Example items include, "Purposely wasted employer's materials or suppliers"

and "Came to work late without permission." Items were rated on a five point scale

ranging from *Never* (1) to *Every Day* (5).

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions were measured by three items from

the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire – Turnover Intentions Subscale

(Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). Example items include, "I have no plans

to leave my job" and "I have made plans to leave my current job." Items were rated on a

seven point Likert-type scale ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (7).

Within-Person Measures

State Personality. State personality was measured by the Mini -IPIP (Donnellan,

Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006). The Mini-IPIP is a 20-item scale that measures the Big

Five personality constructs, with four items measuring each construct. The Mini-IPIP is

traditionally used as a trait personality measure, however, for the purposes of the present

study, participants were asked to think of the questions in terms of how they felt during

that work day, as opposed to how they felt in general. Due to this contextualization,

Judge et al. (2014)'s instructions were utilized in the present study, with the following

adaptation; "Describe yourself *as you felt TODAY at work*, not as you are in general, or as

you wish to be in the future." Contextualization of personality measures has shown

utility in past research (Shaffer & Postlethwaite, 2012). Several items of the Mini-IPIP

were altered to make them more appropriate for a work setting. For example, the item, "I

get chores done right away" was changed to, "I get work duties done right away." Items

were rated on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to

Strongly Agree (7).

Situational Contingencies. The three situational contingencies, task focus, task complexity, and friendliness of interactions, were measured using a series of questions designed to assess the overall perception of these contingencies throughout the workday. Friendliness of interactions was measured using three items, adapted from Huang and Ryan (2011). An example item is, "The people I interacted with today at work were friendly." Task focus was also measured with three items. An example item is, "I had to remain very focused in order to complete my job duties today." Finally, task complexity was measured with three items. An example item is, "The tasks I completed during work today were very complex." All situational contingency items featured a seven point Likert-type scale, ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (1) to *Strongly Agree* (7).

Results

Analyses

Of the original 252 student participants, 37 (14.6%) did not complete at least 3 of the 4 daily surveys and were removed from subsequent analyses. In order to examine the extent to which this may have biased the sample, a series of t-tests were run to determine if there were statistically significant differences on the time 1 (between-person) measures between those who dropped out and those who completed the entire study. There were the no significant differences among the two groups (see Table 2 in Appendix B for full results). The remaining 215 participants had a total of 823 daily surveys, resulting in an average of 3.83 daily surveys per participant (*SD* = .38). Five of these participants failed both attention check items and were removed from subsequent analyses.

121 participants provided contact information for a supervisor or coworker (48% of the original sample), and 99 responded, resulting in a response rate of 82%. To

prevent leniency from biasing the results, 9 supervisor/coworker surveys were discarded

because they were completed by an individual with the same last name as the student

participant. An additional survey was removed because the supervisor/coworker failed

the attention check item. Finally, 3 supervisor/coworker participants stated that they did

not have an adequate opportunity to observe the student employee's performance and did

not feel comfortable with the ratings he or she made, therefore this data was dropped.

This left 86 supervisor/coworker surveys (referred to as "other" surveys from here on)

that were matched with the participant data (41% of the remaining 210 participants). A

series of t-tests were completed to compare student participants with other ratings to

those who did not have an other survey. Those with other performance ratings had

significantly higher self-esteem (t = 2.37, p = .01, d = .33), significantly higher job

satisfaction (t = 3.39, p < .01, d = .48), significantly higher levels of LMX (t = 3.18, p <

.01, d = .45), and significantly lower levels of turnover intentions (t = -2.17, p = .03, d =

.31). There were no significant differences on the self-rated performance measures (see

Table 3 in Appendix B for full results).

Univariate outlier analyses revealed potential outliers on the CWB-C scale.

Specifically, one participant answered, "Once or twice a week" to every question on the

scale. Although there may be unusual situations where an individual displays these

counterproductive work behaviors on a weekly basis, a far more likely scenario is that

this participant had succumbed to survey fatigue. Once this participant was removed

further inspection of univariate or multivariate outliers showed no cases that were

candidates for deletion. The subsequent analyses were conducted on the remaining 209

participants and the 85 other ratings (see Table 1 for descriptive statistics). Inspection of

variability normality revealed that the other-rated CWB and other-rated task performance measures were skewed, but this was expected given the nature of these constructs. The analytic procedures used in the present study were robust to violations of assumptions normality, nonetheless, the other-rated results should be interpreted with caution.

Reliability and Factor Structure of Measures. Internal consistency estimates for the self-esteem ($\alpha = .88$), anxiety ($\alpha = .85$), intrinsic job satisfaction ($\alpha = .87$), extrinsic job satisfaction ($\alpha = .88$), LMX ($\alpha = .93$), and turnover intention scales ($\alpha = .84$) were all at an acceptable level. The OCB scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .93 for the self-ratings and .91 for the other-ratings. The third item on the task performance scale had an extremely low item-total correlation on both the self and other-rated scales. This item was negatively worded, and past research suggests that negatively worded items may lead to careless responding (Merritt, 2012). This item was dropped from both scales, resulting in a Cronbach's alpha of .84 for the self-rated scale and .92 for the other-rated scale. Additionally, the other-rated CWB scale featured one item with a low item-total correlation. This item was dropped, resulting in a Cronbach's alpha of .80 for the self-ratings and .62 for the other-ratings.

Internal consistency estimates were calculated on the within-individual means of the within-person measures. All internal consistency estimates for the state personality scales showed acceptable reliability, except for neuroticism (agreeableness $\alpha = .89$, conscientiousness $\alpha = .71$, extraversion $\alpha = .81$, openness $\alpha = .79$, neuroticism $\alpha = .62$). Further analysis showed that one item was contributing to the poor internal consistency on the neuroticism scale. Once this item was dropped the resulting reliability was $\alpha = .81$. The original state neuroticism scale in Huang and Ryan (2011) also featured a

problematic item, thus further research may be needed to determine whether there is

something unique about neuroticism that makes it difficult to measure in a state form.

Finally, the three situational contingency scales showed good internal consistency

(friendliness of interactions α = .89, task focus α = .89, task complexity α = .79).

The factor structure of the measures was examined using individual confirmatory

factor analyses for each scale. The fit of the CFAs were examined using the following

indices: (1) the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic, (2) standardized root mean-square

residual (SRMR; Hu & Bentler, 1999), (3) comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990),

and (4) root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990). These results

of these tests can be found in Table 8. After reviewing the models, 2 items were dropped

from the job satisfaction scale, three items were dropped from the OCB scale, and 1 item

was dropped from the CWB scale. These items all suffered from similar problems in that

they were essentially redundant with other items in the scale, and had correlated error

terms that were hurting the model fit. One option would have been to allow their error

terms to covary, but a more parsimonious option was just to remove the redundant items.

After removing these items all scales had acceptable model data fit (see Table 8).

Situational Contingency Results. Hypotheses 1 – 4 argue that certain situational

contingencies will lead to various personality states. Prior to the main analyses, a

confirmatory factor analysis was run on the within-individual means of the personality

constructs. Results showed a poor fit to the data (χ^2 = 809.19, df = 152, p < .01, RMSEA

= .142, CFI = .690, SRMR= .270). Modification indices indicated that allowing the

latent factors to correlate would significantly improve the model. Freeing these

covariances resulted in a better fitting model (χ^2 = 489.01, df = 142, p < .01, RMSEA =

.107, CFI = .836, SRMR= .077), yet the lack of independence among the factors was evident in the relatively high correlations among the factors (ranging from .42 to .71). This suggests that the items may have been influenced by a general factor, such as common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Because common method variance may have influenced the relationships among the constructs, the following results should be interpreted with the appropriate caution. [1]

The data had multiple observations per individual, therefore random coefficient modeling was used to test the relationships between the situational contingencies and personality states. These analyses were conducted using the nlme package in R (Pinheiro, Bates, DebRoy, Sarkar, & R Core Team, 2017). The progression of tests followed the recommendations of Hayes (2006), and was similar to the procedure used by Huang and Ryan (2011). First, Model 1 featured the null models, which simply includes an intercept regressed onto the state personality outcome, with no other predictors. The intercept was free to vary across individuals, and the ratio of within-persons variance to between-persons variance in the outcome was created in the form of an interclass correlation (ICC). The ICC was examined to ensure there was enough within-person variability in the outcomes (state personality constructs) to justify the use of random coefficient modeling (see APPENDIX B for HLM-style equations). Next, Model 2 added the within-individual effects of the situational contingencies regressed onto the personality states. These intercepts-as-outcomes models served as the tests of the

[1] Following the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003), a model was tested which attempted to control for the single unmeasured latent variable by keeping the factor structure from the second model, but also allowing all the items to load onto a general factor. This model would not converge.

hypotheses, examining whether the mean of slopes across individuals was significantly different from zero (i.e., whether situational contingencies are related to the personality constructs). Finally, Model 3 allowed the slopes between the situational contingencies and personality states to vary, which may have implications for future research that can attempt to explain this variability. The situational contingency predictors were within-individual centered to increase interpretability of the results, and reduce the chances of receiving a spurious result (Hofmann, 1997; Hofmann & Gavin, 1998).

Hypothesis 1 proposed that task focus would be positively related to state conscientiousness. Model 1 showed an ICC of .513, meaning 51% of the variance in task focus was between-persons, and 49% was within-persons. Model 2, which added task focus as a predictor and allowed the mean of task focus to differ across individuals, did not show a significant improvement in model fit above Model 1. Task focus was not significantly related to conscientiousness ($\beta_{10} = -.02$, $t = -1.0$, $p = .27$; see Table 4) and explained 1% of the within-persons variance in state conscientiousness. Model 3, which allowed the slopes of the relationship between task focus and conscientiousness to vary across individuals, provided a significantly better fit than Model 1, suggesting that the relationship state conscientiousness may be situationally contingent on task focus in individuals. However, the lack of a statistically significant relationship between task focus and conscientiousness (β_{10}) failed to provide support for hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 stated that task complexity would be positively related to state conscientiousness. This analysis utilized the same Model 1 as the test of hypothesis 1. Model 2, which allowed the intercepts to vary across individuals, showed a statistically significant better fit than Model 1, and the relationship between task complexity and state

conscientiousness was also statistically significant ($\beta_{10} = -.14$, $t = -6.4$, $p < .01$; see Table 5) and explained 3% of the within-persons variance in state conscientiousness. However, the relationship was negative and the opposite of what was hypothesized, thus failing to support hypothesis 2. Model 3 fit significantly better than Model 2, suggesting that task complexity relates to individuals' state conscientiousness in unique ways.

Hypothesis 3 suggested that friendliness of interactions would be positively related to state extraversion. Model 1 showed an ICC of .51, meaning 51% of the variance in task focus was between-persons, and 49% was within-persons. Next, Model 2, which allowed the mean extraversion to vary across individuals, showed a statistically significant better fit than Model 1, and the relationship between friendliness of interactions and state extraversion was also statistically significant ($\beta_{10} = .47$, $t = 10.24$, $p < .01$; see Table 6) and explained 14% of the within-persons variance in state extraversion. This provides support for hypothesis 3. Model 3 provided significantly better fit than the previous model, suggesting that friendliness of interactions is differentially related to state extraversion in individuals.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that friendliness of interactions would be positively related to state agreeableness. The ICC from Model 1 was .56, meaning 56% of the variance in state agreeableness was between-persons, while 44% was within-persons. Adding friendliness of interactions to Model 2, and allowing the intercepts to vary, resulted in a statistically significant better fit than Model 1. The relationship between friendliness of interactions and state extraversion was statistically significant ($\beta_{10} = .43$, $t = 10.04$, $p < .01$; see table 7) and explained 14% of the within-persons variance in state agreeableness,

providing support for hypothesis 4. Model 3, which allowed the slopes to vary, did not provide a statistically significant better fit than Model 2.

Variability in Personality Model. Hypotheses 5 – 21 refer to the relationships from variability in personality to job performance and turnover, through various mediators. Variability in personality was calculated by averaging the within-person standard deviations within the five constructs and letting them load on a general personality latent factor. Additionally, each individual Big Five trait was tested in isolation to exam whether differential relationships existed among the factors and outcomes.

Hypotheses 5 - 21 were test used structural equation modeling (SEM), adhering to Anderson and Gerbing's (1998) two-step approach. This involved testing the measurement model in the form of a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), in which the observed variables load onto a set of latent factors, which were free to vary. Next, the structural parameters were added to the latent factors and an SEM was conducted. Bootstrapped indirect effects served as the test for mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping provided unbiased confidence intervals for the indirect effects, which were used to evaluate statistical significance. The latent variable modeling was conducted using the lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012) in R. Because of the large number of scales and items in the model, parceling was utilized to reduce model complexity using the domain representative approach (i.e., for a 9-item scale, items 1, 4, and 7 would belong to parcel 1, items 2, 5, and 8 to parcel 2, etc.; Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). Checks were made to ensure the parcels met the normality assumptions required for maximum likelihood estimation.

Measurement Model. The measurement model was tested using the variability

in personality, self-esteem, anxiety, job satisfaction, leader-member exchange, self-rated

task performance, self-rated organizational citizenship behavior, self-rated

counterproductive work behavior, and self-rated task performance scales and turnover

intention scales. The measurement model fit well to the data (χ^2 = 501.63, df = 315, p <

.01, RMSEA = .053, CFI = .948, SRMR= .062) and all the parcels had strong factor

loadings (β > .5) that were statistically significant ($p < .001$).

Structural Model. The hypothesized model was a fully mediated structure in

which variability in personality related to job performance and turnover intentions

through self-esteem, anxiety, job satisfaction, and leader-member exchange. Specifically,

variability in personality led to self-esteem and anxiety, which in turn led to job

satisfaction, and finally to self-rated job performance and turnover intentions (see Figure

1 in Appendix B). Furthermore, LMX was hypothesized to mediate the relationship

between variability in personality and self-rated job performance and turnover intentions.

Given their conceptual similar and role in the model (Lee & Robbins, 1998; Dalal, 2005),

self-esteem and anxiety, and OCB and CWB were free to covary. The hypothesized

model provided a poor fit to the data (χ^2 = 760.45, df = 336, p < .01, RMSEA = .078, CFI

= .883, SRMR= .146, see Table 9). In light of this, alternative models were tested. A

review of the modification indices showed that allowing job satisfaction and LMX to

correlate would yield the biggest improvement in model fit. Although the hypothesized

model had LMX and job satisfaction as unique mediators, prior research suggests these

two variables would be correlated (Janssen & Nico, 2004; Martin, Thomas, Charles,

Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005). Model 2, which freed the covariance between job

satisfaction and LMX, provided a statistically significant improvement in fit over Model

1 (χ^2 = 594.80, df = 335, p < .01, RMSEA = .061, CFI = .928, SRMR= .107, $\Delta \chi^2$ (1df) =

165.65, p <.01). Finally, a third model was tested which simplified the relationship of the

mediators. That is, this simple three-stage model dropped the interim relationship from

self-esteem to job satisfaction and from anxiety to job satisfaction, instead allowing self-

esteem and anxiety to load directly onto the job performance and turnover intention

outcomes (see Figure 2 in Appendix B). This conceptually simplified model fit

significantly better than model 2, and had an acceptable overall fit (χ^2 = 566.51, df = 328,

p < .01, RMSEA = .059, CFI = .934, SRMR= .096, $\Delta \chi^2$ (7df) = 28.29, p <.01). Model 3

was used to test hypotheses 5 – 21.

Direct Effects. Hypothesis 5 argued that variability in personality would be

negatively related to self-esteem, and while in the hypothesized direction, this

relationship only approached significance (β = -.157, p = .06, see Table 10 in Appendix

B). Furthermore, hypothesis 7 stated that variability in personality would be positively

related to anxiety, and this was supported (β = .188, p = .03). The relationship between

variability in personality and job satisfaction was statistically significant (β = -.251, p <

.01), as was the relationship between variability in personality and LMX (β = -.188, p =

.02), providing support for hypothesis 13. Self-esteem was significantly related to self-

rated task performance (β = .214, p = .02) and self-rated OCB (β = .212, p = .01),

providing support for hypotheses 6a and 6b. However, self-esteem was not significantly

related to self-rated CWB (β = .098, p = .23), or turnover intentions (β = .099, p = .16),

failing to support hypotheses 6c and 6d.

Anxiety was significantly related to self-rated CWB ($\beta = .264$, $p < .01$), providing support for hypothesis 8c. However, anxiety was not significantly related to task performance ($\beta = -.011$, $p = .90$), OCB ($\beta = .134$, $p = .11$), or turnover intentions ($\beta = -.097$, $p = .17$), failing to support hypotheses 8a, 8b, and 8c.

The relationship between job satisfaction and task performance was not statistically significant ($\beta = .152$, $p = .30$), nor was the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB ($\beta = -.183$, $p = .21$), failing to provide support for hypotheses 9 and 10. However, job satisfaction was significantly related to CWB ($\beta = -.556$, $p < .01$) and turnover intentions ($\beta = -.779$, $p < .01$), providing partial support for hypotheses 11 and 12. Finally, LMX was not significantly related to task performance ($\beta = .133$, $p = .37$), OCB ($\beta = .276$, $p = .06$), CWB ($\beta = .052$, $p = .71$), or turnover intentions ($\beta = .110$, $p = .37$), although the relationship to OCB approached significance. These fail to support hypotheses 14 – 17.

Indirect Effects. Bootstrapped estimates of the indirect effects, using 1000 samples, served as a test of mediation. The indirect path from variability in personality to CWB, through anxiety, was statistically significant (b = .102, 95% CI [.005 .330], see Table 11). The indirect path from variability in personality to CWB, through job satisfaction was statistically significant (b = .285, 95% CI [.071 .684]), as was the path from variability in personality to turnover intentions, through job satisfaction (b = 1.73, 95% CI [.581, 3.92]). The combined indirect paths from variability in personality, through all mediators, to task performance (b = -.280, 95% CI [-.686, -.058]), CWB (b = .335, 95% CI [.081, .684]) and turnover intentions (b = 1.248, 95% CI [.289, 2.623])

were statistically significant, providing support for hypotheses 18, 20, and 21. The indirect path from variability in personality to OCB, through all mediators, was not statistically significant, failing to provide support for hypothesis 19.

Individual Facet Models. The hypotheses refer to variability in personality in general, so the prior models were tested on an aggregation of variability across the Big Five. However, it is possible that the individual facets have differential relationships with the mediators and outcomes, which would provide interesting directions for future research. With this in mind, the final model was tested using the within-person standard deviation on the individual facets. All 5 models providing an acceptable fit to the data (see Table 12).

The standardized path coefficients for the individual facet models are listed in Table 13. Of note, variability in conscientiousness ($\beta = -.316$, $p > .01$) and variability in neuroticism ($\beta = -.271$, $p > .01$) had significant relationships with self-esteem. Variability in neuroticism also had a significant relationship with anxiety ($\beta = .337$, $p < .01$), as did variability in openness ($\beta = .185$, $p = .047$). Variability in conscientiousness ($\beta = -.376$, $p < .01$), variability in neuroticism ($\beta = -.244$, $p < .01$), and variability in extraversion ($\beta = -.208$, $p = .04$) were significantly related to LMX. Finally, variability in conscientiousness ($\beta = -.346$, $p < .01$), variability in neuroticism ($\beta = -.332$, $p < .01$), and variability in agreeableness ($\beta = -.170$, $p < .01$) were significantly related to job satisfaction.

Investigation of the indirect effects showed that the extraversion (b = .990, 95% CI [.004, 1.49]) and neuroticism (b = .897, 95% CI [.129, 1.06]) models showed

significant indirect effects of variability in personality to turnover intention, through job satisfaction.

Other Performance Ratings. To this point, all analyses have used the self-rated performance scales. However, other performance ratings were also collected, therefore a separate series of analyses was completed on this subset of data. After data cleaning, there were 85 other performance ratings that were matched with the participant scores. Although SEM was utilized with the full sample, OLS regression was used on this reduced sample because of the limited sample size. Hayes' (2016, Model 4) PROCESS Macro was used to bootstrap the indirect effects (Darlington & Hayes, 2016).

First, it's worth noting that self-ratings of OCB (3.10 vs 3.39, $t = 2.98$, $p < .01$, $d = .38$) and CWB (1.56 vs 1.18, $t = 6.70$, $p < .01$, $d = .97$) were statistically different than the other-ratings, although the self-ratings of task performance did not differ significantly from the other ratings (6.36 vs 6.49, $t = 1.37$, $p = .182$, $d = .16$). The correlation between self- and other-rated task performance was $r = .01$. This is lower than past research has found ($r = .34$, Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). The correlation between self- and other-rated OCB was $r = .16$, which is similar to estimates found in past research ($r = .11$, Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000). Finally, the correlation between self- and other-rated CWB was $r = .11$, which is lower than has been found in past research ($r = .34$, Berry, Carpenter, and Barratt, 2012).

The results of the regression models are shown in Table 14. Of particular interest are coefficients that involve the other performance ratings, as the relationships among variability in personality and the mediators were already tested using the full sample, which should provide a more robust estimate of these relationships. The first model

looked at the variability across the Big Five. Results showed a statistically significant

relationship between anxiety and other-rated task performance (β = .308, p = .04),

although the relationship was in the opposite direction as stated in hypothesis 8a.

Additionally, results showed a significant relationship between LMX and other-rated task

performance (β = .311, $p < .01$), providing further support for hypothesis 13. The Big

Five model had only one significant indirect effect, from variability in personality to task

performance, through anxiety (b = .173, 95% CI [.021, .403]).

Next, models using the individual Big Five facets were run using the other-rated

performance scales. The results were reasonably consistent across the factors. Notably,

each model showed a statistically significant direct relationship of LMX on task

performance (see Table 14). There were no significant indirect effects among any of the

individual facet models.

Direct Effects. The final SEM model was a fully mediating model, in which the

direct paths from variability in personality to the job performance and turnover intention

outcomes were not specified. However, it is likely that future researchers would also be

interested in the direct effects of variability in personality on the outcomes, as there are

likely additional mediators that should be investigated. Therefore, an additional model

was run which kept the same simplified mediating structure of Model 3, but added the

direct paths from variability in personality to the self-rated outcomes. Of note, this model

fit significantly better than Model 3 (χ^2 = 551.52, df = 324, p < .01, RMSEA = .058, CFI

= .937, SRMR= .094, $\Delta \chi^2$ (4df) = 14.99, $p <$.01), although the changes to RMSEA, CFI,

and SRMR were negligible. Only the direct path from variability in personality to self-

rated CWB was statistically significant (β = .227, $p < .01$, see Table 15), while the path

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to self-rated OCB approached significance (β = -.144, p = .09). The paths from

variability in personality to self-rated task performance (β = .029, p = .73) and turnover

intentions (β = .024, p = .70) were small and not statistically significant.

Next, the direct paths model was tested for each of the individual Big Five facets.

Of note, variability in conscientiousness (β = .289, p = .02, see Table 15), extraversion (

β = .215, p < .01), agreeableness (β = .214, p = .03), and neuroticism (β = .205, p =

.03) were all significantly related to CWB. Additionally, variability in conscientiousness

was significantly related to task performance (β = -.285, p = .02), and variability in

agreeableness was significantly related to OCB (β = -.240, p < .01). The direct effects

were also tested using the other-rated performance scales. Only the relationship between

variability in neuroticism and task performance was statistically significant (b = -.342 p

=.02, see Table 16).

Incremental Variance Explained by Personality Variability. Past personality

research has mainly focused on the mean of personality traits, but the investigation of

variability in personality is important because it represents a relatively novel approach

towards linking personality to various psychological outcomes. Therefore, it was

important to test whether the within-person variability in personality constructs provided

any additional explanatory power above the within-person means. A series of two-step

regression analyses were run on each mediator and outcome. The first step featured the

within-person means on the Big Five personality constructs as predictors. The within-

person variability on the Big Five personality constructs were added as predictors in step

two, and the change in r^2 was examined.

The results for the self-rated mediators and outcomes showed that adding variability in personality yielded a small to moderate improvement in r^2 over and above the means, ranging from 2.3% for self-rated OCB to 4.3% for LMX (see Table 17). Only the LMX model yielded a statistically significant improvement from step one to step two ($F = 2.30$, $p = .04$), although the self-rated task performance (F = 1.85, $p = .10$) and self-rated CWB ($F = 1.85$, $p = .07$) models approached significance. Furthermore, the addition of variability in personality resulted in a 14.7% improvement in the variance explained for other-rated task performance, and this step change was statistically significant ($F = 2.51$, $p = .04$; see Table 18). The addition of variability in personality yielded small improvements in other-rated OCB and CWB models, and these changes were not statistically significant.

Discussion

As research moves from trait-based theories of personality to theories that integrate both the person and situation (Fleeson, 2012), it provides an opportunity to test whether within-individual changes in personality are meaningful in an organizational setting. Furthermore, trait-based theories often fail to explain the mechanisms that mediate the relationship between personality and behavior, thus integrated theories provide a platform to study these important relationships. The present study represents the first examination into the relationships between one's distribution of personality states and a broad set of organizational outcomes. Building on prior research that has looked the relationship between momentary personality states and momentary task performance (Debusscher et al., 2016), the present study expanded the outcomes to contextual performance and turnover intentions. By moving beyond trait-based

conceptualizations of personality, the present results showed that variability in personality is a useful construct in an organizational setting, and can be used to explain unique variance in outcomes beyond what is explained by the means of personality constructs.

Across all the results, the most consistent evidence was that variability in personality has a relationship with self-rated CWB, both directly and through mediators, specifically anxiety and job satisfaction. This relationship was not seen in other-rated CWB, but evidence shows that self-ratings of CWB are typically more valid than other ratings (Berry et al., 2012), as many counterproductive work behaviors are likely performed outside the presence of one's manager. Furthermore, these ratings were given in a research setting, so there was likely subdued pressure to respond in a socially desirable way (Harris, Smith, & Champagne, 1995). Indeed, the results showed that self-ratings of CWB were significantly higher than other-ratings (1.56 vs 1.18, $t = 6.70$, $p < .01$, $d = .97$), suggesting that participants were more aware and willing to divulge their deviant behavior versus their coworkers or supervisors.

The observed variability-in-personality relation to CWB is noteworthy. Past research has shown that personality measured in trait form is related to CWB (Cullen & Sackett, 2003), ignoring the variability inherent in individuals' distributions of personality states. By expanding our theory of personality to include variability, we have another parameter concept and operation (within-person variability) with which to explain and possibly predict CWBs. Research should continue to explore the nature of this relationship, and social exchange theory and other explanatory mechanisms should be explored to better understand the specific triggers that may cause individuals with

highly variable personalities to commit more CWBs. Organizations looking to reduce the

amount of counterproductive behaviors among their employees may find utility in

considering the variability in personality. Specifically, if there are workplace situations

that are likely to lead to variability in personality states, managers should consider

adapting these situations to eliminate the likelihood that an individually would experience

these shifting states. Variety is important to the workplace (Hackman & Oldham, 1976),

but one can imagine workplace situations where individuals experience shifting levels of

state conscientiousness or neuroticism. The present study's results suggest that this may

not be ideal, but further research is needed before firm suggestions can be made.

The results also showed that variability in personality had a statistically

significant positive relationship with anxiety, and the negative relationship to self-esteem

approached statistical significance. Furthermore, the indirect path from variability in

personality to CWB, through anxiety, was statistically significant. From a

comprehensive view, these findings suggest that variability in personality, as measured

by distributions of personality states, may be negatively related to beneficial

psychological constructs, and positively related to detrimental constructs. Research on

self-concept differentiation (SCD) suggests that individuals with higher levels of

variability in their self-concept have lower levels of adjustment outcomes (Bleidorn &

Kodding, 2013), thus actual variability in state personality should theoretically share

similar patterns. The similar pattern of findings in the present study provides a promising

future for research in this area. Additional research on variability in personality may find

value in directly measuring SCD, and comparing it to the variability in personality scores

that are derived from experience sampling measures. Theory suggests that SCD is

positively related to maladjustment indicators, however, there was an assumption in the current study that variability in personality would be related to a fragmented sense of self. It's possible that there are individuals that experience a diverse range of personality states, but maintain a unified sense of self. Future research should continue to explore these relationships.

Variability in personality was also significantly related to job satisfaction and LMX. These relationships held not only for the aggregation of variability in personality across the Big Five, but many of the facets as well. LMX and job satisfaction served as mediators in the hypothesized model, and although there was some evidence that they provided an indirect path to self-rated CWBs, they are important organizational outcomes in their own right. Of note, variability in conscientiousness had statistically significant negative relationships with self-esteem, LMX, and job satisfaction. These relationships were among the strongest found in terms of linking variability in personality to the mediators and outcomes ($\beta > .3$).

Conscientiousness is widely seen as the most useful personality construct in an organizational setting (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and, although there have been recent efforts to look at variability in conscientiousness (Debusscher et al., 2016; Huang & Ryan, 2011; Judge et al., 2014; Minbashian et al., 2010), a vast majority of prior researchers have conceptualized conscientiousness as a trait and mostly studied it across persons. Perhaps as a consequence, many managers may only consider an employee's mean level of conscientiousness, not being familiar with the idea that conscientiousness can be conceptualized as fluid and existing as a distribution (Fleeson, 2012). By moving from this static definition to one that is inherently dynamic, managers should be more

likely to recognize that a person's conscientiousness can fluctuate depending on the

situation, and manage their work environment with that in mind. Prior research has

started to assemble a taxonomy of psychological features of situations that lead to state

conscientiousness (Huang & Ryan, 2011; Judge et al., 2014; Minbashian et al., 2010).

Although the present study failed to replicate the relationships between state

conscientiousness and task focus and task complexity, future research should continue to

test these and other psychological features that may lead to an increase in state

conscientiousness.

Although variability in the aggregation of the Big Five was not related to task

performance, variability in conscientiousness did show a significant negative relationship

with self-rated task performance. Variability in the Big Five facets also explained

significantly more variance in other-rated task performance than the mean levels of the

facets. This provides an important extension to Debusccher et al. (2016), who found that

individuals with less variability in state conscientiousness had stronger relationships

between state conscientiousness and momentary task performance. The present study

looked at self-ratings of task performance in general, as opposed to in the moment, but

the convergence between the two studies provides a promising future for research in this

area. It's worth noting that although variability in conscientiousness was related to self-

esteem, LMX, and job satisfaction, as well as directly related to task performance, there

was little evidence that these constructs mediated the relationship between variability in

conscientiousness and task performance. Although future research should continue to

assess the utility of these potential mediators, the present results suggest there may be

other mediators of the relationship between variability in conscientiousness and

performance. Bleidorn and Kodding (2013) found that self-concept differentiation was positively related with negative affect, depression, and negative physical symptoms, so a better understanding of the impacts of variability in personality may have important implications on employee well-being.

Variability across the Big Five, as well as within conscientiousness, extraversion, and neuroticism, was negatively related to LMX. Theory suggests individuals with less stable behaviors are harder to judge, and, therefore, it may be harder to develop long-lasting, quality relationships with these individuals (Human et al., 2014). Liking is a possible mediator of this relationship and future research should test this. Practically, this pattern suggests that managers should think about the extent to which the relationships with their subordinates are influenced by potential changing circumstances that employees may experience. Employees with poor levels of LMX and high variable levels of say, neuroticism, may be better off working in more stable work environments.

Friendliness of interactions was the one psychological feature that showed utility in the present study, as it was positively related to state extraversion and state agreeableness. This replicates prior research (Huang & Ryan, 2011) and provides useful direction for researchers interested in building a taxonomy of psychological features that lead to various state personality constructs. Psychological features of situations are important because they are likely to have a consistent impact on behavior across situations. The present study suggests that organizational researchers should continue to explore future psychological features that may lead to personality states, especially neuroticism. Ambiguous or stressful situations may lead to state neuroticism, so this would be interesting to explore. Practically, by conceptualizing personality as a

distribution of states, hiring managers may be able to widen the pool of available candidates for a job in which extraversion or agreeableness is desired. Indeed, one can imagine a situation where a hiring manager is looking for a minimum threshold of extraversion for a position. By designing a workplace that encourages increased friendly interactions, this manager may be able to lower that threshold and hire individuals who would otherwise be more introverted, if not for the friendly interactions that bring about state extraversion. As more research is conducted to identify psychological characteristics of situations that lead to changes in state personality, managers can design jobs that maximize the potential for desirable personality states.

Importantly, there was significant variance in the within-individual slopes of the relationships from task focus and task complexity to state conscientiousness, and friendliness of interactions to state extraversion. This suggests that these state personality constructs are differentially contingent on the psychological features of situations within-individuals. Future research should look at potential higher level variables that may moderate these within-individual relationships. For example, it's possible that the relationship between friendliness of interactions and state extraversion is stronger for individuals who have more friends in an organization. Another important avenue for future research would be the development of a measure that can reliably assess an individual's situational contingencies, which could prove useful in a selection or development context.

Variability in neuroticism was significantly related to every mediator (self-esteem, anxiety, LMX, and job satisfaction) and the direct paths model showed a relationship to CWB as well. The notion of variability in neuroticism is interesting

because neuroticism, and its opposite pole emotional stability, has a form of variability inherent in its definition. Therefore, variability in neuroticism may actually be best conceived as variability in the amount people feel that their emotions change. Notably, there was a strong positive correlation between the within-person mean of neuroticism and the within-person variability ($r = .54$), meaning individuals with higher levels of state neuroticism tended to be less consistent in their perceptions of this neuroticism. In the present study a poor state neuroticism item was dropped, as was also the case in Huang & Ryan (2011), so more research may be needed to tease apart the true nature of the construct and better understand what is being measured with fluctuations in state neuroticism.

Additional Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

The sample in the present study consisted of working students. These students likely worked in a variety of different jobs and industries, meaning there were undoubtedly many factors other than personality that would influence job performance ratings outside of personality. For example, some students may have been in entry level positions where it was relatively easy to maintain an acceptable level of performance, whereas others may have been in more advanced positions where it would be hard to achieve a high level of performance, regardless of motivation level. Such variance in situational factors may cloud any influence of personality variability. However, one advantage to having participants in a variety of different jobs is that there was likely more between-persons variety on the situational contingency and state personality scales in the present study than if all participants had been from one particular job or industry. Indeed, the average coefficient of variation (σ/μ) of 21% on the state personality scales was

higher than was seen in Debusscher et al. (2016), whose sample was drawn from a single organization. Nevertheless, an interesting extension of this research would be one which features participants that work in a relatively homogenous setting, to help control for potential other factors that may influence job performance.

Many of the statistically significant findings in the present study came from a model that was operationalized with self-rated performance scales. The advantages and validity of self-ratings of CWB have already been discussed, but self-ratings of task performance have been shown to be susceptible to leniency bias (Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). The mean task performance score of 6.36 (on a 7-point scale) suggests this may have been the case. On the other hand, many working students likely work in low-skill entry-level positions, which may inflate the task performance scores versus the working population in general. The mean task complexity score of 2.94 (out of 7) supports the notion that these participants were doing relatively mundane tasks on a daily basis. Regardless, leniency on the self-ratings of task performance is a concern and should be viewed as a potential threat to the validity of the present study.

Leniency on the self-ratings of task performance may have been an issue, but the mean self-ratings of task performance were actually lower than the other-ratings, although the difference was not statistically significant (6.36 vs 6.49, $t = 1.37$, $p = .182$, $d = .16$). The other ratings of performance, however, may have also been susceptible to leniency bias. Participants had the choice whether or not to submit the contact information for a coworker or supervisor, so it is possible that individuals with poor job performance simply chose to opt out of this aspect of the study. Furthermore, participants had the option to choose which specific coworker or supervisor they wanted

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to contact, so they may have been drawn towards friends or others with which they had good working relationships. There were no statically significant differences between those participants who had other-reports of performance and those who did not on self-rated task performance, self-rated OCB, or self-rated CWB, but there were significantly lower levels of LMX (t = 3.18, $p < .01$, $d = .45$) and job satisfaction (t = 3.39, $p < .01$, $d = .48$) for those who did not obtain other performance ratings. Past research strongly supports the positive relationships between these constructs and job performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Judge et al., 2001), so the absence of other-ratings for these individuals may have resulted in potential bias.

Participants in the study completed an average of 3.83 state measures of personality per individual. The present study was interested in estimating the variability of one's personality states and the relationship between this and other outcomes, so 3 or 4 measures may have not been enough measurements to accurately estimate one's true variability. However, the ICCs from the random coefficient modeling found that roughly half of the variance in personality states was between-persons, which is similar to what has been seen in past research (Debusccher et al., 2016; Huang & Ryan, 2011). Alternatively, the present study was able to run analyses on 209 participants, which is a considerably larger sample size than most past research that has studied personality states. Because of this, the present study may be the first to feature variability in personality in a structural equation model, possibly modeling the relationships of interest better than have some other analytical techniques. The experience sampling measures in the present study featured 30 items, thus there may be practical difficulties finding a working sample that will complete surveys of this size for extended periods of time.

Future research should examine the utility of more concise measures of state personality, so as to increase the probability of gaining access to working samples that can be matched with job performance ratings.

Furthermore, common method variance on the experience sampling measures may have inflated the relationships among the situational contingencies and state personality measures. Specifically, the items on the daily surveys were taken at the same time and had identical item response options, so it is possible that this caused artificial covariation among the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, these surveys were completed after participants' workdays, so participants may have had limited cognitive resources to truly evaluate the whole range of response options for each item. An interesting extension to this research would be a study in which task focus, task complexity, or friendliness or interactions was manipulated, and the effect on state personality was measured.

Due to the complexity of the hypothesized variability in personality model, parceling was used to reduce the number of observed indicators. Parceling is a technique that has shown utility in past research, because aggregates of items typically show better distributional properties than individual items, which is important for maximum likelihood estimation (Little, Cunningham, Shahar, Widaman, 2002; Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). However, parceling may result in less idiosyncratic item error being partitioned from the latent variables, and as a result the estimates of the true relationships among these constructs may have been attenuated (Little et al., 2002). Furthermore, the final structural model tested was slightly different than the original hypothesized model.

Both changes to the original model were supported by theory, but the model should be further validated to ensure these modifications weren't capitalizing on chance.

More research is needed to understand the impact of variability in personality on organizational outcomes, but future research should also look at the utility of a self-report or other-report measure of variability in personality. That is, it would be interesting to see if individuals, or others who observe their behavior on a fairly regular basis, have an accurate perception of this individual's actual variability in personality. This would provide both theoretical and practical implications, as collecting a direct self-report measure of variability in personality would be less arduous than deriving one over multiple measures. Additionally, research has yet to consider whether a self-report measure of personality variability could provide value in a selection or development context, although there have been calls for this in multiple past studies (Debusccher et al., 2016; Huang & Ryan, 2011; Judge et al., 2013). One can imagine a personality test that asks about the average level of an individual's behavior on a specific item, and then subsequently asks about the consistency of that behavior.

Finally, additional research is needed to further understand the various causes of variability in personality, and potential moderators of the relationships between variability in personality and outcomes. Future studies should attempt to gather more information about participants' workplace environment, specifically the strength of situations. Individuals in relatively strong environments with limited autonomy will likely have less variability in personality, thus this would be an interesting moderator to investigate in future research. McCabe and Fleeson (2012) found that variability in personality was largely predicted by examining the goals individuals are pursuing at any

given moment. However, Whole Trait Theory suggests that other internal events and constructs may lead to changes in state personality in addition to goals (Fleeson & Jayawickreme, 2015). One such construct may be affect. Bleidorn and Kodding (2013) found that self-concept differentiation was related to affect, thus it is likely that research on variability in personality would find value in measuring affect as well. Furthermore, given the conceptual similarity between state affect and state personality, future research should attempt to measure, and potentially control for, the effects of affect to ensure that variability in state personality can explain unique variance in the outcomes.

Finally, it's likely that culture moderates the relationships between personality variability and various outcomes, thus this would be a valuable area for future research. Bleidorn & Kodding (2013) found that the deleterious effects of a fragmented self-concept are attenuated in less individualistic cultures. It is also possible that cultural effects may impact one's perception of their own variability in personality. Outgroup members and minorities in very diverse environments may feel increased pressure to conform to the majority standards in various situations, thus this would be important to investigate as well.

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VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

APPENDIX A

Measures

Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following

items:

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

2. At times, I think I am no good at all.

3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

6. I certainly feel useless at times.

7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.

8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

GAD-7

Over the last 2 weeks, how often have you been bothered by the following problems?

1. Feeling nervous, anxious, or on edge

2. Not being able to stop or control worrying

3. Worrying too much about different things

4. Trouble relaxing

5. Being so restless that it's hard to sit still

6. Becoming easily annoyed or irritable

7. Feeling afraid as if something awful might happen

MSQ – Short Form

Instructions: Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

1. Being able to keep busy all the time.

2. The chance to work alone on the job.

3. The chance to do different things from time to time.

4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community.

5. The way my boss handles his/her workers.

6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions.

7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience.

8. The way my job provides for steady employment.

9. The chance to do things for other people.

10. The chance to tell people what to do.

11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities.

12. The way company policies are put into practice.

13. My pay and the amount of work I do.

14. The chances for advancement on this job.

15. The freedom to use my own judgment.

16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job.

17. The working conditions.

18. The way my co-workers get along with each other.

19. The praise I get for doing a good job.

20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.

LMX 7 Questionnaire

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with your leader. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each item.

1. I know where I stand with my leader.

2. My leader understands my job problems and needs.

3. My leader recognizes my potential.

4. Regardless of how much formal authority my leader has built into his or her position, my leader would use his or her power to help me solve problems in my work.

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority my leader has, he or she would "bail me out" at his or her expense.

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

7. I have a good working relationship with my leader.

Task Performance (Rated by Others)

Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. The individual you are rating will not have access to these ratings, and the results will only be reported in aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as possible when rating this individual.

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Please think about the individual's job performance and answer the following items.

Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with these items.

1. This employee consistently meets the requirements listed on the job description;

2. This employee performs the core duties of the job successfully

3. This employee is unable to adequately perform the core responsibilities for this job.

4. I have had an adequate opportunity to observe this employee's performance and feel comfortable with the ratings I made above.

Task Performance (Self-Rated)

Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. Only the researchers will have access to the results, and the results will only be reported in aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as possible when rating yourself.

Please think about your job performance and answer the following items. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with these items.

1. I consistently meets the requirements listed on the job description

2. I perform the core duties of the job successfully

3. I am unable to adequately perform the core responsibilities for this job.

OCB – C

Other Rated Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. The individual you are rating will not have access to these ratings, and the results will only be reported in aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as possible when rating this individual.

Please think about the individual's behavior on the job and answer the following items. Please rate the frequency with which the individual engages in each behavior (scale ranges from Never (1) to Every Day (5)).

Self-Rated Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. Only the researchers will have access to the results, and the results will only be reported in aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as possible when rating yourself.

Please think about your own behavior on the job and answer the following items. Please rate the frequency with which you engage in each behavior (scale ranges from Never (1) to Every Day (5)).

1. Picked up meal for others at work.

2. Took time to advise, coach, or mentor a co-worker.

3. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.

4. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.

5. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.

6. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal problem.

7. Changed vacation schedule, work days, or shifts to accommodate co-worker's needs.

8. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.

9. Offered suggestions for improving the work environment.

10. Finished something for co-worker who had to leave early.

11. Helped a less capable co-worker lift a heavy box or other object.

12. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.

13. Volunteered for extra work assignments.

14. Took phone messages for absent or busy co-worker.

15. Said good things about your (his/her) employer in front of others.

16. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.

17. Volunteered to help a co-worker deal with a difficult customer, vendor, or co-worker.

18. Went out of the way to give co-worker encouragement or express appreciation.

19. Decorated, straightened up, or otherwise beautified common work space.

20. Defended a co-worker who was being "put-down" or spoken ill of by other co-workers or supervisor.

CWB-C

Other Rated Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. The individual you are rating will not have access to these ratings, and the results will only be reported in aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as possible when rating this individual.

Please think about the individual's behavior on the job and answer the following items.

Please rate the frequency with which the individual engages in each behavior (scale ranges from Never (1) to Every Day (5)).

Self-Rated Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. Only the researchers will have access to the results, and the results will only be reported in aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as possible when rating yourself.

Please think about your own behavior on the job and answer the following items. Please rate the frequency with which you engage in each behavior (scale ranges from Never (1) to Every Day (5)).

1. Purposely wasted your (his/her) employer's materials/supplies

2. Complained about insignificant things at work

3. Told people outside the job what a lousy place you (he/she) work(s) for

4. Came to work late without permission

5. Stayed home from work and said you (he/she) were (was) sick when you (he/she) weren't (wasn't)

6. Insulted someone about their job performance

7. Made fun of someone's personal life

8. Ignored someone at work

9. Started an argument with someone at work

10. Insulted or made fun of someone at work

Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire – Turnover Intentions Subscale

Self-Rated Instructions: These questions are for research purposes only. Only the researchers will have access to the results, and the results will only be reported in

aggregated form (i.e. group averages). Therefore, we ask that you are as honest as

possible when rating yourself.

Please think about your own job, and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree

with each question.

1.   I have no plans to leave.

2.   I am actively looking for another job.

3.   I have made plans to leave my current job.

Mini – IPIP

Instructions: Please describe yourself *as you felt TODAY at work*, not as you are in

general, or as you wish to be in the future. Indicate the extent to which you agree or

disagree with the following questions:

1.   I sympathized with others' feelings

2.   I was not interested in other people's problems

3.   I felt others' emotions

4.   I was not really interested in others

5.   I got work duties done right away

6.   I often put things back in their proper place

7.   I liked order

8.   I made a mess of things

9.   I was the life of the party at work

10.   I didn't talk a lot

11.   I talked to a lot of different people at work

12.   I kept in the background

13.   I had a vivid imagination

14.   I was not interested in abstract ideas

15.   I had difficulty understanding abstract concepts

16.   I did not have a good imagination

17.   I had frequent mood swings

18.   I was relaxed most of the time

19.   I got upset easily

20.   I seldom felt blue

Situational Contingencies

Instructions: The following questions will ask you about your day at work today. Take a second and consider the entire workday when you answer each questions. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each question below.

Friendliness of Interactions

The people I interacted with today at work were friendly.

The people I interacted with today were willing to engage in conversation.

The people I interacted with today were sociable.

Task Focus

I had to remain very focused in order to complete my job duties today.

Today, my job duties required my full attention in order to be successful.

I was able to complete my job duties today without really concentrating.

Task Complexity

The tasks I completed during work today were very complex.

My job duties were difficult for me today.

The tasks I needed to complete today for my job were quite simple.

APPENDIX B

Random coefficient equations. The example below will be used to test Hypothesis 1.

Similar equations will be used for hypotheses 2 – 4.

Model 1

Level 1: State Conscientiousness = $\pi_0 + e$

Level 2: $\pi_0 = \beta_{00} + r_0$

Model 2

Level 1: State Conscientiousness = $\pi_0 + \pi_1$ (task focus) + e

Level 2: $\pi_0 = \beta_{00} + r_0$

$\pi_1 = \beta_{10} + r_1$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlation Matrix

	Scale	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Self-esteem	5.57	.92	.88											
2	Anxiety	1.96	.63	-.39**	.85										
3	Job Satisfaction	3.79	.74	.29**	-.30**	.88									
4	LMX	5.49	1.28	.28**	-.19**	.78**	.93								
5	Task Performance (self)	6.36	.70	.27*	-.12	.27**	.28**	.84							
6	Task Performance (other)	6.49	.88	-.05	.23*	.01	.22	.01	.92						
7	OCB (self)	3.10	.75	.14*	.04	.07	.14	.17*	-.16	.93					
8	OCB (other)	3.39	.77	.01	.16	-.08	.03	.04	.22*	.16	.91				
9	CWB (self)	1.56	.50	-.15*	.31**	-.42**	-.33**	-.18**	.10	.21**	.21	.80			
10	CWB (other)	1.18	.24	-.02	-.05	-.08	-.12	-.02	-.46**	.27*	-.01	.11	.62		
11	Turnover Intentions	3.28	1.84	-.05	.07	-.59**	-.46**	-.19**	-.14	.08	-.01	.43**	.06	.84	
12	Conscientiousness mean	5.90	.63	.35**	-.02	.24**	.29**	.34**	.03	.19**	-.16	-.23**	-.14	-.16*	.71
13	Conscientiousness variability	.63	.39	-.16*	-.04	-.21**	-.22**	-.23**	-.17	-.14	.14	.24**	.09	.14	-.62**
14	Agreeableness mean	4.84	1.03	.20**	-.16*	.44**	.41**	.15*	-.17	.29**	-.11	-.37**	.09	-.33**	.34**
15	Agreeableness variability	.95	.48	-.05	.11	-.11	-.05	.05	.13	-.15*	.11	.24**	-.13	.03	-.21**
16	Extraversion mean	4.55	1.04	.21**	-.08	.22**	.29**	.18*	-.16	.37**	.00	-.15*	.11	-.15*	.32**
17	Extraversion variability	1.04	.48	.03	.05	-.08	-.13	.02	-.05	-.08	.12	.22*	-.13	.12	-.13
18	Neuroticism mean	2.63	.94	-.33**	.32**	-.33**	-.32**	-.18**	.09	-.08	.17	.38**	.22*	.28**	-.46**
19	Neuroticism variability	.97	.57	-.17*	.22**	-.25**	-.19**	-.08	-.16	.02	.08	.28**	.12	.16*	-.25**
20	Openness mean	4.85	.89	.30*	-.18**	.37**	.35**	.17*	-.09	.26**	-.13	-.27**	.13	-.22**	.38**
21	Openness variability	.90	.44	-.05	.17*	-.05	-.01	-.02	.08	-.07	.15	.087	-.05	.10	-.13
22	Task Complexity	2.94	1.03	-.01	-.08	.22**	.17*	-.09	-.06	-.01	-.16	-.034	.05	-.11	-.24**
23	Task Focus	4.25	1.21	.15*	-.12	.31**	.30**	.00	-.10	.09	-.32**	-.21**	.00	-.18**	.09
24	Friendliness of Interactions	5.62	.71	.29**	-.14*	.32**	.30**	.23**	-.16	.13	-.26*	-.29**	.19	-.23**	.52**

Notes. Variables 12 – 24 were aggregated to the within-person level. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 1 (Continued)

	Scale	M	SD	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1	Self-esteem	5.57	.92												
2	Anxiety	1.96	.63												
3	Job Satisfaction	3.79	.74												
4	LMX	5.49	1.28												
5	Task Performance (self)	6.36	.70												
6	Task Performance (other)	6.49	.88												
7	OCB (self)	3.10	.75												
8	OCB (other)	3.39	.77												
9	CWB (self)	1.56	.50												
10	CWB (other)	1.18	.24												
11	Turnover Intentions	3.28	1.84												
12	Conscientiousness mean	5.90	.63												
13	Conscientiousness variability	.63	.39	.57											
14	Agreeableness mean	4.84	1.03	-.31**	.89										
15	Agreeableness variability	.95	.48	.40**	-.41**	.72									
16	Extraversion mean	4.55	1.04	-.24**	.57**	-.31**	.81								
17	Extraversion variability	1.04	.48	.27**	-.27**	.54**	-.41**	.64							
18	Neuroticism mean	2.63	.94	.33**	-.48**	.30**	-.29**	.18**	.81						
19	Neuroticism variability	.97	.57	.42**	-.27**	.45**	-.17*	.32**	.54**	.64					
20	Openness mean	4.85	.89	-.32**	.57**	-.30**	.43**	-.26**	-.38**	-.28**	.79				
21	Openness variability	.90	.44	.28**	-.19**	.45**	-.13	.34**	.26**	.40**	-.26**	.62			
22	Task Complexity	2.94	1.03	.21**	.06	.03	-.09	..02	.29**	.04	-.06	.06	.79		
23	Task Focus	4.25	1.21	-.01	.40**	-.15*	.25**	-.17*	-.09	-.15*	.20**	-.07	.62**	.89	
24	Friendliness of Interactions	5.62	.71	-.30**	.50**	-.18*	.41**	-.21**	-.41**	-.13	.33**	-.06	-.10	.15*	.89

Notes. Variables 12 – 24 were aggregated to the within-person level. * p < .05, ** p < .01

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 2

Comparing Complete Participants to Incomplete Participants

Scale	t	df	d	Complete Mean	Incomplete Mean
Self-esteem	0.39	245	.07	5.56	5.49
Anxiety	-1.19	245	.21	1.96	2.10
Job Satisfaction	-.31	245	.05	3.79	3.83
Leader-Member Exchange	1.33	245	.24	5.49	5.19
OCB	.62	245	.11	3.11	3.02
CWB	.69	245	.12	1.58	1.51
Task Performance	1.55	245	.28	6.34	6.14
Turnover Intentions	.47	245	.08	3.28	3.13

Notes. 5 participants from the "Complete" sample were removed prior to this analysis because they failed both attention check items. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 3

Comparing Participants with 'Other' performance ratings to those without 'Other' performance ratings

Scale	t	df	d	Other Ratings	No Other Ratings
Self-esteem	2.37*	208	.33	5.74	5.44
Anxiety	.75	208	.11	2.00	1.93
Job Satisfaction	3.39**	208	.48	4.00	3.65
Leader-Member Exchange	3.18**	208	.45	5.83	5.27
OCB	.25	208	.03	3.12	3.09
CWB	-.66	208	.09	1.54	1.60
Task Performance	1.81	208	.26	6.45	6.27
Turnover Intentions	-2.17*	208	.31	2.94	3.50

Notes. $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 4

Hypothesis 1 – Task Focus to Conscientiousness

Parameter	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept (β_{00})	5.90**	5.93**	5.91**
Mean Slope Task Focus– Conscientiousness (β_{10})		-.02	-.03
Intercept Variance (r_0)	.32**	.33	.26
Slope Variance (r_1)			.02**
Within-person Variance	.29	.30	.27
Model Fit (-2LL)	1647.45	1652.41	1632.82
Δ Model fit		5.0 (1df)*	14.62 (2df)**^

Notes. $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$;

^Compared to Model 1 due to non-significant Model 2

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 5

Hypothesis 2 – Task Complexity to Conscientiousness

Parameter	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept (β_{00})	5.90**	5.90**	5.90**
Mean Slope Task Complexity– Conscientiousness (β_{10})		-.14**	-.14**
Intercept Variance (r_0)	.32**	.32**	.33**
Slope Variance (r_1)			.05**
Within-person Variance	.29	.28	.24
Model Fit (-2LL)	1647.45	1613.48	1573.31
Δ Model fit		33.97 (1df)**	40.17 (2df)**

*Notes. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 6

Hypothesis 3 – Friendliness of Interactions to Extraversion

Parameter	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept (β_{00})	4.55**	4.55**	4.55**
Mean Slope Friendliness–Extraversion (β_{10})		.47**	.45**
Intercept Variance (r_0)	.87**	.90**	.92**
Slope Variance (r_1)			.10**
Within-person Variance	.83	.71	.66
Model Fit (-2LL)	2466.36	2373.98	2364.74
Δ Model fit		92.38 (1df)**	9.24 (2df)**

*Notes. * p < .05, ** p < .01*

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 7

Hypothesis 4 – Friendliness of Interactions to Agreeableness

Parameter	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Intercept (β_{00})	4.84**	4.84**	4.84**
Mean Slope Friendliness–Agreeableness (β_{10})		.43**	.41**
Intercept Variance (r_0)	.88**	.91**	.92**
Slope Variance (r_1)			.05
Within-person Variance	.70	.60	.57
Model Fit (-2LL)	2360.15	2271.23	2266.17
Δ Model fit		88.92 (1df)**	5.05 (2df)

Notes. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 8

Fit statistics for individual scale CFAs

Scale	$\chi2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	Items Dropped	Final Item Number
Self-esteem	117.43**	35	.106	.909	.060	0	10
Anxiety	48.346**	9	.145	.920	.057	0	7
Job Satisfaction	325.34**	134	.083	.890	.063	2	18
Leader-Member Exchange	32.15**	14	.079	.983	.023	0	7
OCB	306.91**	119	.087	.872	.058	3	17
CWB	63.68**	27	.081	.905	.058	1	9

Notes. $* p < .01$, $** p < .001$; Task performance (2 items) and Turnover Intentions (3 items) had too few items to conduct CFAs.

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 9

Fit statistics for SEM models

Scale	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$
Measurement Model	501.63**	315	.053	.948	.062	
Model 1	760.45**	336	.078	.883	.146	
Model 2	594.80**	335	.061	.928	.107	165.65 (1df)**
Model 3	566.51**	328	.059	.934	.096	28.29 (7df)**

Notes. * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$; Hypotheses were tested against Model 3

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 10

Model 3 – Path Coefficients

Predictor	Outcome	β	z	p
Personality Variability	Self-esteem	-.157	-1.85	.06
Personality Variability	Anxiety	.188*	2.20	.03
Personality Variability	LMX	-.188*	-2.28	.02
Personality Variability	Job Satisfaction	-.251**	-2.98	< .01
Self-esteem	Task performance	.214*	2.36	.02
Self-esteem	OCB	.212*	2.47	.01
Self-esteem	CWB	.098	1.21	.226
Self-esteem	Turnover Intentions	.099	1.41	.16
Anxiety	Task performance	-.011	-.124	.90
Anxiety	OCB	.134	1.58	.11
Anxiety	CWB	.264**	3.13	< .01
Anxiety	Turnover Intentions	-.097	-1.38	.17
Job Satisfaction	Task performance	.152	1.03	.30
Job Satisfaction	OCB	-.183	-1.25	.21
Job Satisfaction	CWB	-.556**	-3.70	< .01
Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intentions	-.779**	-5.86	< .01
LMX	Task performance	.133	.91	.37
LMX	OCB	.276	1.89	.06
LMX	CWB	.050	.38	.71
LMX	Turnover Intentions	.110	.90	.37

Notes. $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$

Table 11

Model 3 – Bootstrapped Indirect Effects

Predictor	Mediator (s)	Outcome	*b*	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
Personality Variability	Self-esteem	Task Performance	-.095	-.326	.014
Personality Variability	Self-esteem	OCB	-.113	-.376	.012
Personality Variability	Self-esteem	CWB	-.032	-.132	.020
Personality Variability	Self-esteem	Turnover Intention	-.137	-.603	.055
Personality Variability	Anxiety	Task Performance	-.006	-.218	.137
Personality Variability	Anxiety	OCB	.086	.000	.395
Personality Variability	Anxiety	CWB	.102*	.005	.330
Personality Variability	Anxiety	Turnover Intention	-.161	-.737	.049
Personality Variability	LMX	Task Performance	-.071	-.432	.071
Personality Variability	LMX	OCB	-.177	-.597	.013
Personality Variability	LMX	CWB	-.020	-.229	.111
Personality Variability	LMX	Turnover Intention	-.183	-.196	.200
Personality Variability	Job Satisfaction	Task Performance	-.108	-.429	.100
Personality Variability	Job Satisfaction	OCB	.156	-.112	.538
Personality Variability	Job Satisfaction	CWB	.285*	.071	.684
Personality Variability	Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intention	1.73**	.581	3.915
Personality Variability	All Mediators	Task Performance	-.280*	-.686	-.058
Personality Variability	All Mediators	OCB	-.048	-.278	.249
Personality Variability	All Mediators	CWB	.335*	.081	.684
Personality Variability	All Mediators	Turnover Intention	1.248*	.289	2.623

Notes. * 95% CI does not contain zero

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 12

Fit Statistics for Individual Facet Models

Scale	$\chi 2$	df	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
Conscientiousness	457.67**	302	.050	.954	.086
Extraversion	501.78**	302	.056	.941	.099
Agreeableness	506.77**	302	.057	.941	.100
Neuroticism	420.06**	277	.050	.958	.083
Openness	456.13**	302	.049	.954	.096

Notes. ** p < .001

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 13

Path Coefficients: Individual Big Five Facet Models (Self-ratings)

Predictor	Outcome	Mediator (Indirect)	Path Type	Conscient. (β/b)	Extravers. (β/b)	Agreeable. (β/b)	Neuro. (β/b)	Openness (β/b)
Personality Variability	Self-esteem		Direct	-.316**	-.009	-.095	-.271**	-.085
Personality Variability	Anxiety		Direct	-.029	.077	.148	.337**	.185*
Personality Variability	LMX		Direct	-.376**	-.208*	.085	-.244**	-.047
Personality Variability	Job Satisfaction		Direct	-.346*	-.147	-.170*	-.332**	-.107
Self-esteem	Task performance		Direct	.221*	.215*	.215*	.215**	.215**
Self-esteem	OCB		Direct	.213*	.210*	.211*	.214*	.211*
Self-esteem	CWB		Direct	.095	.099	.098	.101	.099
Self-esteem	Turnover Intentions		Direct	.098	.098	.097	.102	.098
Anxiety	Task performance		Direct	-.006	-.012	-.010	-.007	-.010
Anxiety	OCB		Direct	.135	.133	.133	.137	.134
Anxiety	CWB		Direct	.259**	.265**	.263**	.268**	.264**
Anxiety	Turnover Intentions		Direct	-.097	-.094	-.097	-.098	-.095
LMX	Task performance		Direct	.135	.132	.138	.131	.132
LMX	OCB		Direct	.281	.288*	.269	.283*	.278*
LMX	CWB		Direct	.032	.032	.055	.052	.041
LMX	Turnover Intentions		Direct	.108	.102	.104	.112	.111

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Job Satisfaction	Task performance		Direct	.148	.154	.148	.154	.154
Job Satisfaction	OCB		Direct	-.192	-.195	-.176	-.190	-.185
Job Satisfaction	CWB		Direct	-.544**	-.537**	-.559**	-.550**	-.544**
Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intentions		Direct	-.778**	-.767**	-.771**	-.788**	-.777**
Personality Variability	Task Performance	Self-esteem	Indirect	-.105	-.005	-.027	-.064	-.023
Personality Variability	OCB	Self-esteem	Indirect	-.121	-.006	-.032	-.077	-.027
Personality Variability	CWB	Self-esteem	Indirect	-.032	-.002	-.009	-.022	-.008
Personality Variability	Turnover Intention	Self-esteem	Indirect	-.144	-.008	-.038	-.095	-.033
Personality Variability	Task Performance	Anxiety	Indirect	.000	-.003	-.002	-.003	-.002
Personality Variability	OCB	Anxiety	Indirect	.007	.034	.031	.061	.037
Personality Variability	CWB	Anxiety	Indirect	.008	.041	.037	.072	.044
Personality Variability	Turnover Intention	Anxiety	Indirect	.013	-.063	-.059	-.113	-.069
Personality Variability	Task Performance	LMX	Indirect	-.076	-.076	-.015	-.035	-.008
Personality Variability	OCB	LMX	Indirect	-.190	-.201	-.036	-.091	-.020
Personality Variability	CWB	LMX	Indirect	-.013	-.013	-.004	-.010	-.002
Personality Variability	Turnover Intention	LMX	Indirect	-.189	-.185	-.037	-.094	-.020
Personality Variability	Task Performance	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	-.077	-.063	-.033	-.056	-.021
Personality Variability	OCB	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	.120	.097	.047	.084	.030
Personality Variability	CWB	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	.201	.159	.090	.146	.053

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Personality Variability	Turnover Intention	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	1.252	.990*	.539	.897*	.327

Notes. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 14

Path Coefficients: Aggregated Big Five and Individual Facet Models (Other-ratings)

Predictor	Outcome	Mediator (Indirect)	Path Type	Big Five (b)	Conscient. (b)	Extravers. (b)	Agreeab. (b)	Neuro. (b)	Openness (b)
Self-esteem	Task Performance		Direct	.013	-.027	.023	-.004	.011	.007
Self-esteem	OCB		Direct	.087	.118	.070	.080	.085	.077
Self-esteem	CWB		Direct	-.005	-.002	.001	-.003	-.007	-.005
Anxiety	Task Performance		Direct	.308*	.248	.309*	.254	.340*	.285
Anxiety	OCB		Direct	.160	.222	.167	.176	.188	.164
Anxiety	CWB		Direct	-.031	-.030	-.022	-.025	-.046	.032
LMX	Task Performance		Direct	.311**	.301*	.302**	.304**	.323**	.310**
LMX	OCB		Direct	.106	-.117	.114	-.185	.110	.099
LMX	CWB		Direct	-.030	-.029	-.032	-.030	-.033	-.029
Job Satisfaction	Task performance		Direct	-.304	-.328	-.266	-.272	-.369	-.286
Job Satisfaction	OCB		Direct	-.166	-.139	-.201	.109	-.183	-.169
Job Satisfaction	CWB		Direct	-.001	.003	.006	-.008	.011	-.006
Personality Variability	Task Performance	Self-esteem	Indirect	-.002	.015	.004	.070	-.002	.000
Personality Variability	OCB	Self-esteem	Indirect	-.013	-.068	.012	-.001	-.015	-.004
Personality Variability	CWB	Self-esteem	Indirect	.001	.002	.002	.000	.001	.000
Personality Variability	Task Performance	Anxiety	Indirect	.173*	.023	.074	.000	.110	.133

Personality Variability	OCB	Anxiety	Indirect	.090	.021	.040	.041	.061	.077
Personality Variability	CWB	Anxiety	Indirect	-.018	-.003	-.005	-.006	-.015	-.015
Personality Variability	Task Performance	LMX	Indirect	-.110	-.271	.007	.027	-.096	.062
Personality Variability	OCB	LMX	Indirect	-.037	-.105	.003	.019	-.032	.003
Personality Variability	CWB	LMX	Indirect	.003	-.002	.000	.002	-.004	-.001
Personality Variability	Task Performance	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	.121	.193	-.006	.060	.114	.008
Personality Variability	OCB	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	.070	.082	-.005	-.007	.056	.037
Personality Variability	CWB	Job Satisfaction	Indirect	.010	.027	-.007	.001	.010	.001

Notes. * $p < .01$, ** $p < .00$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 15

Path Coefficients for the Alternative Direct Paths Model (Self-ratings)

Predictor	Outcome	Big Five (β)	Conscient. (β)	Extravers. (β)	Agree. (β)	Neuro. (β)	Openness (β)
Personality Variability	Task Performance	.029	-.285*	.010	.068	.002	.001
Personality Variability	OCB	-.144	-.119	-.089	-.240**	.006	-.120
Personality Variability	CWB	.227**	.289*	.215**	.214*	.205*	.036
Personality Variability	Turnover Intentions	.024	.110	.108	-.040	.056	.086

*Notes. * p < .05, ** p < .01*

Table 16

Path Coefficients for the Alternative Direct Paths Model (Other-ratings)

Predictor	Outcome	Big Five (b)	Conscient. (b)	Extravers. (b)	Agree. (b)	Neuro. (b)	Openness (b)
Personality Variability	Task Performance	-.259	-.370	-.169	.138	-.342*	-.048
Personality Variability	OCB	.262	.393	.138	.112	.029	.151
Personality Variability	CWB	-.024	.053	-.065	-.059	.060	-.015

Notes. $* p < .05, ** p < .01$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 17

Variance explained by Personality Variability above Personality Means (Self-Ratings)

Predictor	Outcome	r^2	Δr^2	F	p
Means	Self-Esteem	.186			
Means + Variability	Self-Esteem	.216	.030	1.52	.19
Means	Anxiety	.141			
Means + Variability	Anxiety	.169	.028	1.27	.28
Means	Job Satisfaction	.240			
Means + Variability	Job Satisfaction	.268	.028	1.54	.18
Means	LMX	.215			
Means + Variability	LMX	.258	.043	2.30*	.04
Means	Task Performance	.138			
Means + Variability	Task Performance	.176	.038	1.85	.10
Means	OCB	.173			
Means + Variability	OCB	.196	.023	1.11	.36
Means	CWB	.194			
Means + Variability	CWB	.234	.040	2.06	.07
Means	Turnover Intentions	.135			
Means + Variability	Turnover Intentions	.171	.036	1.75	.12

Notes. $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$

VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Table 18

Variance explained by Personality Variability above Personality Means (Other-Ratings)

Predictor	Outcome	r^2	Δr^2	F	p
Means	Task Performance	.053			
Means + Variability	Task Performance	.190	.147	2.51*	.04
Means	OCB	.054			
Means + Variability	OCB	.077	.023	.36	.84
Means	CWB	.133			
Means + Variability	CWB	.165	.032	.58	.72

*Notes. * p < .05, ** p < .01*

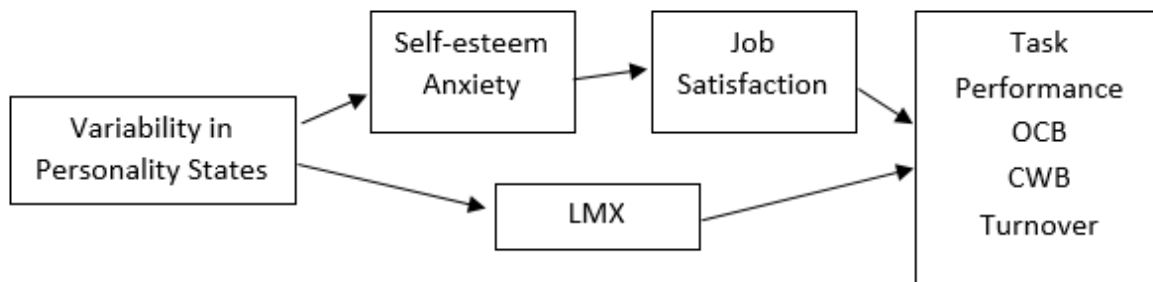VARIABILITY IN PERSONALITY AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Figure 1

Hypothesized Model (Model 1)

Figure 2. *Model 3 with Standardized Coefficients*

Notes. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01; Numbers at top right corner of outcomes represent *r²*